

The London School of Economics and Political Science

A Theoretical and Empirical Extension of the Perceived

Organizational Support Construct: Three Papers

Examining the Role of Social Comparison, Organizational

Malevolence, and Social Resources

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*“Everything we hear is an opinion, not a fact.
Everything we see is a perspective, not the truth.”*

- Marcus Aurelius

Declaration

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I confirm that an earlier draft of Paper 2 - Perceived Organizational Cruelty: A Test of Employees' Attribution of the Malevolent Organization (Chapter 5) was jointly co-authored with Dr Pedro Neves (Nova, Lisbon) and presented at the 2013 Academy of Management Conference (Orlando). Dr Neves conducted a preliminary statistical analysis of data on the aforementioned draft, however, statistical analysis within the current paper is entirely the work of myself, and therefore, the paper is 100% my own work.

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ABSTRACT

The perceived organizational support (POS) construct has received a significant degree of attention within the literature, helping scholars and practitioners alike to better understand and interpret the relational dynamic between the employee and their employer. However, this thesis contends that there are a number of assumptions, gaps and confounds that limit the extent to which POS can offer greater construct validity. As such, this thesis presents a collection of three stand-alone scholarly papers that aim to further develop and extend the POS construct as well as organizational support theory (OST), both theoretically and empirically. The first paper explores the theoretical assumption that an individual's POS is increased by both the direct (i.e. idiosyncratic) receipt of supportive organizational treatment, as well as the observation of coworker (i.e. the group/collective) receipt of such treatment. This presents a potential confound in that OST also holds that POS is systemic of notions that the individual is treated fairly; thus hypothetically, an individual's appraisal that, in comparison, other coworkers have received more supportive organizational treatment, could lead to notions of unfair treatment due to relative under-benefit. As such this paper explores the influence the social context and social comparison processes have regarding POS, with findings suggesting that employees can and do differentiate between their idiosyncratic receipt of organizational support in comparison to others (perceived organizational support social comparison – POSSC), and that such a perception accounts for unique and meaningful variance with regards to the measurement of POS as well as possessing unique motivational and predictive influence on prosocial outcomes. The second paper examines the assumption that

whilst accounting for organizational benevolence, the POS construct also accounts for organizational malevolence. By utilizing the recently proposed theoretical construct of perceived organizational cruelty (POC), this paper explores POS and POC's convergent and discriminant validity, both theoretically and empirically, and suggests that whilst POS specifically concerns organizational benevolence, POC in turn specifically concerns organizational malevolence. Findings elucidate that the constructs are (antithetically) related, yet are distinct such that each construct possesses differential characteristics as they relate to certain attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Finally, the third paper explores the mechanisms and motivations that exist within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. Extant OST holds that this dynamic is subject to conscious and rational rules and norms relating to social exchange and reciprocity. Conversely, by utilizing conservation of resources and self-determination theories, this paper reasons that the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic could also be subject to subconscious influences relating to self-relevant resources and needs for relatedness. Findings that POS functions through emotional engagement (as opposed to cognitive and physical engagement) offer support for this reasoning, suggesting that rather than being instrumental in nature, POS acts as an emotional resource that facilitates greater emotionally based prosocial outcomes. Overall, in order to test hypotheses in each paper, data from one or a combination of three samples was utilized; with these samples being a longitudinal survey of employees from a large hospital/healthcare provider in the UK, a longitudinal survey of employees of a graduate development scheme within a large international logistics company based in the UK, and a convenience sample of individuals employed in the USA.

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1 Introduction and Overview of the Thesis

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1.1 Introduction

Understanding the nature of the relationship between the employee and his/her employing organization, has been a primary concern for many organizational behavior and industrial/organizational psychology scholars over many decades (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012; Shore, Tetrick, Taylor, et al., 2004; Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). Specifically, this interest, to a greater or lesser extent, can be seen to be influenced by the seminal works of Blau (1964), Gouldner (1960), Levinson (1965) and March & Simon (1958) (to name but a few), whose theories have helped shape our view and our understanding of the *employee-organization relationship* (EOR). Essentially, these theoretical works have helped form and underpin much of our understanding of the EOR by proposing a number of influential tenets. For example, psychologically, employees are seen to *personify* the organization, and as such view the organization similar to that of a more powerful individual (Levinson, 1965). Regarding the *dyadic* relationship between the employee and the organization, the EOR is seen as an *exchange of resources* between both parties (March & Simon, 1958), that with the continued exchange of desired and beneficial resources can develop a *socio-emotional* bond between the employee and the organization (Blau, 1964). Further, regulating this dyadic relationship, the *norm of reciprocity* helps ensure that both parties exchange a fair ratio of resources with one another (Gouldner, 1960).

Influenced by these works, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa (1986) looked to examine the nature of the EOR, and specifically, the role of *commitment* between the organization and the employee, and vice versa. Eisenberger and his colleagues (1986) reasoned that employees view the relationship they have with the organization as similar to that with another more powerful individual; further, the degree to which employees receive treatment from the organization which is deemed as *benevolent* in nature, influences a global belief as to how much the organization *supports* the individual. Chiefly, they argued that employees engage in an *attributional* process, forming “beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (p. 500). As such, they suggested that employees actively engage in a cognitive process of *evaluation* regarding the quality of the relationship they have with the organization. Eisenberger et al. (1986) termed this global belief as *perceived organizational support* (POS) and found support for an overarching hypothesis such that increased POS relates to employees’ greater propensity to reciprocate the organization with likewise favorable treatment.

Arguably, Eisenberger et al.’s work (1986) has made a significant impact on the organizational behavior, industrial-organizational psychology, and broader organization-based literatures. For example, a recent search of scholarly work(s) found that the article had been cited 5,017 times, whilst a search for literature that included the term “perceived organizational support” within the title and within the body of the text, produced 939 and 15,900 results respectively (Google Scholar, August, 2014).

Arguably, there are perhaps two broad reasons why POS has received such a significant amount of attention. Firstly, the POS construct, and likewise organizational support theory (OST - Eisenberger et al, 1986; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) possesses parsimony and simplicity in its theoretical approach. Put simply, by treating employees in a positive manner (such as with fairness, dignity, respect, concern and appreciation etc.), organizations can reap the rewards of having employees who respond in a likewise favorable, quid pro quo manner. Secondly, from an empirical perspective, POS has consistently demonstrated robust internal reliability; with POS displaying positive relationships with prosocial attitudes and behaviors such as commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational citizenship behaviors, and overall performance, whilst having a negative relationship with withdrawal behavior, turnover intentions and notions of strain at work (for a meta-analytic review, see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmonson; & Hansen, 2009).

Overall, concerning the antecedents of POS, both theoretical and empirical evidence would seem to support the view that supportive organizational treatment, per se, is positive for the employee (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Indeed, the extant literature has produced little evidence to challenge an overall assumption that the maximization of supportive organizational treatment offered to employees (which is thus seen to foster greater levels of POS) will have an ever-increasing positive effect on both the employee and the organization. For example, whilst POS has been shown to be related to organizational

citizenship behaviors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), in turn, organizational citizenship behaviors have been linked to increased organizational performance (e.g. Koys, 2001; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009; Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). Likewise, whilst POS is negatively related to intentions to quit (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), recent meta-analytic research has shown that voluntary turnover has a negative impact on organizational performance (Park & Shaw, 2013), thus further supporting the utility of POS. Arguably, therefore, organizational practitioners may reasonably conclude that the OST/POS literature theoretically and empirically supports the proposition that, by increasing supportive organizational treatment within the workplace, the organization will reap the rewards of having more satisfied employees, who in turn will reciprocate with increased prosocial behaviors; ultimately resulting in increased bottom-line profits. Put simply, a clear business case for increasing supportive organizational treatment within the workplace would appear to be supported by the POS construct/literature (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

1.2 Statement of the Problem: Do We Know What

We Think We Know?

Perceived organizational support has been widely utilized in order to explain and measure the *quality* of the EOR (c.f. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shore et al., 2012). However, despite its popularity and its apparent robust empirical validity, this thesis posits that, in part, POS and OST may still remain theoretically

underdeveloped, and consequently, extant empirical findings may not provide as full, or as accurate, an account of the quality of the EOR. Indeed, more recently Eisenberger and his colleagues (2004, 2011) noted that, despite numerous studies, POS/OST has received very little in the way of critical theoretical analysis since its conception in 1986. Core to this thesis is the proposition that OST holds a number of tenets and assumptions that have received limited critical theoretical attention, and/or may contradict one another when considered simultaneously. Further as such, empirical analyses of the EOR that have relied on POS may potentially provide confounding (or spurious) interpretations of the employment relationship. Thus, this section will briefly explore some of these potentially problematic issues.

1.2.1 Question 1: How does the social context influence the individual's perception of organizational supportiveness?

Organizational support theory explicitly holds that organizational practitioners should look to maximize the bestowment of supportive organizational treatment in order to solicit greater prosocial attitudes and behaviors from employees (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In essence, OST assumes that whilst supportive organizational treatment may be experienced by individual employees in different ways and to differing extents (such as through the receipt of tangible pay rises, bonuses, promotions, training, etc., as well as through the receipt of treatment that relays intangible notions of being cared for, praised, appreciated etc.), the observation of such positive treatment amongst employees essentially heightens employees' POS through a multiplier effect. In other words, due to the collective identification coworkers share with one another (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), OST holds that

supportive organizational treatment not only signals the value and caring the organization has for the individual it bestows such treatment towards, but also implicitly signals its value and caring for employees as a whole (i.e. at a group/collective-level).

However, this thesis proposes that this assumption is problematic when we consider that OST also holds that a fundamental antecedent of POS is the notion that the employee is treated *fairly* within the EOR (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). Indeed, theories that consider fairness (e.g. Adams, 1965) have long purported that, in a practical sense, the distribution of resources within the organizational context naturally differs between employees (c.f. Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005) and that this in turn, can affect employees' favorable versus unfavorable appraisals of the fairness of the exchange relationship (e.g. Mowday, 1991). Predominantly, attributions of fairness are seen to be formulated via an assessment of the individual's ratio of inputs vis-à-vis outcomes within the EOR, in comparison to the input-outcome ratio of other EORs. Broadly, certain scholars have argued that individuals possess an innate subconscious self-serving bias, meaning that a comparative appraisal that the individual does better than others fosters greater satisfaction (i.e. greater perceptions of fairness), whilst an appraisal that the individual fairs worse than others fosters greater dissatisfaction (i.e. greater perceptions of unfairness) (e.g. Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Chen, Choi, & Chi, 2002; Van den Bos, Wilke, Lind, & Vermunt, 1998).

As such, this thesis suggests that we are unsure as to the effect supportive organizational treatment may have on POS amongst employees. Raising the question:

does supportive organizational treatment increase POS for *both* those who directly receive it *and* for those who do not receive it but observe its receipt amongst other employees; or alternatively, does supportive organizational treatment increase POS for those who directly receive it, yet diminish POS for those whom have not received such treatment (due to being comparatively under-benefited)? A potential example of this could be an individual who witnesses other coworkers receiving a promotion, yet they themselves have not received one. In such a scenario, does the individual view the organization as being generally supportive regarding employees' career progression, or alternatively, does the individual view the organization negatively due to feelings of being disadvantaged? Therefore, practically, organizations looking to increase employees' prosocial attitudes and behaviors through investment in greater supportive resources may not be sure as to whether employees' POS will be broadly uplifted, or instead, foster greater disparity of POS amongst employees. Whilst the former outcome is likely to be favorable for the organization, the latter outcome would suggest that employees who perceive that they receive less supportive organizational treatment may engage in less prosocial, or indeed potentially antisocial, attitudes and behaviors (c.f. Greenberg, 1990).

Further, whilst the above reasoning suggests that there may be a need for OST to pay further theoretical attention regarding the influence the social context has on attributional processes associated with POS, this thesis argues that, from an empirical perspective, the problem may be compounded by limitations associated with the extant method of POS measurement (i.e. the survey of perceived organizational support). To explain, when measuring POS, employees are asked to rate their level of agreement with statements such as “[*the organization*] cares about my general satisfaction at work” and “[*the organization*] takes pride in my accomplishments at

work” (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Whilst an initial consideration may suggest that the focus of such statements concern an employee’s belief that he/she is supported by the organization, we cannot be sure as to whether this belief is an appraisal of the individual’s *idiosyncratic* receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to/with other employees, or alternatively, is *collectively* inferred through the receipt of supportive organizational treatment by employees per se (or indeed, a combination of both). Indeed, there is evidence to suggest that an individual’s definition of *self* is, to a lesser or greater extent, comprised of a socially inclusive (i.e. collective) component (e.g. Brewer, 1991; Brewer & Gardner, 1996); thus, a notion concerning whether or not the organization takes pride in an individual’s accomplishments at work (for example) could theoretically be influenced by the individual’s perception of the pride the organization has taken in his/her coworkers’ work. The distinction may appear subtle, however, by not knowing the extent to which an employee’s POS represents an idiosyncratic (i.e. individualistic) vis-à-vis collectivistic (i.e. group) appraisal of supportive organizational treatment, we cannot be sure as to how strong the influence of social comparison is on POS and subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Nor, for that matter, can we know the extent to which supportive organizational treatment distributed amongst employees (per se) possesses a multiplier effect on POS and subsequent attitudes and behaviors.

In short, there may be distinct variations in how employees formulate and rationalize perceptions of organizational supportiveness, meaning we cannot be sure of the exact *frame of reference* concerning individuals’ attribution of POS. In turn, this confounding effect may potentially lead to measurement variance (or measurement error) between POS and other variables, meaning that extant findings may not present as clear a reflection of actual EOR phenomena as is assumed (c.f.

Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Edwards, 2003; Schwab, 1980). This in turn could have important practical implications for how organizations should best approach the bestowment and distribution of supportive organizational treatment.

1.2.2 Question 2: Does *low* POS represent a belief that the organization is malevolent?

Another potential confounding effect arises when we again consider that the POS construct is often seen to represent, and is utilized to measure, the overall quality of the EOR (c.f. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac et al., 2008; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shore et al., 2012); such that greater POS is seen to indicate an employee's belief that the organization is positively orientated towards the individual, whilst conversely, lower POS indicates an employee's belief that the organization is negatively orientated towards the individual (e.g. Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Indeed, whilst OST is predominantly positivistic in its approach (such that it considers the antecedents and outcomes associated with *increased* POS), formative literatures have also suggested that *decreased* (i.e. lower) POS represents an attribution that the organization is essentially *malevolent* towards the employee (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2001; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades et al., 2001).

Arguably, this is problematic when we consider that a closer examination of the empirical measurement of POS reveals that perceptions of organizational benevolence are indeed captured, yet arguably, perceptions of malevolence are not. This is important, as theoretically the lack of (perceived) organizational supportiveness does not necessarily indicate the existence of the antithesis (c.f. Dalal,

2005). In other words, whilst we can be sure that low POS may represent a perceived *lack of* supportive organizational treatment, we should not assume that a perceived lack of organizational benevolence necessarily indicates a perception of organizational malevolence. Again, this is a subtle yet important distinction as literatures that have considered such things as employees' negative attitudes and behaviors, including counterproductive work behavior/organizational deviance (e.g. Bennett & Robinson 2000; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) and intention to quit (e.g. Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002), suggest that such attitudes and behaviors are likely to be a reciprocal response to negative treatment experienced within the workplace. Thus, whilst it is possible to reason that heightened POS is likely to be negatively related to counterproductive work behaviors (etc.), when employees report low POS we may be less certain as to the extent they are likely to engage in negative reciprocal attitudes and behaviors, as we are unsure of the extent to which low POS encompasses attributions of actual organizational malevolence (as opposed to merely a lack of organizational benevolence). Again, in sum, due to a lack of specificity, the POS construct may be susceptible to measurement variance resulting in findings that may not represent actual EOR phenomena as accurately as they could; thus somewhat, limiting the construct's ability to predict behavior (e.g. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Edwards, 2003; Schwab, 1980).

1.2.3 Question 3: Do other mechanisms and motivations exist within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, other than those relating to exchange and reciprocal rules and norms?

Organizational support theory conceptualizes supportive organizational treatment as a *resource(s)* that is bestowed from the organization to the employee; in return, employees reciprocate with prosocial attitudes and behaviors, which likewise are seen as a resource (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2001, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Panaccio & Vandenberghe, 2009; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). OST holds that the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic is in effect a dyadic exchange of resources which is governed by the rules and norms associated with social exchange (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960); such that with the receipt of desirable resources, employees' POS is increased, and in return, employees are obligated to reciprocate with likewise desirable resources. Principally, this reasoning closely resembles that of March and Simon's (1958) assertion that the work environment can broadly be seen as a marketplace in which the organization and employee exchange resources as a form of *currency*.

Yet, OST holds that POS is also contingent on the fulfillment of employees' *socio-emotional needs*, which are conceptualized as the need for emotional support, affiliation, esteem, and approval (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This is arguably problematic, as from a dyadic exchange perspective, OST suggests that the mechanism between the receipt of supportive organizational treatment and employees' subsequent prosocial

behaviors is subject to a *rational cognitive* evaluation of the fairness of the exchange dynamic (subject to the norms and obligations regarding reciprocity – e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2001); however, from an individual/self-level perspective, OST also implies that *emotional* need fulfillment predetermines POS, and consequently prosocial behavior. The reason this may be problematic is that, when considering the broader psychology literature as a whole, there is significant evidence that self-related needs play a dominant role in predicting and motivating human behavior (e.g. Buss, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Maslow, 1943; Mayer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000) at the expense of rational cognition (c.f. Dijksterhuis, Chartrand, & Aarts, 2007). Therefore, it is possible to argue that rather than being governed by a rational cognitive process, the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic may be more greatly influenced by factors relating to self-related needs. Theoretically this is of importance as OST explains the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes of POS as a process of conscious volitional exchange, yet pays little attention to the emotional and subconscious mechanisms that may also influence this dynamic. Indeed, recent research has brought into question the over-reliance on exchange and reciprocal based accounts as a motivational mechanism regarding employee behavior, suggesting that behavior can be seen as a subconscious reaction to certain situational influences (e.g. Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Fundamentally, the extant theoretical underpinnings of OST may not fully account for the phenomenon that it directly concerns.

1.2.4 Summing up: answering the call for the continued theoretical and empirical development and extension of the POS construct

In sum, this thesis argues that, whilst OST and the POS construct would appear to have had a significant impact on the way we understand the EOR, there are a number of theoretical and empirical questions/gaps, that if not addressed, could limit our ability to more fully understand, and/or may confound our understanding of, the EOR phenomenon. Indeed, whilst Eisenberger and his colleagues (2004, 2011) have rightly noted the impressive amount of interest and impact that the POS construct has garnered over a period of nearly three decades, they have nonetheless also called for renewed critical examination of OST, as they note that there have been limited attempts to both scrutinize and extend the POS construct in recent years.

1.3 A Brief Overview of the Aims and Structure of the Thesis

1.3.1 Thesis structure: a collection of three scholarly papers

Whilst the preceding section briefly highlighted a number of theoretical and empirical questions/gaps relating to POS/OST, the core purpose of this thesis will be to investigate these potential confounds in greater depth. The thesis is structured as a collection of three stand-alone scholarly papers (i.e. in the style/format of a journal article), with each paper considering one of the three problems/questions highlighted above. As such, it is within each of the three papers that this thesis aims to make

theoretical and empirical contributions to our understanding of the organizational support phenomenon. Thus, in line with the first problem highlighted above, the first paper (which is presented in chapter 4) considers the role of social comparison within the POS-attitudinal and behavioral outcome dynamic, and proposes an adaptation to the empirical measurement of POS in order to account for the effects of social comparison within the phenomenon. The second paper (chapter 5) addresses the second problem highlighted above, considering the role of employees' perceptions of organizational malevolence; building on the recent theorizing of Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) the paper aims to empirically capture perceived organizational cruelty, which when combined with the measure of POS, it is argued, accounts for employees' attribution of organizational malevolence through to benevolence. The third and final paper (chapter 6) concerns the third highlighted problem, exploring whether supportive organizational treatment can be viewed as a form of social resource that provides employees with a form of emotional energy, which in turn, facilitates innate needs to engage in prosocial attitudes and behaviors.

Whilst the three papers constitute the core theoretical and empirical contributions of the thesis, preceding these papers, the following chapter (chapter 2) will look to provide a general theoretical overview of the POS construct/OST. The chapter's intended purpose is to provide the reader with a broad orientation with regards to the extant POS/OST literature. As such, chapter 2 does not look to develop hypotheses, but rather looks to provide the reader with a review of the literature, with each of the subsequent three papers examining the construct in more critical depth. In a similar vein, chapter 3 will look to provide a broad overview of the extant empirical methods used to capture POS, as well as in addition, presenting the broad rationale which underpins the methodological/empirical approach of the subsequent three

papers. Finally, chapter 7 will conclude the thesis by reviewing the overall theoretical and empirical contributions of the three papers, whilst also considering the broader practical implications, limitations, and potential future directions that may stem from this research when considered as a whole.

1.3.2 Statement of the thesis's overall critical approach

Overall, the aim of this thesis is not to refute the core theoretical and empirical tenets of the POS construct, but rather to address potentially important and salient gaps/confounds with the aid of nomologically related constructs; thus, providing greater clarity and extension to our understanding of POS/OST. Indeed, this is consistent with a general call from Eisenberger and his colleagues (2004, 2011) for the continued theoretical and empirical development of the POS/OST domain. Specifically, through the process of deductive reasoning, each of the three stand-alone papers will pose hypotheses that will then be subjected to empirical testing. Through this process, it is argued that the extent to which empirical evidence supports proposed hypothetico-deductive reasoning will highlight the overall contribution this thesis offers OST and the POS construct.

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2 Perceived Organizational Support: A Theoretical Overview of the Construct

- 2.1 Introduction: Aim of this Chapter
- 2.2 A Brief Overview of the Perceived Organizational Support Construct
- 2.3 Perceived Organizational Support and its Nomological Framework
 - 2.3.1 The employee-organization relationship: the instrumental and market perspective
 - 2.3.2 Social exchange theory
 - 2.3.3 Reciprocity
 - 2.3.4 Fairness and equity
 - 2.3.5 Personification of the organization
 - 2.3.6 Socio-emotional needs
 - 2.3.7 Attributions
 - 2.3.8 Summary and discussion: the predominance of social exchange and reciprocity within the POS construct/OST
- 2.4 Moving Forward: The Overarching Theoretical Approach of the Thesis
- 2.5 Conclusion
- 2.6 References

2.1 Introduction: Aim of this Chapter

As has been highlighted in the introductory chapter, this thesis is structured as a collection of three stand-alone papers, with each paper written and presented in such a format that would normally be expected within a peer-reviewed academic journal. Whilst the first chapter briefly introduced the reader to the topic area, highlighting a number of theoretical and empirical problems that each paper will aim to address, the purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with an overview of the literature concerning perceived organizational support (POS), organizational support theory (OST), and more broadly, the employee-organization relationship (EOR) literature which purposely relates to OST and the POS construct. Consistent with the broad aim of this thesis, this overview specifically looks to understand how the extant literature details the mechanisms and motivators that exist within the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic. Primarily, this will involve considering the foundational theoretical works, as well as other works that have provided theoretical advancement in subsequent years. As such, this chapter is not designed as a means to develop hypotheses, but rather to provide the reader with a broad overview of the theoretical themes that will be considered in more specific detail within each paper. Overall, this chapter will help to provide the theoretical basis, definitions, and terms of reference for the three subsequent papers.

2.2 A Brief Overview of the Perceived Organizational Support Construct

Both the POS construct and OST (Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa 1986; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Shore, 1995) have received a significant degree of interest within the organizational behavior and associated literatures (e.g. human resources management, management, occupational psychology, etc.) since the construct's conception by Eisenberger and his colleagues in their seminal paper entitled "*Perceived Organizational Support*" (1986). At its core, Eisenberger et al. (1986) proposed that the relationship between the employee and the organization is not only characterized by a simple, economic exchange of labor for cash, but that both the employee and the organization may engage in more complex exchange interactions, which can help build and foster an enriched relationship that brings mutual benefit to both the employee and the organization.

Essentially, OST posits that high quality EORs (i.e. that represent enriched social exchanges between the two parties) are subject to the employee's belief that the organization is supportive and caring (i.e. benevolent) towards them. Specifically, employees are seen to formulate *perceptions* of support (i.e. POS) when the individual either receives or observes supportive organizational treatment bestowed from the organization; as Eisenberger et al. (1986) noted, "employees form global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and

cares for their well-being” (p. 500). Later, in reviewing the POS literature, Eisenberger et al. (2004) concluded that “employees evidently believe that the organization has a general positive or negative orientation toward them that encompasses both their contributions and their welfare” (p. 207), or put more simply, POS is “a global belief that employees form concerning their valuation by the organization” (Eisenberger et al., 2004, p. 207). As such, POS can be seen as an employee’s attributional *evaluation* regarding how supportive the organization is towards the employee (and employees per se), and consequently in turn, encompassing the employee’s perception as to the organization’s evaluation of the employee. Thus, the greater the POS, the greater the employee feels both valued and cared for by the organization.

Regarding the antecedents of POS, Eisenberger and his colleagues suggest that supportive organizational treatment can be broadly categorized as consisting of fairness of organizational treatment, supportive supervisory treatment, and supportive human resources practices (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). They suggest that fairness of organizational treatment essentially concerns the degree to which an employee(s) is fairly rewarded for their efforts in pursuing organizational goals, as well as the overall fairness of the distribution of resources amongst employees, and the procedures used when distributing those resources. Supportive supervisory treatment is seen to represent supportive organizational treatment due to the supervisor’s role as agent of the organization, thus, positive treatment from superiors is likewise seen as positive treatment from the organization. Whilst finally, supportive human resource policies and practices that promote the investment in, and the development of, employees by the organization are seen to signal the organization’s value, and commitment towards, its employees.

Subsequently, it is with the perception that the organization is supportive (i.e. POS) that empirical research has shown positive relationships with employees' prosocial attitudes and behaviors, such as commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, organization citizenship behaviors and overall performance, whilst having a negative relationship with withdrawal behavior, turnover intentions and notions of strain at work (for a meta-analysis, see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009; for a review, see Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Thus, OST suggests that POS can be seen to capture the employee's overall (i.e. generalized) evaluation of the exchange relationship, and importantly also accounts for the psychological linkage between supportive organizational treatment and subsequent prosocial attitudes and behaviors. Arguably, therefore, POS's significant popularity within the literature may stem from its parsimonious theoretical account of *how* and *why* employees may engage in attitudes and behaviors that benefit the organization; further, the POS construct appears to be supported by robust empirical findings. As Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) noted, "an appealing feature of organizational support theory is that it provides clear, readily testable predictions regarding antecedents and outcomes of POS along with specificity of assumed processes and ease of testing these processes empirically" (p. 699).

2.3 Perceived Organizational Support and its

Nomological Framework

Importantly, whilst POS/OST exists as a distinct conceptual/theoretical domain, it can nonetheless be seen to utilize, as well as share distinct similarities with, a number of other notable and influential theories and theoretical constructs. Indeed, more broadly, Suddaby (2010) succinctly noted the following with regard to the inter-relationships between theories/theoretical constructs:

“with apologies to John Donne, no construct is an island. Constructs exist only in referential relationships, either explicit or implicit, with other constructs and with the phenomena they are designed to represent. New constructs are rarely created de novo. Rather, they are usually the result of creative building upon preexisting constructs, which themselves refer to other extant constructs, in an ongoing web of referential relationships. Constructs, thus, are the outcome of a semantic network of conceptual connections to other prior constructs” [and thus,] “theoretical constructs are suspended in a complex web of references to, and relationships with, other constructs” (p. 350).

Broadly, the POS construct/OST can be seen to encapsulate and utilize a number of nomologically connected constructs/theories that help it to explain the social and psychological processes between the phenomenon of supportive organizational treatment and an attribution of organizational supportiveness (i.e. POS), and further, between employees’ POS and their subsequent prosocial attitudes and behaviors. Or as Cronbach & Meehl (1955) would suggest, they provide the

nomological framework which gives the POS construct/OST its ‘interlocking system of laws’. Specifically, these theories include: the instrumental and market perspectives of the EOR (Homans, 1958; March & Simon, 1958), social exchange (Blau, 1964), reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), equity and fairness (Adams, 1965), the personification of the organization (Levinson, 1965), socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Hill, 1987), and attribution theory (Heider, 1958). As such, POS/OST exists within a nomological framework (c.f. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955) that can be seen to span sociological, psychological, and economic domains. In line with the aims of this thesis, this section considers these theories vis-à-vis their relation to POS/OST, thus helping to provide a nomological framework and terms of reference to help guide subsequent critical arguments housed within each of the thesis’s three scholarly papers.

2.3.1 The employee-organization relationship: the instrumental and market perspective

At its core, OST is focused on the relationship the employee has vis-à-vis the organization, and as such, is fundamentally grounded within the EOR literature. Arguably, in its most basic form, OST views the EOR in instrumental terms. For example, Eisenberger et al. (2004) noted that “POS provides the basis for trust in the organization to observe and reward extra effort carried out on its behalf” (p. 207). Therefore, whilst OST primarily concerns the development of POS through enriched relational exchanges between the employee and the organization, the OST literature is implicit that rudimentary mechanisms based on instrumental concerns are an essential prerequisite of more enriched exchange relationships.

In its simplest form, the EOR can be seen as a transaction (i.e. exchange) of labor for cash (Homans, 1958), which is consistent with the enduring adage that work provides people with a ‘living’. Along these lines, *economic exchange* (c.f. Blau, 1964) is defined as the simplest (or most straightforward) form of EOR in that it is characterized primarily by an exchange of labor for cash, whilst being fundamentally governed by rudimentary agreement (i.e. written contract) that details the input expected from the employee, and the outcomes the organization will subsequently return. Failure to deliver on the terms of the *contract* may lead to termination of the employment relationship and/or legal arbitration for either party. More recently, Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli (1997) looked at the EOR primarily from the perspective of the organization, arguing that it is normally the employer that dictates the terms and nature of the EOR. They proposed a typology that considered the level, or *balance*, with regard to the exchange between the employee and the organization. Regarding economic exchange, they noted “the employer offers short-term, purely economic inducements in exchange for well-specified contributions by the employee” (Tsui et al., 1997, p. 1091). They refer to this employment model as *quasi-spot contract* due to its likely short-term, closed-ended nature. Using this logic, we may see that the employee is likely to have few expectations from the organization over and beyond what is stated in their contract (i.e. level of remuneration, working hours, work location etc.). Likewise, the organization has the ability to terminate the employment relationship relatively easily. Therefore, this interpretation of the EOR suggests it can be seen as a business transaction, similar to buying and/or selling goods (i.e. wages for labor), which is typical amongst economic based literatures.

In a similar vein, whilst examining the motivation to engage in an EOR, March & Simon (1958) posited that the organization offers *inducements* to the

employee in return for the employee's *contributions*. Fundamentally, inducements are seen as an attempt by the organization to stimulate employees to focus their skills and efforts (i.e. contributions) towards the aims and goals of the organization. Thus, the exchange dynamic can be seen as a mutually beneficial, as well as a freely entered into, relationship. When examining the EOR from the perspective of the employee, a key motivation is the desire to seek benefit from the exchange (Homans, 1958), or even over-benefit, in terms of the employee-organization input-outcome ratio (March & Simon, 1958). Further, the investment model (Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983) for example, posits that employees evaluate their job by comparing the level of costs (e.g. effort) compared to the overall rewards (e.g. pay) there is in the exchange; the higher the rewards and the lower the costs, the greater the overall satisfaction (and vice versa). Broadly as such, the workplace has been compared to a marketplace (e.g. Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997) where individuals hope to trade their efforts and maximize their returns; and further, with the receipt of returns, employees may gain greater confidence that their efforts will be rewarded in the future.

Whilst OST holds that employees' POS is likely to be relatively low in these rudimentary economic relationships (as employees simply receive remuneration and contractual benefits from the organization – c.f. Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006), it also suggests that economic exchange acts as a core foundation to which more enriched relationships can develop. For example, such that there is balance (i.e. fairness) in the exchange dynamic, this may suggest that the organization is orientated to treat the employee in a fair manner. Along these lines, OST also holds that employees cognitively assess whether their extra effort will be rewarded by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger, Fasolo,

& Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Shore 1995). Therefore, OST implies that individuals engage in a *calculative* process, looking for information within the work-context to assess the level to which they should expend effort toward the organization, whilst also formulating expectations as to what outcomes they should receive in return. Indeed, prior experience regarding whether the organization has met these expectations in the past is likely to form a key ingredient of an employee's POS.

2.3.2 Social exchange theory

Whilst it is explicit that POS is formulated through perceptions that the employee is fairly remunerated for their work effort (i.e. economic exchange - Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), OST holds that both the employee and the organization can exchange other resources that can help to enrich the EOR. Foa & Foa (1980) provided perhaps the most influential examination of the types of resources that can be exchanged in a relationship. In their typology of exchange resources, they distinguished between tangible and intangible resources, as well as the value and meaning attached to them. They categorized resources as existing within one of six domains: 1) money, 2) goods, 3) services, 4) information, 5) status, and 6) love. These categories can be further characterized by their *concreteness* versus *symbolism* (i.e. either being tangible or intangible) and their *particularism* versus *universalism* (i.e. the degree of importance with which a resource provider is regarded by the recipient). Therefore, pay (money) may be concrete and essentially universalistic (in that its value is the same whoever bestows/receives it), while in contrast a promotion (i.e. an increase in status) may be more symbolic and particularistic (as the increased status signals the regard more senior members of an organization have for a certain individual). Ultimately, symbolic resources may relay

respect, prestige, and appreciation (for example), or further still, caring and affection (i.e. love).

In this vein, OST argues that one of the key factors in forming high quality employment relationships is the ability of the organization to foster perceptions of *valuing* and *caring* for its employees. Specifically, OST holds that the organization may bestow employees with beneficial resources (i.e. supportive organizational treatment), which can be seen to signify the *value*, as well as the *concern for the well-being*, the organization has towards its employees (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Essentially, the organization can relay signals of value and caring through the antecedents of fairness of treatment, support from organizational representatives, and through supportive human resource practices (Eisenberger et al., 2004). It is these symbolic resources (and their subsequent benefits) that are seen to primarily characterize social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964).

Social exchange has become the most dominant theory in explaining the nature of the EOR (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro 2003; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, Chen, & Tetrick, 2009; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012). Indeed, Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005) went further to state that social exchange theory is one of the “most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior” (p. 874). In his seminal work entitled “*Exchange and Power in Social Life*”, Blau (1964) was the first to coin the term social exchange, and looked to distinguish social exchange from economic exchange. Unlike economic exchange, which can be seen as an explicit, short-term agreement governed by written contract, social exchange entails broad, unspecified and open-ended *obligations*. Central to the theory is the premise that

relationships are formed through a series of interactions between parties, generating obligations to reciprocate (Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

According to social exchange theory, the *process* within the employment relationship can be seen as a chain of events whereby resources are mutually exchanged between the organization and the employee (e.g. cash for work, benefits for commitment, etc.), however, with the exchange of valued and beneficial resources, and subject to favorable conditions, relationships can “evolve over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 875). It is these relationships that are characterized as being higher quality *social* exchange relationships. Thus, by using Foa & Foa’s (1980) typology of resources, it is possible to envisage that a new employment relationship might initially begin with a tentative exchange of physical and/or cognitive effort in return for cash (i.e. economic exchange); however over time, this might escalate with both parties exchanging resources that could ultimately be deemed as a form of love (e.g. such as caring and supportive treatment in times of need, affective commitment to maintain the EOR etc.). As such, social exchange is seen to be characterized by the exchange of *socio-emotional* resources (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore, et al., 2006, 2009).

Whilst the exchange of valued resources may be beneficial for both parties, an important caveat is that social exchange theory suggests that this may be governed by *obligation*. Thus, in theory, one party may bestow a resource that indeed may be desired by the other (for example flexible working arrangements for the employee), however this may be coupled with an obligation to *return the favor* with an equally

desired resource (for example, flexibility of the employee to work hours that suit the organization, as and when the need arises). As Blau (1964) noted, these favors “create diffuse future obligations, not precisely defined ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it” (p. 93). A potential problem here is that, with social exchange being characterized by obligations that are unspecified, broad, and open-ended, there could be the potential for misunderstanding between the exchange parties (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Indeed, Blau (1964) noted that it is only through the ongoing process of the *discharge* of obligations that trust in the other party may form.

2.3.3 Reciprocity

The mechanistic nature of social exchange is often explained in terms of *reciprocity*, in that obligations can be seen to stem from the *norm of reciprocity* (Gouldner, 1960), which in turn can be seen to perpetuate the ongoing fulfillment of obligations as well as heightening notions of indebtedness (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). Essentially, the norm of reciprocity acts as a *rule* that provides a guideline, or code of conduct, for the exchange process (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The ongoing exchange of favorable resources (and thus the discharging of obligations) can be seen to create a perpetuating cycle (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) “whereby benefits received generate an obligation to reciprocate, discharge obligations through the provision of benefits, and so on” (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008, p. 1081).

In his seminal work, Gouldner (1960) suggested that “(1) people should help those who have helped them and, (2) people should not injure those who have helped

them” (p. 171). Thus, the norm of reciprocity can be seen as a moral mechanism, ensuring that ‘one good turn deserves another’. The governance of this norm is perhaps less well scrutinized within the literature, implying that adherence to the norm may rest within ‘the eye of the beholder’, however, wider social factors are seen to have a key influence. For example, Tsui et al. (1997) suggested that peer pressure may be a strong motivational force in ensuring that employees reciprocate supportive organizational treatment with likewise beneficial resources. This, they argued, may be especially prevalent in mutual investment (i.e. social exchange) EORs. Failure to adhere to the norm of reciprocity can result in social stigma and/or other social sanctions for the transgressor. The norm may also be characterized by a quid pro quo propensity, in that reciprocity may be positive and negative; thus, *one good turn deserves another* may also be contrasted with *an eye for an eye* (e.g. Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage, & Rohdieck, 2004).

As such, OST utilizes the norm of reciprocity as a central tenet to explain the causal linkage between the receipt of supportive organizational treatment, the attribution of POS, and subsequent prosocial attitudes and behaviors, with Eisenberger and his colleagues noting that “the obligation to repay benefits, based on the reciprocity norm, helps strengthen interpersonal relationships” (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001, p. 42). However, despite its importance as a theoretical explanatory mechanism within the exchange process, empirically, the norm of reciprocity remains (by and large) untested, and as such, is unproven (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). Further, some scholars have questioned the overriding ubiquity of the norm of reciprocity in explaining prosocial behavior in social exchange relationships (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). For

example, relational ties may also be motivated by what is, in essence, a caring motive that does not mandate reciprocation, which has been termed as communal exchange (Clark & Mills, 1979). Communal exchange is motivated, not by social exchange and the norm of reciprocity (i.e. a two-way process), but rather through a norm of care for those that can provide it, toward those that need it (thus, it may be seen as a uni- as opposed to bi- directional process – c.f. Clark & Mills, 1993). Also, reciprocity may not be straightforward for the parties involved. For example, social exchange theory posits that social exchange is characteristic of unspecified, broad and open-ended obligations. Therefore, it is possible to envisage that confusion, or misunderstanding, as to *what* to reciprocate and *when*, may be a very common factor within exchange relationships (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Also, with regard to the content of exchange, questions remain as to what happens when the norm of reciprocity is adhered to, but the content of the exchange is either not desired, or perceived to be of a lesser value by the recipient.

2.3.4 Fairness and equity

Although it has been argued within literatures associated with social exchange that both the employee and the organization aim to maximize the receipt of desirable resources (e.g. Cropanzano et al., 1997; Cropanzano, Kacmar & Bozeman, 1995; March & Simon, 1958; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999; Rusbult & Farrell, 1983; Rusbult Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988), a traditional and highly influential theoretical assumption is that both the employee and the organization will look for *equity* and *fairness* (i.e. balance) with regard to *inputs* and *outcomes* within the relationship (Adams, 1965; Bolino & Turnley, 2008; Walster, Berscheid, & Walster, 1973). Likewise, equity and fairness is also seen as an important antecedent

of POS (Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell, & Allen, 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Barksdale, 1998; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Modern-day theory relating to equity and fairness can be traced back to Adams' seminal work "*Inequity in Social Exchange*" (1965). Adams' (1963, 1965) equity theory can be seen to underpin OST, in that an obligation to reciprocate favorable treatment is motivated by a desire to ensure that there is equity, or *balance*, between both parties inputs and outcomes (Shore & Shore, 1995); and likewise, that employees are motivated to ensure that the level of effort they direct towards their work, and towards advancing organizational goals, is adequately and fairly reciprocated by financial reward and/or through other desirable resources associated with organizational treatment. As Shore & Shore (1995) noted, "the assumption by the parties is that although immediate rewards may not be forthcoming, eventually there will be balance in the exchange relationship" (p. 150).

With regard to the workplace, equity theory can be seen to concern the levels of input a party puts into the relationship (e.g. such as the level of effort the employee puts into work tasks), compared to the level of outcomes (e.g. such as the level of reward an employee receives for their work effort). A key predicate of equity theory is the proposition that inequity is *psychologically undesirable*, and that with perceived inequity, individuals will be motivated to restore equity (Adams, 1965; Bolino & Turnley, 2008; Crosby, 1976; Hatfield & Sprecher, 1983; Mowday, 1979), which in turn has been supported by empirical research (e.g. Mowday, 1991). For example, under experimental conditions, Gergen, Ellsworth, Maslach, & Seipel (1975) found that individuals were more attracted to engage with donors who required a fair

reciprocal exchange, as opposed to donors who requested either, interest, or no reciprocation. Indeed, needs for equity and fairness of treatment are so strong that they can be seen to transcend human social interaction. For example, Brosnan, Talbot, Ahlgren, Lambeth, & Schapiro (2010) found that certain primates compare equity outcomes with others, such that they may display a desire not to be either under-benefited, and perhaps more interestingly, over-benefited. Of course, primates and humans may be two very distinct species, but equally, much of modern organizational behavior theories are derived from literatures that have placed a great deal of emphasis on evolutionary theory (e.g. Weiner, 1985, 1986) and anthropology (e.g. Sahlins, 1972). Overall, equity theory has been appraised by scholars as being one of the most valid and useful theories within the organizational behavior domain (Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; Miner, 2003).

As such, a significant focus of the equity/fairness literature has been on inequity and its effects on perceptual, behavioral, attitudinal, and relational outcomes; with the literature examining inequity in favor of the organization, being resounding in its negative effect on the employee (e.g. Greenberg, 2006; Scheer, Kumar, & Steenkamp, 2003; van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Buunk, 1998). Interestingly however, Tsui et al. (1997) argued that an imbalance in favor of the employee is unlikely to be perceived as negative by the individual. Even Adams (1965) conceded that a degree of over-benefit (i.e. inequity) in favor of the employee is likely to be viewed as good fortune, and thus does not necessarily induce a balance seeking response. However, when testing this assumption, Tsui et al (1997) found that supervisors' and peers' perceptions of over-benefited employees' turnover intentions, was likely to be high. Thus, the effects of employee over-benefit in the EOR exchange appear to be somewhat open to debate.

2.3.5 Personification of the organization

Whilst the above theoretical constructs (i.e. the economic and market perspective of the EOR, social exchange, reciprocation, and concerns for equity and fairness) are considered from a situational (i.e. the influence of events on social phenomena) and dyadic (i.e. the relationship between the employee and the organization) level, OST also considers the impact these factors can have at a perceptual (i.e. individual) level, thus helping to detail how the relational and situational environment influences the psychological formation of POS. Underlying this is the assumption that employees anthropomorphize (i.e. to ascribe a non-human entity human like characteristics) the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001, 2002, 2004; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). For example, Eisenberger et al. (2004) argued that employees “think of their relationship with the organization in terms similar to a relationship between themselves and a more powerful individual” (p. 207). This rationale can be seen to stem from the work of Levinson (1965) who argued that

“transference phenomena occur constantly in everyday life. It occurs with respect to organizations and institutions just as it occurs with individuals; that is, people project upon organizations human qualities and then relate to them as if the organizations did in fact have human qualities. They generalize from their feelings about people in the organization who are important to them, to the organization as a whole, as well as extrapolating from those attitudes they bring to the organization” (p. 376).

Utilizing this logic, OST posits that acts conducted by agents of the organization (such as supervisors, managers, leaders etc.) are likely to be attributed to the organization, due to

“the organization’s legal, moral, and financial responsibility for the actions of its agents; by organizational policies, norms, and culture that provide continuity and prescribe role behaviors; and by the power the organization’s agents exert over individual employees. On the basis of the organization’s personification, employees view their favorable or unfavorable treatment as an indication that the organization favors or disfavors them.” (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 698)

It would seem fair to suggest that Levinson’s (1965) proposition that employees personify (i.e. anthropomorphize) the organization has been extremely influential within the EOR literature (for example, it is also a core tenet of psychological contract theory - Rousseau, 1989), to the extent that it is, arguably, commonly assumed within the EOR literature (for example, organizational personification is implicit within perceived organizational politics theory, Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; as well as within perceptions of overall organizational justice, Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). However, more recently, Coyle-Shapiro & Shore (2007) questioned this overriding assumption and highlighted a number of areas that cause theoretical concern. One such concern is how employees might interpret contradictory treatment from differing organizational agents. For example, an organization’s HR department may promote family-friendly flexible working, yet an employee’s supervisor may be resistant to allowing such flexibility. As such, Coyle-Shapiro & Shore (2007) question the role of *agency*, and also question whether organizational agents (e.g. employees’ supervisors) are predisposed to act in the

interests of the organization as opposed to pursuing personal interests or being guided by other motives. Further, some literatures, such as leader member exchange theory (LMX), suggest that the immediate supervisor plays a key role (if not the most important role) in determining how employees perceive the organization (e.g. Liden, Bauer, & Erdogan, 2004). Therefore, there would seem to be debate as to *who* or *what* the employee attributes as representing the organization.

In order to help address this concern, the *supervisor organizational embodiment* construct has emerged, suggesting that the acts of organizational agents are attributed to the personified organization, subject to the extent to which the agent is seen to embody the will and intent of the organization (Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzalez-Morales, & Steiger-Mueller, 2010; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagencyk, 2013). As such, supervisor organizational embodiment suggests that employees may be selective in which agents (and their acts) are seen to represent the intent of the organization. Yet, importantly, the POS construct fundamentally maintains that employees personify (i.e. anthropomorphize) the organization. Indeed, the organizational personification assumption would appear to be embedded within the organizational behavior and industrial-organizational psychology literatures as evidenced by the continued empirical use of the term “the organization” (and/or the specific name of the organization) when capturing employees’ attitudes regarding the EOR.

Therefore, it would seem fair to conclude that, while there are scholars who question the overriding assumptions regarding the personification of the organization, the overall theoretical proposition would still appear to be implicit within EOR literatures, as well as there being scholars who proactively promote it (e.g.

Eisenberger et al., 2002, 2004). Indeed, empirical measures are frequently used that ask employees about their attitudes regarding the “organization”; the fact that respondents are able to answer such questions/statements, suggests that employees possess a generalized concept of the organization within their understanding.

2.3.6 Socio-emotional needs

While it is possible to draw distinct parallels between OST and social exchange theory, in that both theories detail the exchange of favorable resources in order to enhance relational bonds between both parties (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004), Eisenberger et al. (1986) went further to propose *why* employees might be *motivated* to engage within a social exchange relationship with the organization. To explain, like social exchange theory, OST posits that supportive organizational treatment can be seen as a resource(s) (e.g. Foa & Foa, 1975, 1980) that can possess both instrumental (e.g. pay, training, promotion etc.) and symbolic (e.g. respect, appreciation, status, caring etc.) benefits for the employee. However, OST goes further to explain that supportive organizational treatment is likely to be beneficial for the employee in that it helps employees fulfill important *socio-emotional needs*. These needs are principally seen as the need for esteem (i.e. to feel *good* about one’s self), approval (i.e. to know that what you are doing is *valued*), and affiliation (i.e. to feel a sense of *belonging*) (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, supportive organizational treatment can boost employees’ self-worth, in that it facilitates employees’ perceptions that their contribution to the organization is valued, that the organization is concerned for their welfare, and overall that the employment relationship is mutually beneficial for the employee and the organization.

Therefore, given that POS can be seen to capture the extent to which the employee believes the organization values and cares for them, this in turn may ultimately represent a form of *love*, which is seen as the most valuable resource that an organization can bestow (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Foa & Foa, 1980). However, beyond this brief explanation, there has been limited theoretical and empirical examination and advancement regarding how socio-emotional needs might act as a mechanism within the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic. Indeed, in reviewing the literature, it seems fair to conclude that OST is primarily influenced by social exchange theory in detailing the antecedents and outcomes associated with POS (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). As such, OST largely takes a *situational* and *dyadic* approach to the POS phenomenon; in that POS is seen to be a response to treatment the employee experiences in the work environment, and that the causes and outcomes of POS are to be understood as a bi-directional relational process between the employee and the organization, given such experiences. However, whilst possessing the tenet that employees have socio-emotional needs (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), OST has paid relatively scant attention to their motivational and mechanistic influence. Arguably this could be an important oversight as literatures associated with *needs* (per se) tend to place emphasis on the *individual*, or the *self*, as a causal predictor of attitudes and behavior, whilst placing less of an emphasis on situational and dyadic influences (e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Buss, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Fiske, 2009; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Stevens & Fiske, 1995). In other words, whilst OST is grounded in the view that POS is a phenomenon explained by how an individual experiences the work environment, it also holds that the individual brings to this scenario individual factors

(i.e. needs) which also influence the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic. Indeed, in their focus on socio-emotional needs and POS, Eisenberger and his colleagues (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2012) refer to the work of Hill (1987) who argued that the benefits associated with socialization acts as a major motivational influence on human behavior; yet, despite this, OST has paid scant attention to this motivational influence. Therefore, the formative POS/OST literature can be seen as seamlessly integrating both social exchange and socio-emotional needs as explanatory mechanisms, yet, surprisingly, has paid scant attention to the nature and influence of socio-emotional needs (Eisenberger et al., 2004).

2.3.7 Attributions

Finally, in considering POS as a phenomenon *in itself*, OST posits that perceptions of support are essentially an *attribution*, with employees being seen to utilize attributional processes in order to assess and infer the organization's treatment of the employee(s) (Eisenberger et al., 2004). For example, Eisenberger and his colleagues defined POS as “an experience-based attribution concerning the benevolent or malevolent intent of the organization's policies, norms, procedures, and actions as they affect employees” (Eisenberger et al., 2001, p. 42), whilst Eisenberger et al. (2004) noted that “employees use attributional processes similar to those used in interpersonal relationships to infer their valuation by the organization” (p. 207). Indeed, although the term *perception/perceived* is commonly used within the organizational behavior literature (e.g. perceived organizational support, perceived organizational politics etc.), Martinko, Douglas & Harvey (2006) note that perceptions “almost always refer[] to perceptions of causation” (p. 131), and that

therefore both perceptions and attributions are likely to have one and the same meaning.

Logically, before evaluating organizational treatment per se, an employee is likely to gauge their own contribution in causing any given outcome. Attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelly, 1973; Weiner, 1985, 1986) essentially concerns the process by which individuals cognitively deduce the causes of success and/or failure related to their endeavors (Dasborough, Harvey, & Martinko, 2011, Martinko, 1995; Martinko, Harvey, & Dasborough, 2011; Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas; 2007). Further, the theory suggests that individuals are *motivated* to understand the causes of outcomes (be they successful or not), and the greater the impact of the outcome on the individual (e.g. be it a reward or punishment) the greater the need to attribute the cause of the outcome. When attributing causal reasoning, an individual may explain the causes of outcomes either through *internal* factors relating to the self, such as the individual's skill or effort, or through *external* factors, such as luck, situational constraints/enablers, or through the interaction/influence of other individuals or groups. As such, Weiner (2011) uses the metaphors of scientist and judge, in that individuals look to understand the *causation* of events, as well as to understand the *intent* behind the events.

In relation to the importance of attribution theory, Martinko et al. (2011) argue that

“behavior is influenced by rewards and punishments, as almost all organizational scholars would agree, and that attributions influence behaviors, [thus,] it follows that the entire range of organizational behaviors that are influenced

by rewards/punishments are also affected by attributions. Because rewards and punishments are important, individuals have a vested interest in knowing their causes” (p. 145).

According to Martinko et al. (2011) attributions require a degree of *cognitive effort*, therefore, attributions are unlikely to be instigated by all outcomes, but rather for outcomes that are either important or unexpected for the individual.

As such, we can postulate the link between organizational treatment, and employees’ attributions, in that the receipt (or observing others in receipt) of organizational treatment is likely to stimulate a sense-making cognition, motivated by a need to ascertain causation and intent. It is this need to ascertain causation and intent that Heider (1958) argued was brought about by a primary instinct to evolve and survive as, and within, a group. Thus, forming attributions help individuals to adapt their behavior accordingly vis-à-vis the social environment.

Considering the formation of POS, Eisenberger et al. (2004) suggest that employees are ‘rational’ when forming attributions relating to the support they receive from the organization. Thus, rather than being an emotional reaction to organizational treatment, POS is seen as a global belief brought about through considered cognitive reasoning. For example, referring to a study conducted in a retail sales environment, Eisenberger et al. (2004) argued that high levels of stress were not attributed to a lack of support from the organization, but instead stress was attributed to being part of the nature of working within retail sales. Thus, they conclude that employees do not just infer positive or negative aspects of their work experience to the will and intent of the organization, but also consider wider, practical implications such as the organization’s

ability to affect the work environment (for better or worse). As such, favorable treatment that is deemed as being discretionary and intentional is seen as indicating the organization's positive intent towards the employee(s). Conversely, OST holds that favorable treatment that is seen as having been forced upon the organization (e.g. through legal requirement or from union pressure) or unintentional (i.e. happening through chance) will be deemed less positively in relation to the employee's perceptions of the organization's positive intent toward them. However, Eisenberger et al. (2004) noted a caveat, in that attributional processes remained relatively underdeveloped theoretically within OST, and as such required further attention as to their effect on POS. Indeed, attribution literatures are replete with both arguments and evidence that suggest that attributions are subject to self-related needs and biases which influence the way the individual interprets experiences; which in this context includes the situational work environment and dyadic relationships (e.g. Martinko, 1995; Martinko et al., 2007, 2011).

2.3.8 Summary and discussion: the predominance of social exchange and reciprocity within the POS construct/OST

Figure 2.1 presents a model of how the extant literature suggests the antecedent mechanisms and pathways lead to the attribution of POS. In summary, Eisenberger et al. (2004) described OST as providing “a social exchange account of the development of the employee–employer relationship based on the central assumption that in order to meet socio-emotional needs and gauge the utility of increased efforts on behalf of the organization, employees form global beliefs concerning their valuation by the organization” (p. 221). Although considered distinct, OST can be seen to possess noticeable parallels with social exchange theory.

Both detail the exchange of resources, such that, with the ongoing exchange of beneficial and desirable resources, the relationship can develop to become more enriched and enduring. This has led to a general notion that POS can be seen as being indicative of the *quality* of social exchange within the broader EOR based literature (e.g. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac et al., 2008). Indeed, some scholars suggest that OST can arguably be seen as an extension of social exchange theory (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Shore et al., 2012).

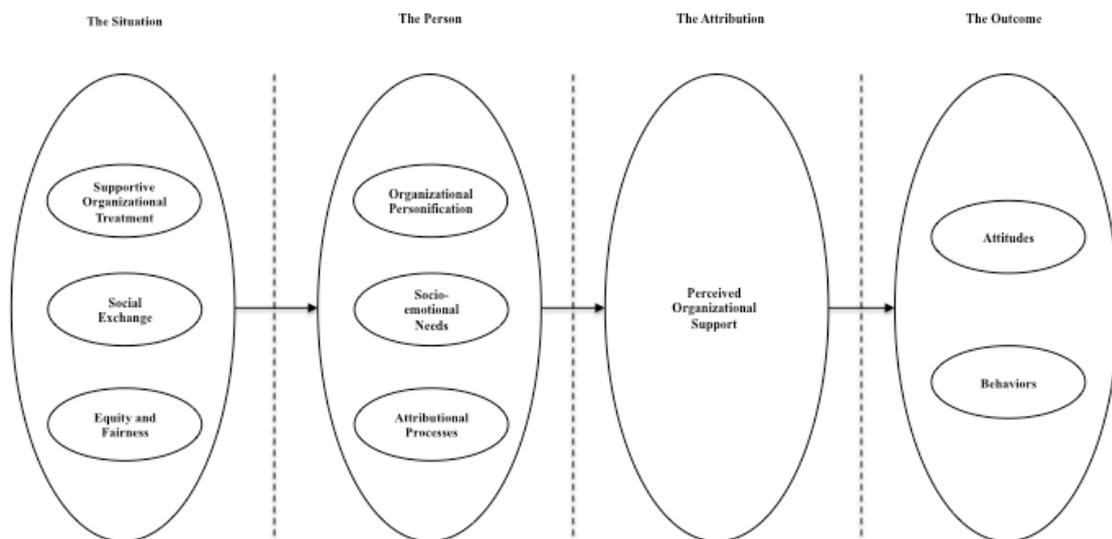


Figure 2.1: A model detailing the extant POS literature’s proposed antecedent pathway and mechanisms which lead to the attribution of POS and subsequent prosocial outcomes.

However, a potential confound may emerge when we consider that social exchange has almost solely been utilized to explain OST’s phenomenological cause and effect dynamic. The reason why this may have a potential confounding effect is because social exchange is in essence a sociological theory (Blau, 1964), and thus may have more limited utility when considering phenomena at the individual/micro level. Blau himself noted that “all theories generalize by abstracting only some

elements from empirical reality and ignoring others” (1997, p. 16), thus, he argued that one theory (and/or level of analysis) alone might not be able to fully explain/account for the full spectrum of social phenomena. Indeed, Blau (1997) stressed that he felt sociological theory should not be used to account for individual behavior, but instead should be utilized to understand behavior from a broader macro-level (i.e. amalgamated) perspective.

Arguably, it is through the focus on more individual/micro level mechanisms and processes that recent developments and extensions in POS/OST have been made. For example, Eisenberger and his colleagues found that rather than attributing all treatment experienced within the organization as ultimately stemming from that of the personified organization, they found that employees differentiate between notions of support they receive from the organization vis-à-vis the support they receive from their supervisor (i.e. the perceived supervisor support construct - Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; see also: Stinglhamber, De Cremer, & Mercken, 2006; Stinglhamber & Vandenberghe, 2003). Further, the extent to which supervisor treatment is also attributed to that of the treatment of the organization (per se) is dependent on the extent an employee believes the supervisor embodies the organization’s intent and character (i.e. the supervisor organizational embodiment construct - Eisenberger, Karagonlar, Stinglhamber, Neves, Becker, Gonzalez-Morales, & Steiger-Mueller, 2010; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013). In other words, these examples demonstrate how POS/OST has been developed and extended by taking a closer examination of individuals’ attributions, and attributional processes, which fundamentally exist at the micro level. Indeed, whilst Eisenberger and his colleagues still utilize social exchange to underpin their theoretical rationale, the perceived

supervisor support and supervisor organizational embodiment constructs suggest individual level processes influence the extent employees engage in social exchange relationships with various foci (e.g. the organization, the supervisor, etc.), and further, that these processes result in meaningful differences between individuals even when situational variables are equal.

More broadly, Flynn (2005) suggested that social exchange theorists primarily consider the structure and consequences of social interactions (i.e. *how* people obtain/exchange valued resources) whilst paying less attention to the antecedents of such interactions (i.e. *why* people might be motivated to obtain/exchange such resources). Therefore, rather than being wholly influenced by the social situation, an individual's attributional processes and/or biases can be seen to form a major influence, or perhaps in fact drive, social exchange phenomena (for example, the extent to which individuals interpret exchange relationships, and the extent to which they are inclined to engage in such relationships – e.g. Coyle-Shapiro & Neuman, 2004; Flynn & Brockner, 2003; Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987; Mezulis, Abramson, Hyde, & Hankin, 2004; Naumann, Minsky, & Sturman, 2002; Takeuchi, Yun, & Wong, 2011; Witt, 1991).

In a similar vein, the three papers within this thesis look to develop and extend POS/OST by taking a closer examination of the psychological processes housed at the individual level. Of particular note is that despite alluding to its importance as a motivator, OST has paid scant attention to the influence of employees' socio-emotional needs within the organizational support dynamic. As such, much like perceived supervisor support and supervisor organizational embodiment has advanced our understanding of organizational support phenomena, a greater critical focus on the

influence of socio-emotional needs and other psychological factors, could likewise yield new and important advancement.

2.4 Moving Forward: The Overarching Theoretical Approach of the Thesis

As has already been highlighted, OST and the POS construct have been extremely influential within the organizational behavior and associated literatures, with POS continuing to receive a significant degree of scholarly interest nearly three decades since its conception (as evidenced by continued interest within academic journals, books, book chapters, and academic meetings). Indeed, this arguably implies a general consensus with regard to the continued relevance and importance of the construct for management science and practice. Notwithstanding this, there have been calls by certain scholars for the continued theoretical development and advancement of POS and OST (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shore & Shore, 1995). Indeed, unlike some other domains such as organizational justice (c.f. Colquitt et al., 2005), the theoretical domain of organizational support has received comparatively scant theoretical development since its conception (i.e. Eisenberger et al., 1986).

In line with calls regarding the need for theoretical development, the aim of each of the three papers within this thesis is to make *theoretical contributions* to the organizational support domain (N.B. the papers/thesis also looks to make empirical contributions, however, the overarching empirical approach will be discussed in the

following chapter). Whilst each paper discusses/clarifies the specific aims and outcomes with regard to the theoretical contribution(s) each paper makes, it may be pertinent to consider (more broadly) what constitutes a theoretical contribution.

Upon review, answering this question might not be as straightforward as would initially appear, as certain scholars who have attempted to address this question have noted that there is significant debate as to what a theoretical contribution actually is (e.g. Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; Corley & Gioia, 2011; Whetten, 1989). Indeed, Corley & Gioia argued that “precisely what constitutes a theoretical contribution in organization and management studies is a vexing question that cannot be answered definitively” (2011, p. 26), whilst Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan (2007) suggest that this debate systematically stems from a wider debate as to what constitutes *theory*.

Whilst it is beyond the scope of this thesis to consider the various different ways in which theory (per se) is/can be viewed and interpreted, it may be helpful to consider some widely cited definitions. For example, Campbell argued that theory can be seen as “a collection of assertions, both verbal and symbolic, that identifies what variables are important and for what reasons, specifies how they are interrelated and why, and identifies the conditions under which they should be related or not related” (1990, p. 65). Whereas DiMaggio argued that theory is “an account of a social process, with emphasis on empirical tests of the plausibility of the narrative as well as careful attention to the scope conditions of the account” (1995, p. 391). And perhaps most parsimoniously, Corley & Gioia defined theory as “a statement of concepts and their interrelationships that shows how and/or why a phenomenon occurs” (2011, p.

12). Whilst these definitions differ slightly, overall it is possible to surmise that theory is a tool that helps us better understand and predict phenomena.

Broadly inline with this view, certain scholars have looked to offer guidance on what constitutes, and how to assess the extent of, a theoretical contribution. For example, Corley & Gioia (2011) suggest that a theoretical contribution essentially exists within two dimensions: that of originality, and that of utility. Broadly, originality refers to the extent to which something is new and different; with incremental advances in theory offering important advances in our scientific understanding, yet offering little in the way of the nonobvious. Alternatively, revelatory advances offer new and different ways in which we see and interpret phenomena, and thus provide a greater contribution. Consistent with this approach, there are scholars who suggest that a theoretical contribution may essentially rest in how ‘interesting’ or ‘radical’ a theoretical argument is; such that an argument that is counterintuitive and/or challenges existing assumptions of extant theory and/or of the reader, possesses more of an ‘impact’, and thus generates more interest than arguments that are merely incremental in nature (e.g. Bartunek, Rynes, & Ireland, 2006; Davis, 1971; Mintzberg, 2005; Whetten, 1989).

With regards to utility, Corley & Gioia (2011) suggest that theory needs to be *useful* as well, in that it should either aid and develop the practice of research amongst scholars and/or aid and develop management practice. They argue that practical utility aids and helps solve problems related to management practice, whilst scientific utility is “an advance that improves conceptual rigor or the specificity of an idea and/or enhances its potential to be operationalized and tested” (pp. 17-18). In sum, Corley & Gioia argued that “a theoretical contribution rests in a scholar’s ability to produce

thinking that is original (and especially revelatory or surprising) in its insight and useful (preferably in a scientific manner) in its application” (2011, p. 18).

Similarly, Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan (2007) proposed a taxonomy which considered the extent to which scholarly work can be seen to make a theoretical contribution. However, of direct relevance to the three papers within this thesis, their taxonomy is grounded in the context of theoretical contribution(s) within empirical papers (i.e. all three papers within this thesis test theoretically deduced hypotheses utilizing empirical research). They argued that empirical papers are subject to the constraint of space, in that such papers have to combine both elements of theory and empirics, which limits the ability to fully describe theoretical facets. Given such a context, they argue that empirical papers provide theoretical contribution(s) through theory building and theory testing. They defined theory building as “the degree to which an empirical article clarifies or supplements existing theory or introduces relationships and constructs that serve as the foundations for new theory” (p. 1283), whilst theory testing “captures the degree to which existing theory is applied in an empirical study as a means of grounding a specific set of a priori hypotheses” (p. 1284). Principally, they suggest that the ‘expansion’ of theory resides in the use of existing theory(ies) to consider constructs, processes, or relationships that have not received prior theoretical attention, thus taking the literature in a new and different direction.

Practically speaking, what constitutes a theoretical contribution may essentially reside within the subjective view of the reader, however Conlon parsimoniously argued that a theoretical contribution improves “our understanding of management and organizations, whether by offering a critical redirection of existing

views or by offering an entirely new point of view on phenomena” (2002, p. 489). Inherently, certain scholars suggest that there is often a life cycle to theory development (and thus, theoretical contribution – e.g. Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; Kuhn, 1963; Weick, 1995); such that in the early stages of a theory’s existence, scholars look to establish the validity of the construct, following this scholars look to assess theoretical boundary conditions (e.g. through moderators and mediators), subsequently and finally, scholars look to examine theory through more nuanced and novel approaches that move beyond original conceptions. To this end, they argue empirical articles help extend theory by bringing it to maturity and enhancing its comprehensiveness. With regard to OST and the POS construct, arguably, the literature is at a position where the construct/ theory is considered valid, and further, has received considerable attention as to its boundary conditions; however, there would appear to be little that challenges/advances OST’s original conception (i.e. Eisenberger et al., 1986).

With this in mind, each paper within this thesis looks to advance OST from its original conception by comparing and contrasting it with other theories and constructs, taking a hypothetico-deductive approach that looks to advance the current theoretical status quo. Indeed certain scholars have called for greater use of multiple-lens explanations with regards to phenomena, given that such an approach can yield new insights, challenge accepted views, aid the development of novel hypotheses, and bridge ‘knowledge silos’ (e.g. Gioia & Pitre, 1990; Okhuysen & Bonardi, 2011; Pfeffer, 1993). Overall, the theoretical approach of this thesis is in no means to iconoclastically discredit POS/OST, rather the aim is to develop, extend and clarify the domain.

2.5 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter has been to broadly discuss POS/OST and its nomological network as a means to introduce the reader to the subject area. Subsequently each stand-alone paper will examine one or more facets of the theory/construct in greater detail. In sum, in having reviewed the extant POS literature, it would seem fair to conclude that OST is predominantly influenced by social exchange (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) theories, such that the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic is viewed from a situational and dyadic perspective. Indeed, it seems fair to say that social exchange has been instrumental in our understanding of the POS construct and that, more broadly, there have arguably been no other theories that have had the same degree of influence and impact within EOR specific scholarship (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Shore & Coyle-Shapiro 2003; Shore et al., 2009, 2012). Yet, of note, OST also alludes to factors that influence this dynamic which essentially exist at the individual/self level in the form of socio-emotional needs.

It is when changing the focus, or lens, from a situational and dyadic perspective, towards a more individual/micro-level perspective, that it is possible to argue that the antecedent and motivational mechanisms between supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcomes may differ from those traditionally held by OST (i.e. rules and norms concerning exchange and reciprocity). This is arguably of significant importance, as POS has commonly been accepted/assumed as indicating

the quality of the EOR within the organizational behavior literature (e.g. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac et al., 2008); and thus in turn, through its robust empirical reliability, has arguably substantiated a consensus regarding the dominance of social exchange accounts in detailing the motivators and mechanisms within the EOR. As such, our current understanding of the EOR may be based on assumptions that have not been as fully scrutinized and tested as may be possible.

More broadly, this thesis suggests that extant OST, coupled with the extant methods by which POS has been measured, has led to a self-perpetuating status quo, such that OST would appear to be supported by the empirical measurement of POS, and that the empirical measurement of POS is assumed to capture phenomena as per OST. As such, whilst the POS construct has been seen to possess significant construct validity (c.f. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955), as we shall see in the subsequent three papers, this status quo may be problematic when more critical analysis is applied to both the theory and empirics of the construct. With this in mind, the next chapter will aim to critically review the construct's extant empirics, whilst further, discussing the thesis's broad empirical/methodological approach and rationale.

2.6 References

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3 Perceived Organizational Support: An Empirical and Methodological Overview of the Construct

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- 3.2 The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support: Measurement and Construct Validity
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3.1 Introduction: Aim of this Chapter

As has been highlighted previously, this thesis utilizes a three-paper model approach, with the previous two chapters helping to introduce the subject area as well as the broad and overarching theoretical questions and problems this thesis aims to address (whilst subsequently, each standalone paper will examine a specific topic in greater detail). In a similar vein, the purpose of this chapter is to introduce the broad and overarching empirical/methodological considerations in relation to the aims of this thesis. As such, this chapter aims to critically consider the extant empirical methods used within the perceived organizational support (POS) literature, highlighting areas of limitation, development, and debate. In light of this, the focus will then consider how best to approach research design in order to capture data relevant to the goals of this thesis. Thus, this brief introduction is designed as an empirical prelude for all three papers, with each paper containing a more detailed/specific account of the methodology used within each empirical study.

3.2 The Survey of Perceived Organizational Support: Measurement and Construct Validity

As part of their seminal paper on POS, Eisenberger and his colleagues (1986) developed and tested a quantitative measure that was to become the ‘survey of perceived organizational support’. Essentially, the survey of perceived organizational support is a self-report measure that was developed to capture the extent to which

employees possess a generalized belief that the organization values their contribution to the organization, as well as the extent to which the organization cares for their wellbeing. Together, the organization's valuation of an employee's contribution and caring for their wellbeing are seen to form an overall, higher order notion of organizational benevolence (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Subsequently, this measure has become integral to the empirical measurement of POS. Recent meta-analyses have shown that the survey of perceived organizational support has consistently demonstrated a high internal reliability, averaging at .90 (Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009 – 167 studies), whilst also demonstrating significant relationships with the antecedents of fairness of treatment (.68), supervisor support (.64), organizational rewards and job conditions (.46), and the attitudinal outcomes of organizational commitment (.67) and turnover intentions (-.51) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002 – 73 studies). Of further general note is that, whilst originally conceived as consisting of thirty-six items, subsequent statistical analysis has shown that a shortened eight item version of the scale, which uses eight of the highest-loading items from within the full scale, adequately captures the construct and maintains a high internal reliability (e.g. .90 – Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Tetrick, 1991).

When considering the broad literature that has utilized the survey of perceived organizational support (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009) it would appear that, due to the fact that the survey possesses a significant degree of measurement reliability and discriminant validity, arguably, it has implicitly supported the validity of the POS construct as a whole (Shore & Tetrick, 1991). Indeed, meta-analyses provide evidence that POS consistently demonstrates positive relationships with theorized antecedents and

outcomes of POS, whilst also demonstrating negative relationships with antithetical influences and outcomes (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al., 2009).

It is important to note that empirical measures are “crucial to theory development, because they provide the means by which constructs become accessible to empirical research and theories are rendered testable” (Edwards, 2003, p. 327). Given this, caution may be needed when we consider that, more generally, certain scholars have called for greater scrutiny to be paid to the relationship between theoretical constructs and their respective empirical measures within the organizational behavior domain arguing that, rather than measurement reliability (alone), construct validity is fundamentally dependent on the degree to which a measure accurately captures the intended theoretical phenomenon (e.g. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Edwards, 2003, 2008; Edwards & Bagozzi, 2000; Schwab, 1980).

With this in mind, in general there are potentially two broad criticisms that may be directed at the extant measurement of POS, which in turn, may affect overall confidence regarding the construct’s overall validity. The first concerns the measure of POS itself in the form of content validity (i.e. does the survey of perceived organizational support capture POS as it is theoretically intended?). The second concerns the way in which the POS measure has been utilized in order to substantiate the relationship between the construct and other variables, such that the POS measure may be distorted by common method variance (i.e. does the way the measure has been applied, influence whether there are, and the extent to which there are, relationships between POS and other variables?). These concerns are considered below.

3.2.1 Content validity

Perhaps one of the most significant criticisms that can be levied at the POS construct is that, from an empirical perspective, POS is captured by utilizing self-report methods (c.f. Baumeister, Vohs, & Funder, 2007). Essentially, POS is captured at the individual level and represents an individual's self-construed attribution concerning his/her relationship with the organization; yet OST assumes that POS is indicative of the situational/dyadic relationship as a whole, and therefore that it is indicative of *actual* social phenomena. In other words, challenges are presented to the POS construct when we consider that the supportive organizational treatment → POS → prosocial outcome dynamic cannot be directly and objectively observed by researchers (c.f. Edwards, 2003); instead we must rely on individuals' self-reporting of POS, and assume the phenomenological dynamic from the individual's perspective. This may be problematic as, for example, we cannot be sure *what* the employee deems as being supportive treatment (e.g. Flynn, 2006). To illustrate this point, Coyle-Shapiro & Conway (2004) argued that training and development (per se) may be perceived as being an inducement (i.e. benevolent act) from the perspective of the organization, however employees may see this as an attempt by the organization to increase worker skills in order to extract greater performance. Indeed, it is also possible to apply this logic between individuals, with one employee viewing training and development as being indicative of supportive organizational treatment, whilst another viewing it as a cynical attempt to extract more effort from the employee (and thus not representing supportive organizational treatment - e.g. Nishii, Lepak, & Schneider, 2008). As such, the empirical measure of POS is at risk of only being able to substantiate a finding that "when employees feel

supported, evidence suggests they are positively orientated towards the organization” (which is arguably a commonsense proposition based on circular reasoning); yet importantly, is unable to ascertain *when* and *why* employees may feel supported. Indeed, the fact that empirical studies of POS find variance within samples within the same organization, suggests that each employee has a different interpretation of the treatment the organization bestows. Arguably, therefore, it is the *what*, *when*, and *why* employees feel supported that forms the theoretical and practical validity and utility of the POS construct; yet empirically, the POS measure (alone) may struggle to account for this.

Similarly, when asked to complete the survey of perceived organizational support’s item measures, we are unsure whether employees’ attributions are formulated utilizing rational and objective reasoning regarding their receipt of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. an objective appraisal of their inputs vis-à-vis the outcomes they receive from the organization) alone, or whether these attributions are also subject to individual biases regarding exchange (e.g. the equity sensitivity traits with bias ranging from benevolence through to entitlement), or indeed whether these attributions are wholly influenced by biases brought about by exchange traits (e.g. Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987). Further, an assumption that employees can make *objectively* reasoned attributions regarding the EOR may in itself be a fallacy. For example certain scholars have argued that due to the innumerable variables encountered in the situational environment, individuals may be forced to utilize *subjective* cognitive biases in order to bring about a comprehensible attribution for the individual (c.f. Kahneman & Tversky, 1972). Therefore, when we consider that an attribution concerning supportive organizational treatment encapsulates such things as intent, meaning, perceived worth, timing, intended/unintended effects, etc., rather

then engaging in an exhaustive evaluative process, employees may engage in more basic rudimentary heuristics in order to form a global/generalized attribution of organizational supportiveness.

Overall, when we consider the survey of perceived organizational support (per se), there may be numerous factors that shape the way individuals interpret and respond to the measure. As Edwards (2008) notes, “our faith in self-reports is based on the premise that respondents interpret our questions as intended, know and can retrieve the information we seek, and integrate and translate the information into a suitable response” (p. 475).

3.2.2 Common method variance

While the above arguments suggest that there may be a degree of uncertainty as to the content the survey of perceived organizational support captures, self-report methods, in their own right, have been subject to extensive criticism; such that they may be subject to common method variance which is seen to increase measurement error, and thus reduce the validity of such data (e.g. Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Essentially, common method variance (and similarly common method bias) may mean that respondents inflate, deflate, or inaccurately respond to items within self-report measures. This variance may be motivated by respondents’ desire to maintain consistency with regard to their responses, to respond in a socially desirable manner, to respond more leniently when asked about factors related to the self or self-interests, to be prone to acquiescence, to respond according to assumptions as to what the measures are looking for, and/or, to be prone to trait affectivity and transient moods (Podsakoff et al., 2003). In essence,

common method variance has been seen to cast significant doubt on the validity of self-reported data within the literature.

Further some scholars have bemoaned the overriding use of introspective self-report measures, at the expense of observing behavior and its causal correlates. For example, Baumeister et al. (2007) argue that evidence suggests how people *think* they will react to a certain situation is often different from how they actually *do* react in that situation, whilst Vazire & Mehl (2008) recently found evidence that close others (e.g. partners) may better predict an individual's behavior than the individual themselves. Further still, evidence regarding employee and supervisor incongruence regarding such things as the evaluation of job performance (e.g. Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Schrader & Steiner, 1996) and organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g. Dalal, 2005), suggest that caution may be needed when interpreting individuals' self-reported attitudes and behaviors.

Indeed, it may be puzzling as to why in their meta-analysis, Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) found that POS was highly correlated with commitment (.67), whilst the relationship between POS and in-role performance was much weaker (.18); theoretically, one might arguably assume that an employee's commitment to the organization would be closely related to the effort they put into their work (and thus, in-role performance). Due to the fact that within Rhoades & Eisenberger's (2002) meta-analysis commitment had been captured via self-report methods whilst in-role performance was captured using multi-source methods, this may suggest that there are discrepancies between individual perspectives and actual (i.e. objective) social phenomena. Therefore, the overreliance on self-report measures in order to capture

POS, as well as its antecedents and behavioral outcomes, potentially poses concerns relating to the validity of such data.

3.2.3 The measurement of POS: Moving forward

By taking a critical perspective, it is possible to see that concerns exist regarding the content validity of data collected using the survey of perceived organizational support and the potentially deleterious effect common method variance may have on the accuracy of such data. However, placing these concerns in context, it is imperative to note that no empirical research design and/or method is likely to be beyond criticism (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011; McGrath, 1982). Indeed, Scandura & Williams (2000) argued that “it is not possible to do an unflawed study. Any research method chosen will have inherent flaws, and the choice of that method will limit the conclusions that can be drawn” (p. 1249). As a pragmatic response to these empirical problems, certain scholars have recommended that practical steps can be taken when collecting data in order to limit threats to data validity, and thus helping to ensure greater construct validity (Bono & McNamara, 2011). For example, whilst common method variance is seen as a concern with regard to the accuracy of self-report measures, Podsakoff et al. (2003) highlighted various means in which to reduce such variance (e.g. such as ensuring confidentiality of self-report methods, collecting predictor and outcome variables from different sources and/or over different time periods etc.). Further, Podsakoff et al. (2003) suggested that, dependent on the methods/design utilized within any given study, certain statistical methods could be used to attenuate measurement inflation.

Broadly speaking, whilst there is a general consensus that common method variance (and common method bias) is a concern for research validity (Bono & McNamara, 2011) and that practical steps should be taken (where possible) to avoid/reduce variance when collecting data, more recently a number of scholars have argued that the extent of this problem has been overstated such that it has become something of an ‘urban legend’ (Spector, 2006). Whilst it is still seen as a genuine concern, these scholars have argued that the effects of common method variance may not be as significant (with regard to measurement error) as the likes of Podsakoff and his colleagues (2003) have suggested (e.g. Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010; Edwards, 2008; Lance, Dawson, Birkelbach, & Hoffman, 2010; Spector 2006). These scholars argue that with regard to capturing data on such things as attitudes, attributions, and traits, self-report measures may still represent the most reliable and valid means by which to capture such data (Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance, & Spector, 2010; Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 1994, 2006); with Chan (2009) succinctly arguing that “self-report data are not really that bad and do not deserve the negative reputation in journal publications and the journal review process” (p. 310). Likewise, post-hoc statistical detection and correction of common method variance has been argued to provide little to no value, and may in itself, exacerbate measurement error (Edwards, 2008); with Richardson, Simmering, & Sturman (2009) comparing the practice to “throwing darts in the dark” (p. 797).

Further, it has been argued that multi-source data, such as supervisors’ ratings of performance, may be equally (if not more so) susceptible to influences and biases that may distort objective measurement (e.g. Borman, White, & Dorsey, 1995; Edwards, 2008), and thus equally should be considered with due caution (similarly, researchers have argued that individual performance, for example, is difficult to

define and thus may have limited construct meaning, both between and within studies - e.g. Rogers & Wright, 1998; Suddaby, 2010). Supporting the use of self-rater methods, Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt (2012) recently found meta-analytic evidence that self-raters were in fact *more* likely to report deviant behavior than that of other-raters (including supervisors), thus bringing into question the assumption that individuals are motivated to respond in a socially desirable manner.

In sum, due to its very nature as an individual's perception, POS has been wholly captured utilizing self-report methods (as has often the antecedents and outcomes of POS). Criticism may be levied at this empirical method when we consider that the POS construct aims to explain, and thus measure, the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic, which spans both individual (i.e. the attribution of POS and prosocial attitudes) and situational/dyadic (i.e. supportive organizational treatment and prosocial behavior) levels of phenomena. Essentially, there may be certain challenges that face scholars when asserting relationships between variables that exist between two different levels of analysis. Yet, it is important to note that these challenges also exist for other well-established constructs within the organizational behavior domain, such as psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1989), perceived organizational politics (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992), organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), and organizational identification (Mael & Ashforth, 1992), to name but a few. Broadly, whilst there may be challenges in our attempts to scientifically measure such phenomenon, POS (as well as the other constructs mentioned above) may represent real psychological experiences of employees that transcend from, and into, social phenomena (c.f. Edwards, 2003); and whilst we (researchers) may be unable to achieve total accuracy/certainty in our measurement, through ongoing construct and

methodological rigor, we may be able to better understand and predict such phenomena (Edwards, 2008).

3.3 The Methodological Approach of this Thesis

It is important to remember that the principle aim of this thesis (and thus, the three papers) is to further clarify and extend the POS construct and OST. As such, this aim influences the empirical and methodological approach of the papers, in that in order to gain greater clarity and to extend and develop our understanding, it is important to remain consistent with, and to build upon, extant empirical methods relating to the construct. Indeed, whilst a central tenet of the first two papers (see chapters 4 and 5) is that the extant survey of perceived organizational support may not be able to directly account for certain meaningful variance with regard to the construct's measurement (i.e. the effect of social comparison processes relating to POS, and POS vis-à-vis employees' attribution of organizational malevolence), these two papers will look to utilize the survey of perceived organizational support, whilst also extending and adapting it in order to capture the hypothesized variance. Principally, the first two papers consider unique variance within the measurement of POS, and thus are concerned with the internal consistency and content validity of the measurement of the construct (in other words, the first two papers are concerned with internal incremental measurement validity).

The third paper's methodological aims differ somewhat, in that the paper aims to find evidence of the latent influence of social and self-related resources within the

POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. Thus, as opposed to focusing on the internal incremental validity of the survey of perceived organizational support, the paper uses the extant measure to hypothetically examine the relationship between POS and certain variables.

With regard to the concerns raised in relation to threats to measurement validity (i.e. POS being reliant on self-report measurement, and thus susceptible to common method variance), again this thesis argues that, in order to clarify and extend the POS construct, it is important to remain consistent with extant methods. Therefore, all three papers utilize self-report methods as they (arguably) represent the most valid means of capturing individuals' perceptions and attitudes (Chan, 2009; Spector, 1994, 2006), whilst taking practical steps in order to reduce the risk of common method variance (such as collecting data at different points in time where possible, ensuring strict standards of confidentiality etc. – c.f. Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.4 Research Settings

The POS construct is conceptualized and contextualized as relating to employee-organization relationships per se. That is, POS is seen as an attribution that manifests itself as a natural part of the ongoing relationship employees have with their employing organization. Thus, theoretically, the POS construct is generalizable to all employees who work for/within an organization. Given this tenet, any research setting that consists of employees who work for an organization (such that the organization is responsible for the employee's pay, the terms and conditions of employment etc.)

should provide a relevant and valid source in which to capture data with regard to organizational support phenomena. Given the above reasoning, research relating to the three papers was able to collect data from employees within three different/specific research settings; a large hospital/healthcare provider based in central London (UK), from a cohort of employees who were part of a graduate development scheme within an international logistics company (again based in the UK), and from a convenience sample of full-time employees across various different industries (located in the US).

Due to the fact that the validity of conceptual and theoretical propositions/tenets can be seen to stem from the ongoing replication of findings from multiple studies (e.g. Amir & Sharon, 1991; Bono & McNamara, 2011; Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007), permission to collect data from other organizations was also sought. However an important overall temporal/contextual caveat of this research exists in that it coincided with a period that has become commonly known as ‘the Great Recession’, which stemmed from the global financial crisis of 2008. Indeed, the global financial crisis at this time has been so severe that it led the Nobel Prize winning economist Professor Paul Krugman (2009) to refer to the period as the “second great depression”. As such, whilst numerous organizations were approached in order to collect data (and further, most organizational executives who were responsible for human resources management expressed their interest in the research agenda), there was a general reluctance to engage in something that was deemed as not being a core business priority.

As such, the thesis was limited to the collection of data from the aforementioned sources. These three samples are considered in more detail below.

3.4.1 Large hospital/healthcare provider based in London (UK)

Employees from a large UK public sector hospital were invited to participate in a longitudinal online survey via an email to their work email accounts. The invitation email emphasized that participation was entirely voluntary, strictly confidential, and that data would be anonymously collated. With the aim of soliciting a greater response, as well as by means of demonstrating appreciation for respondents' time and effort, a financial donation of up to a maximum of £2,000 (subject to response rate) was offered to the hospital's children's charitable appeal to raise funds to improve its pediatric operating theatres and inpatient facilities.

Each individual was provided with a unique identifier code in order to match responses between two time periods: time 1 and time 2. It was elected to administer the time 2 survey five months after the time 1 survey in order to allow enough time for individuals to engage in attitudes and behaviors that theoretically stemmed from antecedent variables captured at time 1. Out of the 3340 hospital employees, 487 responded to the survey in time 1 (14.6% response rate), 72.9% were female, 27.1% were male; 74.9% were ethnically white British, white Irish, or white from another background, 9.0% were Asian (i.e. India, Pakistan etc.), 7.5% were Black, 3.5% were Mixed Origin, whilst the remaining 5.1% classed themselves as "Other"; the mean age was 38.3 years (s.d. 10.3 years); organizational tenure was on average 5.8 years (s.d. 6.1 years); 95% were full time employees; 31.0% were within managerial and/or clerical roles, 31.4% were either nurses or midwives, 9.0% were allied health professionals (e.g. physiotherapists, radiographers, dieticians etc.), 8.6% were scientific and technical professionals (e.g. pharmacists, psychologists, therapists etc.),

12.1% were medical doctors or surgeons, the remaining 7.8% included other roles such as laboratory workers etc. See table 3.1.

Of the 487 respondents from time 1, 161 filled out and completed the second survey five months later (time 2). Of these 161 respondents: 71.2% were female, 28.8% were male; 79.3% were ethnically white British, white Irish, or white from another background, 6.5% were Asian (i.e. India, Pakistan etc.), 7.4% were Black, 1.8% were Mixed Origin, whilst the remaining 6.4% classed themselves as “Other”; the mean age was 39.7 years (s.d. 9.8 years); organizational tenure was on average 6.6 years (s.d. 6.4 years); 96% were full time employees; 37.1% were within managerial and/or clerical roles, 28.8% were either nurses or midwives, 11.2% were allied health professionals (e.g. physiotherapists, radiographers, dieticians etc.), 10.6% were scientific and technical professionals (e.g. pharmacists, psychologists, therapists etc.), 7.1% were medical doctors or surgeons, the remaining 5.2% included other roles such as laboratory workers etc.

Table 3.1: A comparison of the percentage difference between respondents' sex, ethnic origin, employment status, and profession between time 1 and time 2 within the hospital/healthcare provider sample.

	Time 1 (n=487) Percentage	Time 2 (n=161) Percentage
Sex		
Male	27.1%	28.8%
Female	72.9%	71.2%
Ethnic Origin		
White (British, Irish, other)	74.9%	79.3%
Asian (i.e. India, Pakistan etc.)	9.0%	6.5%
Black	7.5%	7.4%
Mixed Origin	3.5%	1.8%
Other	5.1%	6.4%
Employment status		
Full time	95.0%	96.0%
Profession		
Managerial and/or Clerical	31.0%	37.1%
Nurse/Midwife	31.4%	28.8%
Allied Health Professional	9.0%	11.2%
Scientific and Technical Professional	8.6%	10.6%
Medical Doctors/Surgeon	12.1%	7.1%
Other	7.8%	5.2%

Table 3.2: A comparison of the mean difference between respondents' organizational tenure and age between time 1 and time 2 within the hospital/healthcare provider sample.

	Time 1 (n=487) Mean	Time 2 (n=161) Mean
Organizational Tenure		
Years	5.8 (s.d. 6.1)	6.6 (s.d. 6.4)
Age		
Years	38.3 (s.d. 10.3)	39.7 (s.d. 9.8)

Overall, the final longitudinal sample is diverse, representing a mix of age, sex, tenure, race etc. Also of note is the mix of professions. Whilst the sample is from within a hospital environment, the mix of professions could lend weight to the argument that findings are more likely to be generalizable (for example, had the sample consisted of just nurses, it could be possible to argue that the nature of the role/profession could influence/skew results). It should also be noted that, whilst the hospital had 3340 staff employed at the time, not all of these workers would have had access to computers and/or would possess a work email account (e.g. cleaners, porters, kitchen workers etc.), thus the overall response rate is conservatively calculated.

3.4.2 Graduate recruits from within a large UK based logistics company

A senior level executive of a UK based logistics company granted access to a pool of employees who were part of the organization's graduate recruitment scheme. The scheme is designed to provide these graduates with the skills and knowledge to make them successful leaders within the organization, through a managed process of formal training and on-the-job rotations through differing operations. The length of time an employee would be on this scheme would be for a minimum of two years and typically a maximum of three years.

The approach to data collection was similar to that for the hospital sample in that employees from within the graduate recruitment scheme cohort were invited to participate in a longitudinal online survey via an email sent to their work email accounts. The invitation email emphasized that participation was entirely voluntary, strictly confidential and anonymously collated. Again, with the aim of soliciting a greater response, as well as by means of demonstrating appreciation for respondents' time and effort, a financial donation of up to a maximum of £2,000 (subject to the response rate) was offered to the organization's designated charity, which was Prostate Cancer UK. The time 1 survey achieved 99 completed responses, whilst the time 2 survey (sent to those who completed the time 1 survey, five months later) achieved 52 completed responses.

Demographics for the sample were unavailable, however it was confirmed by a manager responsible for the scheme that there was broadly a fifty-fifty ratio split between males and females. Further the manager also confirmed that the age of the

respondents were in the region of 21-25 years of age (due to members of the scheme being recruited straight after graduating university).

Overall, there were a number of challenges faced in collecting data from this site. Primarily, there was some confusion as to the exact number of employees on the scheme (due to headcount responsibility being dispersed amongst multiple divisions and locations throughout the country, as well as there being some fluidity with regards to when individuals completed the program). Initial estimates assumed that there were approaching 200 members on this scheme, however, post data collection, it subsequently became apparent that this was more likely to be approximately 120. Had this been known prior to data collection, the site may not have been deemed suitable due to the likely small sample size providing limited statistical power. In order to attenuate this, it was proposed that data could be collected amongst other groups within the organization; however, this offer was subsequently rejected, with informal feedback being that senior-level decision makers were highly politicized and generally uncollaborative. Further, during the time of data collection, the organization was in the process of significant organizational change, which may have impacted on the response rate at time 2.

3.4.3 Convenience survey of employees within the US

A convenience sample of full-time employees from the US was sourced using Amazon.com's crowdsourcing platform Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is a forum in which individuals (colloquially known as 'turkers') can be requested to conduct 'tasks' in order to receive a payment. Recent research has demonstrated that data sourced in this manner can be as valid and reliable as many other methods of data

collection (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Crump, McDonnell, & Gureckis, 2013; Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013; Mason & Suri, 2012; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010), as well as being relevant for employee-focused research (Barger, Behrend, Sharek, & Sinar, 2011). Indeed, scholarly articles utilizing data sourced from MTurk are increasingly being accepted within top management journals (e.g. Bendersky & Shah, 2013; Pitesa & Thau, 2013; Skarlicki & Turner, 2014; Wiltermuth & Flynn, 2012).

Research suggests that the turker population tends to represent individuals who find completing various different tasks of interest, as opposed to being solely motivated to earn money, and that such money is a secondary/peripheral (as opposed to primary) source of income (e.g. Barger et al, 2011; Buhrmester et al., 2011; Mason & Suri, 2011). Further, one of the key benefits of using MTurk is the relative diversity of the sample population (e.g. in terms of age, socio-economic status, work experience, industry worked for, etc.). As such, whilst the data sourced from the hospital/healthcare provider and the international logistics company are focused within two specific organizations, data sourced from the MTurk population represents a contrasting breadth that may substantiate the generalizability of findings from the more specific samples.

Individuals were invited to take part in a survey that sought information about the individual and their attitudes and behaviors relating to work. In return for each completed survey, individuals were offered \$1 (with the survey estimated to take approximately 10 minutes to complete). In order to ascertain the individuals' eligibility to take part in the survey, they were requested to take a prescreening check of five questions, which asked whether or not the individual was 1) within full-time

salaried employment, 2) required to work at/on their employers premises, 3) there were more than approximately 100 employees working within the company/organization, 4) the individual was resident within the US, and finally, 5) that the individual was 18 years old or older. Individuals who responded “yes” to all five questions were then invited to take part in the actual survey. Individuals who responded “no” to any of the above questions were politely thanked for their interest in the survey, but informed that they were not eligible to take part (the MTurk system is such that, once rejected, individuals are unable to reattempt the survey).

Following this, eligible individuals were then taken to a screen that asked them to complete a ‘captcha’ (an acronym for “Completely Automated Public Turing test to tell Computers and Humans Apart”), which involves the interpretation of visually obscured letters and/or numbers. This measure was taken to ensure that the survey was not completed by an automated program (colloquially known as a ‘bot’). The correct completion of the captcha subsequently led to a screen that requested certain bio-data (such as age, sex, years/months worked within the current company/organization, industry sector, and annual salary). Following this, to ensure respondents’ greater attention and diligence in completing the survey (i.e. to limit ‘sloppy’ responding and/or ‘gaming’, in which respondents pay little-to-no attention to the questions being asked and simply complete the survey in order to receive payment) a ‘manipulation check’ was added to the survey (a bold-typed question asked who was the current president of the USA, either a) Barack Obama, or b) Hilary Clinton? Above this question was text that explained that it was important that respondents completed the survey as honestly and accurately as possible, as well as asking respondents to read instructions carefully. The text went on to state that in order to progress further with the survey, the respondent should answer b) Hilary

Clinton. Individuals who checked b) Hilary Clinton demonstrated that they had carefully read the prior instruction, and thus were able to progress with the survey, whilst respondents who checked a) Barack Obama were taken to a page that informed them they had not carefully read the prior instruction, and thus thanked them for their time and interest in the survey, but informed them that they were no longer able to complete the survey. Such manipulation checks have demonstrated that respondents are subsequently primed to be more diligent in their responding – e.g. Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009).

The survey was capped at the first 500 fully completed responses. After an initial review of responses, a total of n=497 fully completed surveys were retained. Of these respondents 63.6% were male (36.4% were female), whilst the average age was 30.73 (sd 9.67), and average tenure was 4.18 years (s.d. 5.12). Respondents represented employees within various industry sectors (see table 3.3) as well as varying degrees of annual full-time earnings (see table 3.4).

Table 3.3: The frequency and percentage of respondents' reported industry sector within a convenience sample of full-time US employees.

Industry Sector	Frequency	Percentage
Educational Services	59	11.9
Retail Trade	57	11.5
Health Care and Social Assistance	51	10.3
Professional, Scientific, and Technical	47	9.5
Information	46	9.3
Finance and Insurance	44	8.9
Other Services (except Public Administration)	37	7.4
Manufacturing	32	6.4
Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	28	5.6
Public Administration	16	3.2
Transportation and Warehousing	15	3.0
Utilities	14	2.8
Construction	11	2.2
Accommodation and Food Services	11	2.2
Real Estate and Rental and Leasing	6	1.2
Management of Companies and Enterprises	6	1.2
Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction	5	1.0
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting	4	.8
Wholesale Trade	4	.8
Administrative and Support and Waste Management and Remediation Services	4	.8
Total	497	100%

Table 3.4: Respondents’ reported annual full-time salary within a convenience sample of full-time US employees.

Annual Salary	Frequency	Percent
\$100,001+	13	2.6
\$60,001 - \$100,000	68	13.7
\$40,001 - \$60,000	129	26.0
\$30,001 - \$40,000	125	25.2
\$20,001 - \$30,000	107	21.5
\$10,001 - \$20,000	42	8.5
\$0 - \$10,000	13	2.6
Total	497	100%

Whilst MTurk has a potentially global population of turkers, it is possible to limit the geographic range of respondents; given this, it was elected that the survey would only be made available to individuals within the US, in order to limit potential confusion as to the nature and meaning of the questions/statements, as well as to ensure broad consistency with regards to cultural norms that might influence findings (it was possible to ensure that respondents were based in the US as MTurk can limit respondents to those that have Amazon accounts and payment accounts with a US address). Further, it was elected to sample only full-time employees to help ensure that respondents possessed meaningful employment relationships with their organization (e.g. it is possible to speculate that some part-time workers may have more limited exposure to organizational treatment, and thus likewise, may possess less pronounced attitudes and engage in fewer behaviors relevant to this research). In the same vein (i.e. to help ensure respondents possessed meaningful employee-organization relationships), it was elected to sample only those who worked on their employer’s premises, and whose organization was approximately 100 employees or more (e.g. to help increase confidence that respondents had a generalized ‘notion’ of

the organization (c.f. Levinson, 1965), as opposed the organization being viewed as a finite collective of individuals).

3.5 General Discussion

As has been highlighted earlier, any empirical research can be seen to possess flaws with regard to validity (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011). In this respect, it is possible to identify a number of potential concerns in relation to the three datasets discussed above.

Hospital/Healthcare Provider

When considering the sample from the hospital/healthcare provider, there are potentially two main areas of consideration: response rate, and sample size (n). With regard to response rate, a greater response rate is generally seen to provide greater confidence in the quality of the data, such that a greater response rate minimizes the threat of non-response bias. Non-response bias represents the concern that results could be biased (or skewed) due to those that did not answer; thus, a higher response rate gives greater assurance that findings are reflective of the total sample population. Given this, the overall longitudinal response rate of the healthcare provider sample may initially raise some concern. However, it should be noted that, more recently, scholars have convincingly argued that an assumption that a low response rate necessarily invalidates data is in fact flawed; indeed, empirical evidence suggests that surveys with low response rates can be as accurate as those with much higher

response rates (e.g. Newman, 2008; Rogelberg & Luong, 1998; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Highlighting this issue Rogelberg & Stanton (2007) argue that,

“if a study does obtain a response rate well below some industry or area standard, this [...] does not automatically signify that the data obtained from the research were biased. Thus, researchers who suppress or minimize the importance of results on the basis of a low response rate have also done a disservice to their audience, by failing to analyze whether their low response rate truly had a substantive impact on conclusions drawn from the data. In the absence of good information about presence, magnitude, and direction of nonresponse bias, ignoring the results of a study with a 10% response rate—particularly if the research question explores a new and previously unaddressed issue—is just as foolish as assuming that one with a response rate of 80% is unassailable.” (p. 198)

More broadly, scholars have pointed out that employees within organizations are increasingly ‘over-surveyed’, which thus leads to, and continually exacerbates, ever lower response rates (Baruch & Holtom, 2008; Newman, 2008; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

In order to help alleviate concerns relating to non-response bias, Rogelberg & Stanton (2007) went on to propose a number of practical techniques that can be utilized to assess the potential for non-response bias within any given dataset. Broadly speaking, these techniques concern the post hoc analysis of data to compare various characteristics of the response sample with that of the broader population of interest (for example, is there any significant differentiation in such things as sex, tenure, profession etc.). Applying this approach to this dataset, it was found that there were

no instances that raised concern of potential bias between the time 1 and time 2 samples. Further, because POS (and the survey of perceived organizational support) is well established, concern would be raised if certain correlational relationships ran contra to well-established extant findings; however, again, this was not the case within this sample (see the three papers – chapters 4, 5, and 6). Indeed, using Rogelberg & Stanton's (2007) techniques, there are a number of scholars who have recently presented studies within articles that have response rates of less than a 10%; with these scholars arguing that these samples provide valid findings, and further, these studies/articles have been published in top-tier peer reviewed journals (e.g. *Academy of Management Journal* - Grant, Dutton, & Rosso, 2008; Leslie, Manchester, Park, & Mehng, 2012: *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* - Grant, Nurmohamed, Ashford, & Dekas, 2011: *Journal of Applied Psychology* - Seibert, Kraimer, Holtom, & Pierotti, 2013: *Journal of Organizational Behavior* - Whitman, Halbesleben, & Holmes, 2014).

Further still, from a theoretical perspective, it is possible to argue that the potential effect of non-response bias on findings within this research would be limited, regardless of the response rate. Simply put, at its core, the concern regarding non-response is that it is assumed that there is a common independent variable(s) experienced by all within a (total) population that has an effect on a dependent variable(s) of interest; thus, the lower the response rate, the less certain we can be with regard to the relationships between variables. As such, the independent variable acts as an identifiable precursor, or context, experienced by all within the population. However, this research highlights an important caveat in relation to this assumption/concern, in that supportive organizational treatment is not (and likely cannot be) treated as a common independent variable experienced by all within a

population (i.e. the organization). Indeed, supportive organizational treatment is (in essence) idiosyncratic in nature, such that from an individual experiential level it is an amalgamation of numerous facets that include pay, reward, promotion, recognition, supportive management practices, appreciation, caring, training, development, etc. Thus, theoretically, each and every individual will have experienced supportive organizational treatment idiosyncratically to their own employee-organization relationship, and that such idiosyncratic support will differ in extent between employees. Inherently, this means that we are unable to account for *actual* supportive organizational treatment, and importantly in relation to non-response bias, we are unable to treat it as a common/global independent variable within an organization (arguably, the only way in which to overcome this would be to conduct research within experimental conditions in which supportive organizational treatment is controlled).

This argument may be most usefully highlighted by the use of Judge & Larsen's (2001) stimulus-organism-response model, in that through quantitative methods we can arguably measure with some certainty employees' response (i.e. attitudes and behaviors etc.), and likewise we may also be able to measure with some certainty characteristics relating to individuals within the sample (i.e. organism – e.g. POS, tenure, sex, rank, personality traits etc.). However, we are unable to effectively measure (with any degree of certainty) the stimulus (i.e. supportive organizational treatment). Thus, broadly, the extant empirical focus of POS and OST research can be seen as being primarily within the boundaries of the organism-response domains.

In sum, the focus of this research is *not* how the organization treats its employees (i.e. the population), which subsequently accounts for POS, and again in

turn accounts for attitudinal and behavioral outcomes; rather, the focus of this research is on the relationship between POS and various antecedent and outcome variables focused at the individual-level of analysis. Thus, given that the response sample provided no grounds for concern (i.e. in relation to such things as being over/under represented with regard to sex, tenure, rank, profession etc.) arguably non-response bias is not of concern in this instance (as the focus of the research does not, nor could, account for the stimulus of supportive organizational treatment).

However, this does lead to the second consideration, which concerns the sample size (time 1 plus time 2, $n = 161$). Whilst the above reasoning suggests that a higher response rate may have had an inconsequential effect with regard to the validity of the data, a higher response rate would have naturally provided greater power with regards to statistical analysis. Whilst a sample size of 161 is arguably not a large sample, through the course of statistical investigation within the three papers it was found to provide enough power to test the theoretical models of interest. Indeed, Shen, Kiger, Davies, Rasch, Simon, & Ones (2011) recently reviewed articles published within the *Journal of Applied Psychology* between the period of 1995-2008, and found that the median sample size was $n=173$, which they argued was broadly sufficient to provide scholars with enough statistical power in which to test the effects of primary interest. As such, the large hospital/health care provider sample size ($n = 161$) would appear to be broadly in line with the general mean of other studies collected within the organizational behavior domain. Overall, this sample represents a complex organization, comprising of a large concentration of highly skilled and professional employees who are notoriously ‘time poor’ (indeed, there is evidence that the more senior an employee’s position within an organization, the less likely they are to respond to surveys, which suggests that more highly skilled

professionals are less likely to respond to surveys - Anseel, Lievens, Schollaert, & Choragwicka, 2010). Arguably therefore, the sample provides us with an important glimpse into the psychological and social dynamics associated with POS amongst more highly skilled/professional employees.

International Logistics Company

In many respects the sample of newly recruited graduates from within an international logistics company represented the converse of the large health care provider in terms of response rate and sample size. With regard to sample size, the n of 52 (completes from both time 1 and time 2) represented a dataset that is/was significantly more limited in terms of statistical power. As such, the dataset could not be used to replicate the more complex theoretical models within the three papers. The dataset did however provide enough power to test, and importantly replicate, some of the key relationships of interest. Importantly, the replication of findings across multiple data samples has been heralded by scholars as the sine qua non of establishing data and construct validity (e.g. Amir & Sharon, 1991; Bono & McNamara, 2011; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). In relation to the response rate, the newly recruited graduates within the international logistics company represented a much higher proportional response rate (estimated to be in the region of 50%) than that of the hospital/healthcare provider. Interestingly, the fact that this sample replicated findings of some of the most critical arguments presented in the subsequent papers, may further substantiate the validity of the findings from the hospital/healthcare provider sample despite its relatively low response rate. To explain, whilst it is argued above that we cannot accurately account/control for supportive organizational treatment (due to its idiosyncratic nature), the fact that the

graduate recruit sample represented a group of employees who were recruited at roughly the same time, are at roughly the same stage within their lives/career, are paid roughly the same, and are given the same training, may represent one of the closest opportunities we have to controlling for an organization's supportive treatment. Thus, the fact that the findings from the graduate recruit sample broadly supported those of the hospital/healthcare provider sample, further diminishes potential non-response bias concerns within the hospital/healthcare sample.

Convenience Sample of Full-Time Employees in the US

Finally, whilst the MTurk sample offers certain strengths (e.g. a relatively large sample size in which to conduct statistical analysis, representing a broad and diverse sample of employees across the US etc.), one of the main weaknesses of the sample is that it is cross-sectional in nature. Whilst it is possible to conduct longitudinal data collection on MTurk, this does however involve a significant increase in complexity and risk for both the researcher and the respondent alike (e.g. the respondent may be unwilling to divulge personal contact details necessary for them to receive subsequent surveys, whilst the likely dropout/attrition rate between surveys means the researcher runs the risk of having to pay for a significant amount of surveys to be completed at time 1, in the hope that enough respondents will complete surveys at time 2 to make the exercise/expense worthwhile). Similarly, another restraint of this dataset was the number of measures/items that could be included in the survey. Due to the fact that turkers expect a fair payment for their efforts, the greater the number of measures/items (i.e. the longer it takes to complete the survey), the greater the amount respondents should (in theory) be paid. As such, due to

financial constraints, the survey administered was not able to capture all of the variables as would have been optimal.

3.6 Conclusion

As stated earlier, the aim of this chapter has been to provide the reader with a broad overview of the empirics utilized within the extant POS literature, and specifically, considering potential development, criticism, and debate associated with the survey of perceived organizational support. This chapter also went on to state this thesis' approach in relation to such things as self-report measures and concerns relating to common method variance. Finally, this chapter has provided an initial overview of the three datasets that were collected during the course of this research, as well as to provide an initial discussion with regards to each dataset's potential strengths and weaknesses. With this in mind, the subsequent three papers will discuss in greater detail the empirics utilized within each study.

3.7 References

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4 PAPER 1 - The Social Comparison of Supportive Organizational Treatment: A Closer Examination of Perceived Organizational Support in the Social Context

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4.1 Abstract

In response to calls for a greater focus on social comparison processes within organizational phenomena, this study considers the influence of the social context with regards to employees' perceptions of organizational support (POS). Specifically, this study theorizes that an employee's POS represents a generalized attribution that amalgamates two differing appraisal foci: the idiosyncratic (i.e. individualistic) receipt of supportive organizational treatment, and group-based (i.e. collectivistic) receipt of supportive organizational treatment. With this in mind, it is proposed that employees' perceptions of idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to others (termed as perceived organizational support social comparison – POSSC) will account for unique and meaningful variance with regards to the measurement of POS, as well as having a unique motivational and predictive influence. The results of a longitudinal study of 161 employees within a large UK healthcare provider, support the distinctive nature of POSSC, as well as POSSC accounting for unique and meaningful variance with regards to organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization (OCB-O), organization-based self-esteem (OBSE), organizational identification, and perceptions of organizational politics (POP). However, it was also found that POS (per se) is more strongly related to these outcome variables, which implies that employees' collectivistic/group-based appraisal of organizational support possesses a greater motivational influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. This study contributes to organizational support theory and the POS construct by theoretically and empirically examining the

influence of social comparisons with regard to perceptions of support as well as their subsequent impact on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

Keywords: perceived organizational support, social comparison, social exchange

4.2 Introduction

Perceived organizational support (POS - Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986) has received a significant degree of interest within the organizational behavior literature for nearly three decades (for a review see: Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). At its core, organizational support theory (OST – Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995) defines POS as the attribution that the organization both values and cares for the employee; and further, holds that this perception is manifested through the receipt of organizational support, which is essentially favorable treatment bestowed within the workplace (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, OST holds that the bestowment of favorable organizational treatment towards employees, enhances employees' perception that the organization is supportive (i.e. POS). Consequently, OST posits that with perceptions of support, employees will reciprocate with prosocial attitudes and behaviors which are beneficial to the organization. Indeed, this parsimonious reasoning is supported by a significant body of empirical research (for a review see: Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009).

Given this, OST holds the central tenet that organizations should look to maximize supportive organizational treatment within the workplace, due to the propitious effect it has on employees, the organization, and employee-organization relationships as a whole (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Underlying this tenet is the assumption that supportive organizational

treatment has a positive effect not just on those employees who are in direct receipt of the supportive treatment but also on other employees who *observe* the supportive treatment. To explain, OST suggests that, as well as having instrumental benefits for those who directly receive it, supportive organizational treatment also acts as an indicator as to how the organization values and cares for its employees *in general* (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Thus, supportive organizational treatment can be seen to have a *multiplier effect*, in that it is assumed to increase POS for both those employees who directly receive it, *and*, for those who observe its receipt amongst other employees within the organization (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Consequently, the POS literature has either explicitly or implicitly assumed that the greater the amount of supportive organizational treatment bestowed within an organization (such that it is delivered in a procedurally fair manner, and was not forced upon the organization via external constraints) the more strongly employees will perceive organizational supportiveness (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

However, the assumption that supportive organizational treatment has a multiplier effect may be problematic when we also consider that OST holds that such treatment is in essence a resource that is highly prized and sought after by employees (e.g. Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Lynch, 1998; Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). Principally, supportive organizational treatment is seen to comprise resources that are both tangible (e.g. pay, rewards, benefits, allowances, etc.) and intangible (e.g. praise, recognition, status, love, etc.) in nature; further, these resources are seen as a key element with regards to helping employees fulfill intrinsic socio-emotional needs, which encompass the need for esteem, approval and affiliation (Armeli et al., 1998;

Eisenberger et al. 1986, 2004). Arguably, this may be problematic when we consider that social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954; Greenberg, Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2007; Mussweiler, 2003; Wood, 1989, 1996) suggests that individuals actively compare their idiosyncratic receipt of organizational resources with that of others (e.g. Adams, 1965; Festinger, 1954; c.f. Suls & Wheeler, 2000; Sweeney & McFarlin, 2004); and further, rather than having a positive effect, the perception that others have received more of a desired resource(s), and/or, that the individual has not received a desired resource(s) whilst others have, can lead to negative attitudes and behaviors (e.g. Austin, McGinn, & Susmilch, 1980; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Greenberg, 1982; Seta, Seta, & McElory, 2006; Zoogah, 2010). As such, this evidence would appear to run contra to the assumption that supportive organizational treatment received by others will necessarily have a positive effect on those that do not receive the supportive treatment, due to relative under-benefit.

Indeed, within Shore & Shore's (1995) formative essay regarding OST, the authors suggested that comparative assessments of the receipt of supportive organizational resources could have important implications concerning employees' attribution of the organization's supportiveness. Yet, despite Shore & Shore's call for greater consideration of social comparison processes within the POS construct, there has been a relative dearth of attention paid to this phenomenon. Essentially, it is unclear whether an employee's perception of organizational support encompasses an assessment of the extent to which supportive organizational treatment (i.e. resources) is bestowed within the workplace per se (i.e. taking a collectivistic/group-based perspective), or, the relative idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment an individual receives in comparison to others (i.e. taking an individualistic perspective). Arguably this is not a trivial oversight, as the social comparison

literature suggests that the relative receipt of resources can have a significant influence on attitudes and behaviours (e.g. Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007; Suls & Wheeler, 2000). Indeed, consistent with this reasoning, more broadly Greenberg et al. (2007) recently called for greater attention to be paid to social comparison processes within organizational behavior research, arguing that “social comparison appears to be embedded deeply into the fabric of organizational life” (p. 23) and that greater understanding of the phenomenon may have the potential to significantly increase our understanding of social outcomes.

In order to address this problem, this study proposes that employees’ perceptions of their relative standing (c.f. Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan, & Ghosh, 2010; Wood, 1989, 1996) with regard to their receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to other employees, may account for unique and meaningful variance within the POS construct and its measurement. This study terms this as perceived organizational support social comparison (POSSC). As such, this study distinguishes between POSSC and POS, in that POSSC represents an idiosyncratic assessment of an employee’s direct receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to other employees within the organization, whereas POS represents a generalized (i.e. higher-order) assessment that encompasses both (to varying degrees) collectivistic/group-based and individualistic-based assessments. Therefore, greater POSSC represents a belief that the employee has directly received/receives more supportive organizational resources than most other employees, whilst lower POSSC represents a belief that the employee has received/receives fewer supportive organizational resources compared to most other employees.

By specifically drawing on equity (Adams, 1965), social exchange (Blau, 1964), and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) theories that have been instrumental in OST, this study argues that employees' idiosyncratic assessment of supportive organizational treatment receipt (i.e. POSSC) is likely to differ to that of employees' generalized assessment of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. POS), and further, will possess unique motivational facets relating to needs for equity, and obligations relating to reciprocity. Thus, POSSC will account for the influence of social comparison within the POS-attitudinal and behavioral outcome dynamic, and should thereby extend and develop our current understanding of this phenomenon (c.f. Goffin & Olson, 2011). Specifically, this study will test the predictive influence of POSSC vis-à-vis POS on a number of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes that have been seen to stem from POS; these being organizational citizenship behaviors aimed at the organization (e.g. Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), organization-based self-esteem (e.g. Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2003; Lee & Peccei, 2007), organizational identification (e.g. Bell & Menguc, 2002; Sluss, Klimchak & Holmes, 2008) and perceptions of politics (which is seen as being negatively related to POS - e.g. Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002).

Overall, the aim of this study is to extend our understanding of how, and to what extent, social comparison of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. POSSC) influences attitudinal and behavioral outcomes; and likewise, the extent to which POSSC and POS differ, both theoretically and empirically. Thus, this study aims to validate POSSC as a sub-construct that helps to provide a clearer frame of reference in relation to the formation of perceptions of support (i.e. POS); and further, to help account for additional variance in attitudinal and behavioral outcomes relating to the organizational support phenomenon. In doing so, this study looks to extend the POS

construct through the integration of social comparison theory, helping to identify and clarify the attributional mechanisms used to formulate perceptions of organizational supportiveness, and thus, helping to gain greater conceptual clarity within POS and OST, as well as greater accuracy and predictive validity with regards to perceptions of organizational support.

4.3 Theoretical Background

4.3.1 Organizational support theory, equity, and the social context

Supportive organizational treatment is in essence an organizational phenomenon, bestowed to a greater or lesser extent to all employees within any given organization (c.f. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Eisenberger et al. (2004) suggested that supportive organizational treatment can broadly be seen to consist of three core facets: these being fairness of treatment (i.e. the distributive allocation of resources, and the procedural and interactional fairness used to allocate such resources), support from organizational representatives (i.e. the treatment received by supervisors and other high(er)-status individuals within the organization), and human resource policies and practices (i.e. rewards, benefits, job conditions etc.). As such, OST is implicit that an individual's perception of supportive organizational treatment consists of a general appraisal of all three of these facets, with the experience of such treatment being psychologically 'bundled' together to form an anthropomorphized view of the organization and its intent toward the employee (e.g. Levinson, 1965).

As highlighted earlier, a core assumption within OST is that the more an organization bestows supportive organizational treatment towards its employees, the greater employees will report POS (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Importantly, this reasoning holds for supportive organizational treatment that is either directly received by the individual, or, observed being bestowed towards other employees. For example, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) noted that:

“because employees share membership with coworkers in various organizational collectives (job types, workgroups, departments, etc.), their identification with coworkers may lead them to interpret fair or unfair treatment of coworkers as an indication of the organization’s valuation of themselves, with a corresponding influence on perceived organizational support” (p. 74).

Similarly, Eisenberger et al. (2004) note:

“that because employees work interdependently and are subject to similar organizational policies and procedures, they are likely to identify with their co-workers as members of their in-group. As a result, employees would value the organization’s favorable treatment of co-workers as an indicator of the organization’s concern for themselves. Therefore, the treatment of groups to which one belongs in the organization would affect POS” (p. 221).

As such, OST advocates the ‘win-win’ nature of supportive organizational treatment, due to its direct and indirect beneficial effects on employees’ and their perceptions of support (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

Broadly, this assumption might be supported by findings that suggest that an individual's attitudes and behaviors may be influenced by the attitudes and behaviors of others within a group (e.g. coworkers). This is evidenced, for example, by the literature regarding social information processing (e.g. Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), whilst research in the area of organizational justice has shown that the fairness of treatment of coworkers influences individuals' own perceptions of fairness (Colquitt, 2004; Kray & Lind, 2002; Lind, Kray, & Thompson, 1998; Stinglhamber, & De Cremer, 2008). More specifically, Zagenczyk, Scott, Gibney, Murrell, & Thatcher (2010) recently found evidence that levels of POS amongst advice and friendship networks correlates with an individual's POS (i.e. such that an individual's POS is similar to others within the network). As such, Zagenczyk et al.'s findings may at first appear to support OST's assumption that the varied distribution of supportive resources amongst a group may uplift group-level POS. However, the cross-sectional nature of the study meant that Zagenczyk and his colleagues were unable to infer/account for causality. Indeed, concerning the theoretical premise that supportive organizational treatment promotes a multiplier effect for other employees, it is unclear from their study whether the receipt of supportive organizational treatment by one or a number of individuals within a network, increases overall POS, or alternatively, diminishes it, or, whether individuals with similar levels of POS are drawn to one another to form a like minded network. Similarly, Hayton, Carnabuci, & Eisenberger (2012) found that employees' quality of social networks at work had a positive effect on POS. However, like that of Zagenczyk et al. (2010), their study was also of a cross-sectional nature. Therefore, whilst Zagenczyk et al.'s and Hayton et al.'s findings are interesting, we are still unsure of the influence of the broader social context on individuals' attribution of organizational support.

Whilst the multiplier effect of supportive resources received by others on an individual's own POS remains unproven, by examining the theoretical basis of OST we may find evidence that indicates the influence of the broader social context on employees' attribution of organizational supportiveness. For example, the importance of fairness is arguably core to OST, and thus the perceived fair distribution of resources is likewise seen as a fundamental antecedent of POS (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Principally, this stems from OST's nomological grounding in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which is governed by equity-based expectations (e.g. Pearce, 2012); thus, OST holds that employees are motivated to ensure that the level of effort they direct towards their work and towards advancing organizational goals is fairly and equitably reciprocated with financial reward and/or other favorable resources (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2004; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Shore & Shore, 1995). However, OST has traditionally taken a very narrow view as to how employees actually formulate attributions of fairness, and consequently, organizational supportiveness, such that OST's focus has by-and-large been confined within the dyadic boundaries of the employee-organization exchange relationship (c.f. Zagenczyk et al., 2010). This is potentially an important limitation, as the literature relating to the fairness and equity of resource distribution is essentially grounded in (i.e. influenced by) the social context, such that perceptions of fairness and equity are seen to be manifested via the comparison of an individual's ratio of inputs (e.g. effort) to outcomes (i.e. receipt of resources) relative to those of referent others (e.g. coworkers) (Adams, 1965; Bolino & Turnley, 2008; Shah, 1998; c.f. Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; Greenberg et al., 2007).

In this vein, social comparison (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Festinger, 1954, Greenberg et al., 2007; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Mussweiler, 2003; Wood, 1989, 1996) is seen as the process through which “people acquire personal insight by comparing themselves to others” (Greenberg et al., 2007, p. 22). So powerful is the need to draw comparisons with others that scholars have argued that it is embedded within most social interactions and forms an integral part of organizational life (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007). Indeed, research has found that social comparison is given more emphasis as a measure of fairness than general expectations or other objective measures (such as doing better than the average – e.g. Seta et al., 2006). As such, individuals both seek to acquire social information, and are seen to cognitively process that information in the form of comparison of inputs versus outcomes, thus formulating attributions concerning fairness and equity (Adams, 1965; Buunk & Gibbons, 2007; Greenberg et al., 2007; Wood, 1996).

Although never directly stated or tested, given that fairness is held to be a key antecedent, OST may inadvertently suggest that an individual’s attribution of organizational supportiveness is influenced by the comparison of the individual’s idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational resources vis-à-vis other employees. For example, whilst Shore & Shore (1995) noted that “POS does not discuss the issue of comparison others, which may be quite important”, they speculated that “in actuality, it is likely that employees compare their efforts and rewards relative to others, along with the degree to which they perceive themselves to be supported as compared with coworkers” (p. 157). Indeed, Shore & Shore imply that an employee’s idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment may be compared to others within the organization, which in turn may have an important influence on attributional processes and subsequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

Therefore, when considering how employees formulate an attribution of organizational support, an important hypothetical question may arise: does the employee who is not in direct receipt of supportive organizational treatment, but instead observes other employees receiving such treatment, a) have their POS increased due to the fact that supportive organizational treatment (in general) represents the regard and caring of the organization for all employees, or b) have their POS diminished, due to the fact that in comparison the individual has received fewer resources than others? Indeed, the salience of this question may be highlighted by the fact that supportive organizational treatment is seen to include both tangible (e.g. pay, rewards, benefits, allowances, etc.) and intangible (e.g. praise, recognition, status, love, etc.) resources that are highly prized and sought after by employees due to their instrumental and socio-emotional need-fulfilling benefits (c.f. Foa & Foa, 1975, 1980). In this vein, Zagenczyk et al. (2010) speculated that “some aspects of organizational treatment may create divergence in employee POS, while other aspects may foster similarity” (p. 135). Arguably therefore, given such a scenario, OST is unclear as to whether POS is likely to be increased, or on the contrary, decreased.

4.3.2 Group-based versus idiosyncratic-based appraisals of supportive organizational treatment

Given the above reasoning, an important limitation of the POS construct can be seen to exist, in that we are unsure as to the attributional processes associated with supportive organizational treatment vis-à-vis the social context. Indeed, when considering the influence of supportive organizational treatment, OST often refers to both the group (i.e. employees) and the individual (i.e. the employee) interchangeably; thus, by and large, OST is implicit that what is positive for the group

is likewise positive for the individual. However, certain scholars have highlighted that this is not necessarily the case, in that supportive organizational treatment (such as pay, training, benefits, idiosyncratically agreed working arrangements etc.) can instill notions of inequity amongst coworkers, which in turn can lead to negative attitudes and behaviors (e.g. Lepak & Boswell, 2012; Lepak & Snell, 2007).

Further, this confounding lack of construct specificity also extends to the empirical measurement of POS. For example, whilst the survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) captures the extent to which the respondent believes that they are valued and cared for by the organization (e.g. “[the organization] cares about my general satisfaction at work”), it does not however distinguish whether this attribution is a result of the individual directly being in receipt of supportive organizational treatment, or, whether it results from a general observation of the receipt of supportive organizational treatment amongst a collective/group of employees to which the individual belongs. As such, we are unable to delineate whether POS is formulated from an individualistic/idiosyncratic-based perspective (i.e. how much the organization cares for and values *me* specifically), or, from a collectivistic/group-based perspective (i.e. how much the organization cares for and values *us*).

Indeed, in support of this reasoning, research has demonstrated that individuals’ sense of ‘self’ may vary in nature between being individuated (i.e. a sense of unique identity contrasting against others) and intrapersonal (i.e. a sense of the self assimilated as part of, and within, a collective group) (e.g. Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004; Blanton, Crocker, & Miller, 2000; Brewer, 1991; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Brewer & Weber, 1994; Flynn, 2005; Hogg & Terry, 2000;

Hogg & Williams, 2000; Sedikides & Brewer, 2001; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994; c.f. Goffin & Olson, 2011). For example, Turner et al. (1994) noted that “at certain times the self is defined and experienced as identical, equivalent, or similar to a social class of people” and that “the self can be defined and experienced *subjectively* as a social collectivity” (pp. 454-455). Indeed further, there is evidence to suggest that, unless specifically prompted to make individuated comparative self-evaluations (i.e. how do *I* compare), individuals are more likely to formulate evaluations relating to themselves based on social (i.e. collectivistic) self-evaluations (i.e. how do *we* compare - e.g. Stapel & Koomen, 2001; c.f. Blanton et al., 2000). In other words, there is evidence to suggest that when an individual is asked to evaluate organizational support (e.g. “[the organization] cares about my general satisfaction at work”), respondents may be more likely to formulate an appraisal based on the collective/social self-concept, such that the individual’s perception effectively represents an evaluation of how supportive the organization is towards the group/collective to which the individual feels they belong (c.f. Brewer, 2003; Flynn, 2005). Importantly, OST’s assertion that supportive organizational treatment has a multiplier effect (such that an individual’s POS can be increased by the observation of supportive treatment bestowed towards others – Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011) in itself suggests that when asked how supportive the organization is towards the individual, the respondent is influenced by a collectivistic/group-based appraisal.

Taking this reasoning further, by taking a closer examination of OST it may be possible to argue that employees’ socio-emotional needs give rise to two distinct, and potentially conflicting, motivational concerns: that of the enhancement of the (individual) self, and that of the enhancement of the group. To explain, OST holds

that supportive organizational treatment possesses socio-emotional resources that help to fulfill employees' needs for esteem, caring, approval, and affiliation (Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger et al., 1986). From an individualistic perspective, there is a significant body of literature suggesting that individuals have an innate motivation to enhance perceptions of self-worth (i.e. esteem – e.g. Crocker & Park, 2004; Rosenberg, 1965). This literature also suggests that perceptions of self-worth are essentially grounded in social comparison processes, such that self-worth may be dependent on the degree to which the individual perceives that they are more greatly esteemed (i.e. valued) in comparison to others (e.g. Crocker, Thompson, McGraw, & Ingerman, 1987; Taylor & Lobel, 1989). Therefore, given that supportive organizational treatment is seen to signal the organization's valuing of and caring for an individual, the self-enhancement motive suggests that individuals are likely to desire greater idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to others, whilst perceived comparative under-benefit may threaten self-worth (indeed, OST suggests that individual recognition is likely to be more strongly associated with POS – e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004).

Conversely, from a collectivistic/group perspective, there is equally an impressive body of literature that suggests individuals are motivated to enhance social ties in order to fulfill needs concerning belonging and relatedness (e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Sluss et al., 2008; Stevens & Fiske, 1995). Broadly, this literature suggests that individuals' socio-emotional needs are systemic of an innate primitive motivation to survive; thus, through the ongoing process of being a member of a group, as well as through being an integral member of that group, individuals may gain vital benefits needed for survival, betterment, and growth. Therefore in turn, individuals also have a vested interest in ensuring the well-being of

the group, and thus may be motivated by communal concerns as well as individualistic needs (e.g. Blader & Tyler, 2009; Buunk, Doosje, Jans, & Hopstaken, 1993; Clark & Mills, 1979, 1993; Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Spitzmuller & Van Dyne, 2013). In this vein, OST suggests that a sense of belonging is an important component with regard to the fulfillment of employees' socio-emotional needs (e.g. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades et al., 2001).

In sum, the literature relating to socio-emotional needs suggests that individuals may have a dual (and potentially conflicting) motivation to enhance the self and to consider the well-being of the group. Thus, it is possible to envisage that when an individual is asked to rate the supportiveness of the organization, the person may be presented with a focal quandary; over whether supportiveness should be appraised with regard to the individual's direct receipt of supportive organizational treatment formulated via comparison with other employees (for a pictorial interpretation see Figure 4.1) or with regard to the overall receipt of supportive organizational treatment received by the group to which the employee feels part of (for a pictorial interpretation see Figure 4.2). On balance it may be fair to reason that, when giving an appraisal of the supportiveness of the organization, the individual is likely to engage in an evaluative heuristic that amalgamates both individualistic and collectivistic/group receipt of supportive organizational treatment to form a generalized attribution (i.e. POS). Indeed, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber recently alluded to this dichotomy within POS by concluding that an "employee's relationship with their work organization, based on perceived organizational support, represents a combination of self-orientated motivation, based on social exchange, and group-orientated motivation, based on identification" (2011, p. 172).

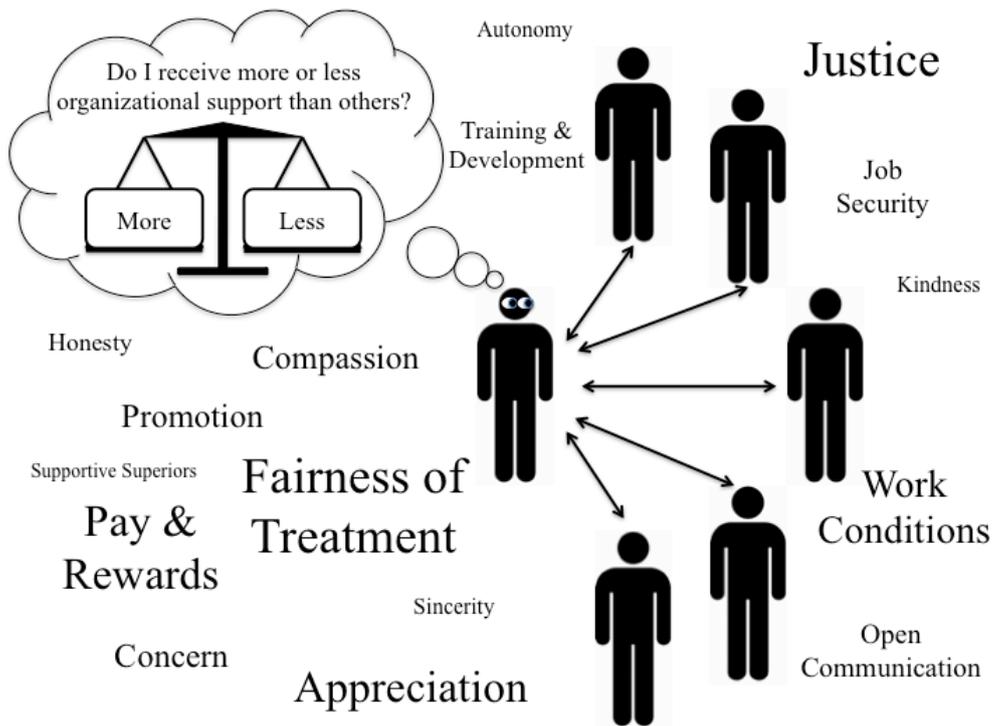


Figure 4.1: A pictorial interpretation of an employee evaluating their relative receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to others.

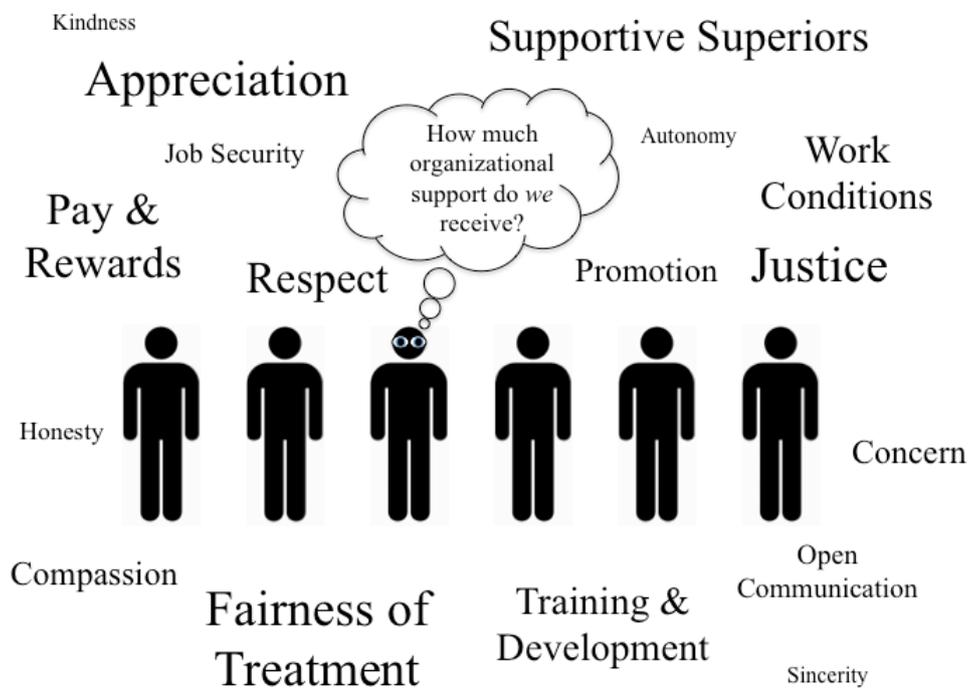


Figure 4.2: A pictorial interpretation of an employee evaluating the supportive organizational treatment the group receives in which they belong.

4.3.3 Group versus idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment and strength of reciprocal obligation

Whilst the above reasoning suggests that POS may essentially comprise of an amalgamation of both (to varying degrees) individualistic/idiosyncratic-based and collectivistic/group-based appraisals of supportive organizational treatment, it may be salient to consider how this in turn may influence subsequent outcomes. Again, by taking a closer examination of the theoretical foundations of OST, it is possible to speculate that individualistic/idiosyncratic-based appraisals vis-à-vis collectivistic/group-based appraisals may relate to differing motivations regarding the degree to which employees engage in certain attitudes and behaviors; and further, may result in different attitudes and behaviors entirely.

For example, OST is fundamentally grounded in social exchange (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) theories (c.f. Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004, 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), such that the receipt of favorable resources generates an obligation to reciprocate in kind, and that through the ongoing exchange of favorable resources between parties, enriched social bonds are formed. Thus, OST holds that through the receipt of supportive organizational treatment, employees are obligated to reciprocate the organization with likewise favorable resources (Eisenberger et al, 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). However, an important caveat may exist, in that the rules and norms of social exchange and reciprocity primarily operate within the confines of the immediate (or direct) dyadic exchange relationship (c.f. Cropanzano & Mitchell,

2005). As such, social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity implicitly suggest that there may be little-to-no obligation to reciprocate favorable treatment that is observed outside of the immediate/dyadic exchange relationship (although some scholars have argued that reciprocal obligations may exist outside of the immediate/dyadic exchange relationship, such instances are arguably ‘the exception as opposed to the rule’ – for a broad review of the social exchange and reciprocity literature, see Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). Therefore, whilst supportive organizational treatment that is directly received by an individual would in turn obligate that individual to reciprocate in kind, supportive organizational treatment that is bestowed upon others (and thus not received by the individual) would not.

Broadly, this reasoning suggests that there might be an important boundary condition concerning OST’s assumption that POS necessarily relates to an obligation to reciprocate with prosocial attitudes and behaviors (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); in that theoretically, the witnessing of supportive organizational treatment bestowed towards others could potentially increase POS (based on a collectivistic/group appraisals), yet in turn, such increased POS may entail little-to-no obligation for the witness to reciprocate the organization with favorable treatment. As such, depending on the degree to which an individual’s POS places emphasis on individualistic/idiosyncratic assessments of supportive organizational treatment versus collectivistic/group assessments, the strength of obligation to reciprocate the organization with prosocial attitudes and behaviors may vary (for example, it is possible to envisage a scenario whereby employee A has demonstrated superior performance relative to other coworkers, and as such is awarded with a promotion by the organization; thus, in turn, employee A is likely to feel both supported by the organization, and an obligation to reciprocate with

continued superior performance; meanwhile, employee B, a fellow coworker, observing employee A's treatment, may consequently deem the organization to be supportive, but it is debatable whether employee B would feel an 'obligation' to 'reciprocate' the organization in return for employee A's treatment). Therefore, it is conceivable that two individuals who report the same level of POS, yet whose POS differ in relation to composition of individualistic/idiosyncratic versus collectivistic/group-based appraisals of support, may feel differing levels of obligation to reciprocate, and thus, engage in differing degrees of prosocial attitudes and behaviors towards the organization.

In sum, this study contends that (1) POS is a generalized amalgamation of both individualistic/idiosyncratic and collectivistic/group evaluations of the receipt of supportive organizational treatment; (2) the degree to which POS comprises of individualistic/idiosyncratic versus collectivistic/group based evaluations of supportive organizational treatment may vary; and (3) that based on the norm of reciprocity, the idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment should obligate the employee to reciprocate the organization with likewise favorable resources, whilst collectivistic/group-based attributions of supportive organizational treatment may possess little-to-no obligation to reciprocate.

4.4 Perceived Organizational Support Social

Comparison

In review, whilst the POS construct has garnered significant interest for a period of nearly three decades, we remain uncertain as to how employees formulate perceptions of organizational supportiveness. Essentially, extant OST is unclear as to whether employees orientate their appraisals of supportive organizational treatment from an individualistic/idiosyncratic-based perspective, a collectivistic/group-based perspective, or a combination of both. Further, by drawing on equity (e.g. Adams, 1965), social exchange (Blau, 1964), and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) theories, each foci of supportive organizational treatment receipt (i.e. individualistic/idiosyncratic versus collectivistic/group) should possess differing inherent motivational properties (i.e. with regards to the obligation to reciprocate), which in turn should result in differing strength of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Overall, consistent with Shore & Shore's (1995) call for greater attention to be paid to the social context and comparative processes within the POS construct, this theorizing suggests that the construct could gain greater theoretical and empirical accuracy by accounting for individualistic/idiosyncratic-based vis-à-vis collectivistic/group-based appraisals of organizational support.

In order to help address this gap, by specifically capturing employees' specific appraisal of their individualistic/idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment as compared to other employees, and comparing this with POS per se, it may be possible to account for variance between individualistic/idiosyncratic and collectivistic/group-based assessments. As such, this study proposes that greater

POSSC represents a belief that the employee has received/receives more supportive organizational treatment than most other employees, whilst lower POSSC represents a belief that the employee has received/receives less supportive organizational treatment compared to most other employees. Given this, POSSC may represent a more proximal mechanism with regards to reciprocal obligation, with greater POSSC suggesting a greater obligation to reciprocate the organization (whilst lower POSSC would suggest a lesser obligation to reciprocate the organization) (e.g. Adams, 1965; Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). In sum, in accordance with the norm of reciprocity and needs for equity, POSSC should provide additional accuracy with regard to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

As discussed earlier, social comparison is an evaluative process that not only enables individuals to make sense of exchange relationships, but may also encompass unique motivational facets concerning equity (Adams, 1965) and socio-emotional needs (e.g. Crocker et al., 1987; Taylor & Lobel, 1989). With this in mind, theoretically organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization (OCB-Os) may represent the most salient behavioral outcome with regard to supportive organizational treatment. Because OST suggests supportive organizational treatment is in essence treatment that goes over-and-beyond contractual obligations, relaying symbolic value and caring towards the employee(s) (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004), similarly OCB-Os may likewise represent behavior directed towards the organization that goes above and beyond contractual obligations, signifying the value and caring the employee has for the organization (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch & Hulin, 2009; Organ, 1988; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Organ (1988) defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the

formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4), and more recently, he further proposed that it is behavior that contributes “to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (Organ, 1997, p. 91). Further, OCBs are conceptualized as containing one or more of the following elements: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988) and additionally, peacekeeping and cheerleading (Organ, 1990); which overall, enhances and facilitates organizational effectiveness and productivity (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

Although there is some contention (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Spector & Fox, 2010), OCBs are generally seen as the result of an employee’s motivation to engage in, and/or to reciprocate, a social exchange relationship (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997); indeed, POS is seen as an important antecedent of OCBs (e.g. Chen, Eisenberger, Johnson, Sucharski, & Aselage, 2009). Concerning the predictive influence of POSSC, given the desire to seek fairness and equity between the input an individual bestows towards the organization and the outcomes they receive from the organization in return (e.g. Shore & Shore 1995), employees who perceive that they receive more supportive organizational treatment than others (i.e. greater POSSC), will engage in greater organizational citizenship behaviors aimed at the organization (OCB-O) in order to maintain balance within the exchange relationship. Conversely, a perception that the individual has received less supportive organizational treatment than other employees (i.e. lower POSSC), suggests that the individual will withhold OCB-Os in order to attain balance. Therefore, due to the proximal nature of POSSC vis-à-vis equity needs

and reciprocal norms, POSSC should account for additional predictive variance over and above that of POS.

Hypothesis 1: POSSC will account for additional predictive variance, over and above that of POS, in relation to OCB-O.

Whilst the above reasoning considers the motivational influence of equity needs and reciprocal norms in combination with social comparison, OST holds that socio-emotional needs may also have an important motivational influence on employees' attitudes and behaviors. OST conceptualizes supportive organizational treatment as housing information/cues about the value the organization places on its employees, in that such treatment is seen to convey positive regard and intent towards those who receive it (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). It is this positive regard and intent that is predicted to have a positive effect on socio-emotional needs by signaling that the organization believes the individual is essentially worthy and wishes to engage in an enriched social exchange relationship with the employee (Eisenberger et al, 1986, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However, to date, there has been little attempt within the POS construct to succinctly define and measure socio-emotional needs, and as such, it remains broadly latent and ill-defined within the construct. In response to this, Lee & Peccei (2007) examined OST's conceptualization of socio-emotional needs, and argued that esteem, caring, approval and affiliation are in essence similar constructs, and that it may therefore be difficult to distinguish between them (both empirically and theoretically). As such, they proposed that approval, caring, and affiliation are essentially a subset within the broader construct of esteem, and thus the self-esteem construct provides the 'best fit' in order to capture these socio-emotional needs.

Concerning self-esteem within the work context, organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) is a term first coined by Pierce et al. (1989) to “define the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant and worthy as an organizational member” (Pierce & Gardner, 2004: p. 593). Chiefly, OBSE theory suggests an individual’s self-esteem can be shaped through experiences at work and within an organizational context, with Pierce & Gardner (2004) noting that “OBSE is, in part, a social construction, shaped and molded according to the messages about the self transmitted by role models, teachers, mentors, and those who evaluate an individual’s work” (p. 594). Indeed, Pierce & Gardner (2004) suggest that high-quality social relationships may affect OBSE in their own right, as they inherently imply that the individual is worthy in the eyes of others. Therefore, evaluative cues (be they explicit or implicit) concerning the employee’s ability and worth, as well as cues of care and approval, will likely influence OBSE (Bowling, Eschleman, Wang, Kirkendall, & Alarcon, 2010; McAllister & Bigley, 2002).

Indeed, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) note that both POS and OBSE share distinct theoretical and empirical similarities with regard to employees’ beliefs of self-worth vis-à-vis cues from the organization. In sum, whilst there has been limited attention paid to this within the POS construct, the extant literature suggests that OBSE may most usefully capture OST’s conceptualization of socio-emotional needs. Indeed, whilst there are only a few studies that have attempted to directly measure the relationship between POS and OBSE, those that have done so have found a positive relationship between the two (e.g. Chen et al., 2003; Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2009; Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003; Lee & Peccei, 2007).

Importantly however, a core premise of this study is that the comparison of an individual's own receipt of supportive organizational treatment vis-à-vis other coworkers may in itself provide salient cues as to the individual's standing (e.g. Suls, Martin, & Wheeler, 2002; Wood, 1989) with regard to the organization's caring and perceived value of the individual. Therefore, an employee who perceives that they have received more supportive organizational treatment (i.e. greater POSSC) than most other employees may reason that the organization values and cares for the individual more highly than others. Thus, consistent with OBSE theory's assertion that self-worth is influenced by cues relating to value and regard from superiors, greater POSSC should increase OBSE. Conversely, an individual who perceives that they have received less supportive organizational treatment in comparison to most others (i.e. lower POSSC) should suggest that the organization values the individual less highly than others. Thus, lower POSSC is likely to threaten and/or reduce OBSE.

Hypothesis 2: POSSC will account for additional predictive variance, over and above that of POS, in relation to OBSE.

Similarly, Eisenberger et al. (1986) noted that the extent to which perceived support "met needs for praise and approval, the employee would incorporate organizational membership into self-identity and thereby develop a positive emotional bond (affective attachment) to the organization" (p 501). In effect, OST suggests that employees are motivated to invest their self-concept (self-identity) within the organization in order to achieve the psychologically enhancing benefits of belonging within a group (e.g. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Sluss, Klimchak & Holmes, 2008; c.f. Baumeister & Leary, 1995). However, whilst supportive organizational treatment may relay positive cues, the social context may also influence

organizational identification, such that an employee's comparative standing regarding the receipt of supportive organizational treatment signals the relative regard the organization has for that individual. As such, greater POSSC would implicitly suggest that the individual is subject to signals from the organization that the individual is valued and cared for more greatly than others per se, which in turn should provide for the greater fulfillment of the need for belonging, and thus at the same time enhance organizational identification (and vice versa with regards to lower POSSC).

Hypothesis 3: POSSC will account for additional predictive variance, over and above that of POS, in relation to organizational identification.

Finally, an attitudinal outcome that may theoretically relate to both equity and socio-emotional needs, is that of perceived organizational politics (POP – e.g. Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Although not directly conceptualized as relating to the employee-organization relationship per se, POP is salient due to the fact that certain scholars have highlighted its antithetical nature in comparison to POS (e.g. Andrews & Kacmar, 2001; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Kiewitz, Restubog, Zagenczyk, & Hochwarter, 2009; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999). POP has been conceptualized as an individual's subjective attribution of unfavorable, illegitimate, and self-serving attitudes or behaviors (either witnessed or directly experienced by the employee) of other individuals or groups within the organization (e.g. Ferris & Kacmar, 2002). Further, much like OST, POP theory also suggests that the actions of organizational agents are amalgamated to form an anthropomorphized perception of the organization as a whole (e.g. Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson, 2003).

Specifically, POP is of interest when we consider that resource allocation processes within the organizational context (e.g. supportive organizational treatment) are seen as a key antecedent of the attribution. For example, some scholars have suggested that work can be seen as a ‘social marketplace’ in which resources are exchanged between the organization and employees, and that through such exchanges employees may form either a positive attribution of the organization, such that the organization’s intent is perceived as benevolent in nature, or conversely, employees may form a negative attribution of the organization, such that the organization’s intent (or culture) is essentially self-serving and illegitimate in nature (i.e. POP) (e.g. Cropanzano et al., 1997; Randall, et al., 1999). Overall, negative perceptions of fairness of resource allocation are seen as a key antecedent of POP. Importantly, as opposed to concerning actual political actions and activities, POP theory is concerned with employees’ perceptions, such that organizational politics is seen as “a subjective perception, but not necessarily an objective reality” (Ferris, et al., 1989: p. 157). In other words POP can be seen as a subjective evaluation of the legitimacy of resource allocation within an organizational context.

Following this logic, the degree to which equity and socio-emotional needs are met or thwarted with regard to supportive organizational treatment should in turn relate to positive/negative evaluations of the organization. As such, lower POSSC suggests that an individual perceives themselves to have been inequitably treated in comparison to others, and likewise may experience the thwarting of socio-emotional needs. Therefore, it may be reasoned that individuals with lower POSSC may possess more negative evaluations of the organization’s allocation of supportive organizational treatment, which in turn should relate to heightened POP.

Hypothesis 4: POSSC will account for additional predictive variance over and above that of POS, in relation to POP.

4.5 Method

4.5.1 Participants

Employees from a large hospital/healthcare provider in the UK were invited to participate in a longitudinal online survey via an email to their work email accounts. The invitation email emphasized that participation was entirely voluntary, strictly confidential and would be anonymously collated. Each individual was provided with a unique identifier code so that responses could be matched between time 1 and time 2 (five months later). Out of the 3340 hospital employees, 480 responded to the survey at time 1 (14.4% response rate) and of these, 161 filled out the second survey five months later (time 2). Out of the latter 161 responses: 71% were female; in terms of ethnicity 79% were white British, white Irish, or white from another background; the mean age was 40 years (s.d. 10 years); mean organizational tenure was 7 years (s.d. 6 years); 37% held managerial and/or clerical roles, 29% were either nurses or midwives, 11% were allied health professionals (e.g. physiotherapists, radiographers, dieticians etc.), 11% were scientific and technical professionals (e.g. pharmacists, psychologists, therapists etc.), 7% were medical doctors or surgeons, and the remaining 5% held other roles such as laboratory workers etc.

4.5.2 Measures

4.5.2.1 *Perceived organizational support*

POS was measured at time 1 using the shortened survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) which uses 8 of the highest loading items from the original 36 item measure. The items used a 7 point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The measure includes items such as “[the organization] values my contribution to its well-being” and “[the organization] would ignore any complaint from me (R)”. Cronbach’s alpha was .93.

4.5.2.2 *Perceived organizational support social comparison*

Due to the fact that POSSC is grounded within, and an extension of, the POS construct, this study elected to adapt the shortened 8 item survey of perceived organizational support in order to account for social comparison. The eight items where “[organization] values my contribution to its well-being, *more than most other employees*” “[organization] fails to appreciate any extra effort from me, *compared to most other employees*” (R), “[organization] is more likely to ignore a complaint from me, *compared to most other employees*”(R), “[organization] cares about my well-being *more than most other employees*” “Even if I did the best job possible, [organization] would fail to notice, *but would notice the efforts of most other employees*” (R), “[organization] cares about my general satisfaction at work, *more than most other employees*”, “[organization] shows very little concern for me, *compared to most other employees*” (R), “[organization] takes *more* pride in my accomplishments at work, *compared to most other employees*” (N.B. in the sample the word “organization” was supplanted by the actual name of the organization, and

in order to stress the social comparative aspect of each item, italics were used). The items were measured during time 1, using a 7 point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”.

Due to the measure effectively being new, it is important to ascertain the discriminant validity of POSSC vis-à-vis POS. In order to achieve this, the data were subjected to factor analysis. Sample data from time 1 (n=470) was randomly split into half, with one half subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal-factors extraction with oblique rotation, with the remaining half subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation. The results from the EFA demonstrated that POS items loaded onto a single factor as anticipated (POS loadings ranged between .57 and .84); however, POSSC items loaded onto two different factors (see Table 4.1), such that one factor represented the four positively worded items whilst the other factor represented the four negatively worded (i.e. reverse scored) items (POSSC loadings ranged between .84 and .93 for the positively worded factor, and between .72 and .94 for the negatively worded factor). None of the items cross-loaded between factors. Overall, the three factors combined accounted for 71.8% of the total variance (POS factor = 43.3%; POSSC positive factor = 22.2%; POSSC negative factor = 6.3%).

Table 4.1: Exploratory Factor Item Loadings for POSSC

Item	Exploratory Factor Analysis Loadings	
	POSSC positive	POSSC negative
<i>[Organization] values my contribution to its well-being, more than most other employees</i>	.84 (.84)	
<i>[Organization] cares about my well-being more than most other employees</i>	.88 (.84)	
<i>[Organization] cares about my general satisfaction at work, more than most other employees</i>	.93 (.88)	
<i>[Organization] takes more pride in my accomplishments at work, compared to most other employees</i>	.89 (.85)	
<i>[Organization] fails to appreciate any extra effort from me, compared to most other employees</i>		.72 (.85)
<i>[Organization] is more likely to ignore a complaint from me, compared to most other employees</i>		.87 (.77)
<i>Even if I did the best job possible, [Organization] would fail to notice my contribution, but would notice the efforts of most other employees</i>		.94 (.84)
<i>[Organization] shows very little concern for me, compared to most other employees</i>		.93 (.84)

Item loadings are from a random split half of the data from the time 1 (n=470) hospital/healthcare provider sample. Item loadings in parentheses are taken from a supplementary data sample of graduate management trainees within a large national logistics company (n=99).

After finding that POSSC formed two distinct factors within the EFA, it was salient to consider whether this was indeed indicative of POSSC consisting of positive and negative factors, or, that a two factor split had formed due to potential method effects caused by negatively worded (reverse-scored) items. Indeed, highlighting this issue, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003) noted that, whilst negatively worded items can help to reduce potential response pattern biases caused by acquiescence or agreement bias (i.e. by making respondents engage in more considered cognitive processing/appraisal), they also have the potential to produce ‘artifactual response factors’ that solely contain negatively worded items. They

argued that these artifactual response factors can be formed when a (small) proportion of respondents fail to distinguish between positively and negatively orientated items.

Given this concern, the other random half of the data was subjected to a CFA in which positive and negative response valence was controlled for. Recently, Marsh, Scalas, & Nagengast (2010) conducted an extensive investigation into the factor structure of global self-esteem, which is conceptually viewed as a uni-dimensional construct but, conversely, has consistently demonstrated a two-factor structure (i.e. positive and negative self-esteem). Building on a cumulative body of research, their extensive empirical investigation of wording effects revealed that the use of both positive, and negative, latent method factors represents the best factor structure (within a CFA) in order to account for artifactual methods effects caused by negative worded items.

As such, following from the EFA, two models were tested using a CFA. The first model tested a three factor model in which POS, POSSC positive, and POSSC negative were treated as separate factors, and the second as a two factor model in which POS and POSSC (i.e. as a uni-dimensional factor) were considered. Importantly, in order to account for positive and negative valence, both models contained latent method factors utilized to account for the positive worded items of POSSC, whilst another latent method factor was utilized to account for the negative worded items of POSSC. Neither latent method factor was allowed to correlate with each other nor POSSC (i.e. paths were set to .0). The rationale behind the use of latent method factors is that, within a CFA, they can account for factors that relate specifically to method effects (i.e. the positive/negative wording of items), whilst at the same time allowing for the latent substantive factor. Thus, given that the two

latent methods factors (i.e. a positive wording method factor, and a negative wording method factor) are accounted for within each CFA; the extent to which the model which includes POSSC as a whole, versus the model that includes POSSC positive and POSSC negative, provides a better fit of the data, that it is possible to ascertain whether or not the factor split of POSSC is best seen as a methods artifact or not. Results of the three factor model demonstrated a good fit to the data in an absolute sense ($\chi^2(96) = 221.24$; CFI = .96; Tucker-Lewis Index = .94; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .05). Following this, the data were fitted as a two-factor model in which POS was treated as a distinct factor, whilst POSSC was treated as a single (i.e. both POSSC positive and POSSC negative items) factor. Results of this model also demonstrated a good fit to the data in an absolute sense ($\chi^2(98) = 229.96$; CFI = .95; Tucker-Lewis Index = .94; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .04); however, given that the chi-square value was greater by 8.72 and possessed an additional 2 degrees of freedom, the three-factor model (i.e. POS, POSSC positive, and POSSC negative) presented the better fit. Thus, given that the CFA controlled for artifactual methods effects with regard to positive and negative worded items, the fact that POSSC positive and POSSC negative provided a better fit to the data as opposed to POSSC as a uni-dimensional measure, suggests that POSSC should be seen as dual-dimensional.

In order to cross-validate the distinctiveness of the POSSC scale, an additional field study collected data from 99 employees who were members of a management development program within a major logistics company based in the UK. Due to the relatively modest sample size, an EFA was conducted (as opposed to a CFA). A principal factors analysis with oblique rotation supported previous findings, with POSSC forming two distinct factors (POSSC positive with loadings ranging from .84 to .88, and POSSC negative with loadings ranged from .77 to .85) (see Table 4.1).

Similar to prior findings, no items cross-loaded between factors. As such this analysis offered further support for the distinctiveness of POSSC positive and POSSC negative.

The finding that POSSC forms two distinct factors (POSSC positive and POSSC negative) within the main sample, and that further this finding was replicated in an additional sample, thus provided confidence that a two factor split had not occurred by chance. In sum, the results from the EFA and CFA suggests that POSSC divides into positive and negative factors respectively; such that the differentiation between POSSC negative and positive, is consistent with the differentiation of POS normal and reverse scored items. Therefore, POSSC positive concerns employees' social comparison perceptions of favorable treatment from the organization, whilst POSSC negative concerns employees' social comparison perceptions of unfavorable treatment from the organization. Indeed, the POS construct is assumed to capture attributions of both benevolence, and malevolence, of organizational intent (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001), and it would seem that POSSC positive (benevolence) and POSSC negative (malevolence) are consistent with this. Cronbach's alpha for POSSC positive = .91, and POSSC negative = .92

4.5.2.3 Organizational citizenship behaviors (aimed towards the organization)

OCB-O was measured at time 2 using Lee & Allen's (2002) 8 item measure. The items used a 5 point Likert scale ranging from "never" to "very often". Example items include: "Defend [the organization] when other employees criticize it" and "Take action to protect [the organization] from potential problems". Cronbach's alpha .90.

4.5.2.4 Organization-based self-esteem:

OBSE was collected at time 2 using the first 7 items of Pierce et al.'s (1989) 10 item OBSE measure. The first 7 items were chosen due to the fact that they capture an evaluation of self-worth stemming from external evaluative cues from the work environment (conversely, the last 3 items of the 10 item scale captures evaluations of self-worth stemming from an internal evaluation of self-efficacy). Thus, in order to specifically test the hypothesized predicative influence of POS and POSSC (i.e. cues that relay a sense of being valued and cared for) the first 7 items were used. The items used a 5 point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include: “I am valuable around here” and “I am taken seriously around here”. Cronbach’s alpha was .89.

4.5.2.5 Organizational identification

Organizational identification was measured at time 2 using Mael & Ashforth’s (1992) 6 item measure. The items used a 7 point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include: “[the organization’s] successes are my successes” and “When I talk about [the organization], I usually say “we rather than ‘they’”. Cronbach’s alpha .88.

4.5.2.6 Perceived organizational politics

POP was measured at time 2 using Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson's (2003) six-item POP scale. The items used a 5 point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include: “There is a lot

of self-serving behavior going on within [the organization]” and “People do what's best for them, not what's best for [the organization]”. Cronbach’s alpha was .93.

4.5.2.7 Control variables

Certain scholars have argued that individuals possess a trait disposition with regards to equity levels within exchange relationships. For example, Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles (1987) suggest that equity sensitivity is a bi-polar continuum ranging from a preference for outcome/input ratios to be less favorable for the individual (i.e. benevolence), through to a preference for outcome/input ratios to be more favorable for the individual (i.e. entitlement). Specifically, Miles, Hatfield, & Huseman (1989) suggested that there are “a) Benevolents, who prefer that their outcome/input ratios be less than the comparison other; b) Equity Sensitives, who, conforming to traditional equity theory predictions, prefer outcome/input ratios to be equal; and c) Entitleds, who prefer that their outcome/input ratios exceed those of the comparison other” (p. 582). Indeed, the trait is seen to not only motivate behavior, but also influences perceptive judgments of equity and fairness within exchange relationships (e.g. King, Miles, & Day, 1993). As such, due to the theoretical approach of this study with regard to the employee-organization exchange relationship, and specifically the effect social comparison has within this relationship, this study elected to control for the potential trait effects of equity sensitivity. This study used King and Miles’ (1994) 5-item equity sensitivity measure during time 1. An example item includes: “It would be more important for me to (A) get from the organization or (B) give to the organization”. Cronbach’s alpha was .76.

4.6 Analysis and Results

In order to examine the convergent/divergent validity of POSSC positive and POSSC negative, the pattern of correlations were compared with the other variables in the hypothesized model. Table 4.2 reports the means, standard deviations, Cronbach alpha reliabilities, and correlations among the study variables with POSSC differentiated into positive and negative dimensions. The correlation matrix and reliabilities were calculated using the sample of employees that answered both in Time 1 and Time 2 ($n = 161$). The table demonstrates that all variables have an acceptable degree of internal reliability, with Cronbach's alpha for POSSC positive and POSSC negative being .91 and .92 respectively. Overall, POS displayed significant relationships with all outcome variables. Of particular note, POSSC positive and POSSC negative are negatively correlated, and this relationship is statistically significant. However, this relationship is relatively modest, which suggests that employees are highly ambivalent (i.e. possess both positive and negative perceptions) as to their comparative standing in relation to their idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment.

Of further interest is the fact that POSSC negative has a statistically significant and negatively correlated relationship with POS, and this relationship is quite substantial, which suggests that perceived idiosyncratic under-benefit of supportive organizational treatment relates to a more negative general (global) appraisal of organizational support. However, also of note is that whilst POSSC positive has a statistically significant and positive relationship with POS, this relationship is relatively modest which suggests that perceived idiosyncratic over-

benefit of supportive organizational treatment relates to only a marginal increase in a general (global) appraisal of organizational support. Indeed, both sets of results may support equity theory's assumption that the experience of under-benefit has a far greater effect than over-benefit (Adams, 1965). Finally, it should be noted that whilst POSSC negative was found to have statistically significant relationships with all variables, the same cannot be said for POSSC positive (with statistically significant relationships with POS, POSSC negative, equity sensitivity, and organizational identification only).

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables.

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. POS	4.54	1.23	(.93)							
2. POSSC positive	3.33	1.31	.10	(.91)						
3. POSSC negative	4.93	1.29	-.73**	-.19**	(.92)					
4. Equity Sensitivity	4.04	1.24	-.22**	.11**	-.26**	(.79)				
5. Organizational Identification	4.67	1.16	.43**	.26**	-.30**	-.25**	(.88)			
6. OCB-O	3.41	0.80	.50**	.11	-.42**	-.35**	.70**	(.90)		
7. OBSE	3.79	0.63	.51**	.08	-.44**	-.11	.25**	.42**	(.89)	
8. POP	3.09	0.83	-.49**	.45	.49**	.19*	-.29**	-.41**	-.42**	(.93)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Coefficient alpha reliabilities are represented in parentheses

The approach taken to formally test the hypothesized model (i.e. the predictive nature of POSSC) was influenced by the overall size of the longitudinal sample ($n = 161$) as well as the number of variables of interest. Based on the EFA/CFA on the predictor variables and subsequent cross-validation, POSSC clearly formed two

factors (POSSC positive, and POSSC negative), and as such seven variables (plus equity sensitivity as a control) needed to be tested within the model. Due to the overall response rate across both time 1 and time 2 ($n = 161$) the analytic strategy utilized two separate CFAs in order to assess model fit (one that focused on the antecedents plus the control variables from time 1, and one that focused on the outcome variables of time 2).

With regard to the hypothesized model's antecedents, a four factor model (i.e. POS, POSSC positive, POSSC negative, and equity sensitivity) provided a good fit to the data ($\chi^2(183) = 614.90$; CFI = .93; Tucker-Lewis Index = .92; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06). In order to further ascertain the distinctive validity of the measures, the Fornell and Larcker (1981) test of discriminant validity was conducted on all four items. Essentially, in order to establish the discriminant validity of constructs, this test requires that the average variance extracted from the items within each scale, exceed the square of the correlations between other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Specifically, this test found that POS (average .58) is clearly distinct from POSSC negative and equity sensitivity (with squared correlations of .02 and .05 respectively), however, whilst distinct from one another, POS was more highly correlated with POSSC positive (with a squared correlation of .55); POSSC positive (average .74) was clearly distinct from POS, POSSC negative and equity sensitivity (with squared correlations of .55, .03, and .06 respectively); POSSC negative (average .72) is clearly distinct from POS, POSSC positive, and equity sensitivity (with squared correlations of .02, .03 and .02 respectively); and finally, equity sensitivity (average .42) was clearly distinct from POS, POSSC positive and POSSC negative (with squared correlations of .05, .02, and .06 respectively). Thus, the results of this test demonstrated that the four measures were sufficiently distinct.

Subsequently, a CFA was conducted on the hypothesized model's outcome variables, testing a four-factor model (i.e. organizational identification, OCB-O, OBSE and POP). The results demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data, albeit one that might not be considered a "good fit" ($\chi^2(318) = 742.63$; CFI = .87; Tucker-Lewis Index = .86; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .06). As such, an EFA was conducted on these variables and revealed that two of the organizational identification items cross-loaded to a small extent with the OCB-O factor. However, it was decided to retain these items due to both constructs being well established and validated measures.

As such, as a result of the cross-lagged nature of the hypothesized model, this model was tested using observed composite scores formed from observed items as opposed to factors. Therefore, a saturated path model was utilized which thus provided a perfect fit to the data (i.e. fit indices are not relevant in this instance as the model tested and controlled for all possible paths).

Results of the saturated path model (see Figure 4.3) revealed that whilst controlling for the effects of equity sensitivity, POS was found to be a significant predictor of all four outcomes (organizational identification = .33 $p < .01$; OCB-O = .25 $p < .01$; OBSE = .22 $p < .01$; POP = -.24 $p < .01$). With regard to POSSC positive, the variable was found to be a significant predictor of organizational identification (.29 $p < .01$) and OCB-O (.09 $p < .05$) however non-significant relationships were found between POSSC positive and OBSE (.05) and POP (-.03). With regard to POSSC negative, the variable was found to be a significant predictor of OBSE (-.12 $p < .05$) and POP (.20 $p < .01$), however non-significant relationships were found between POSSC negative and organizational identification (.08) and OCB-O (.10).

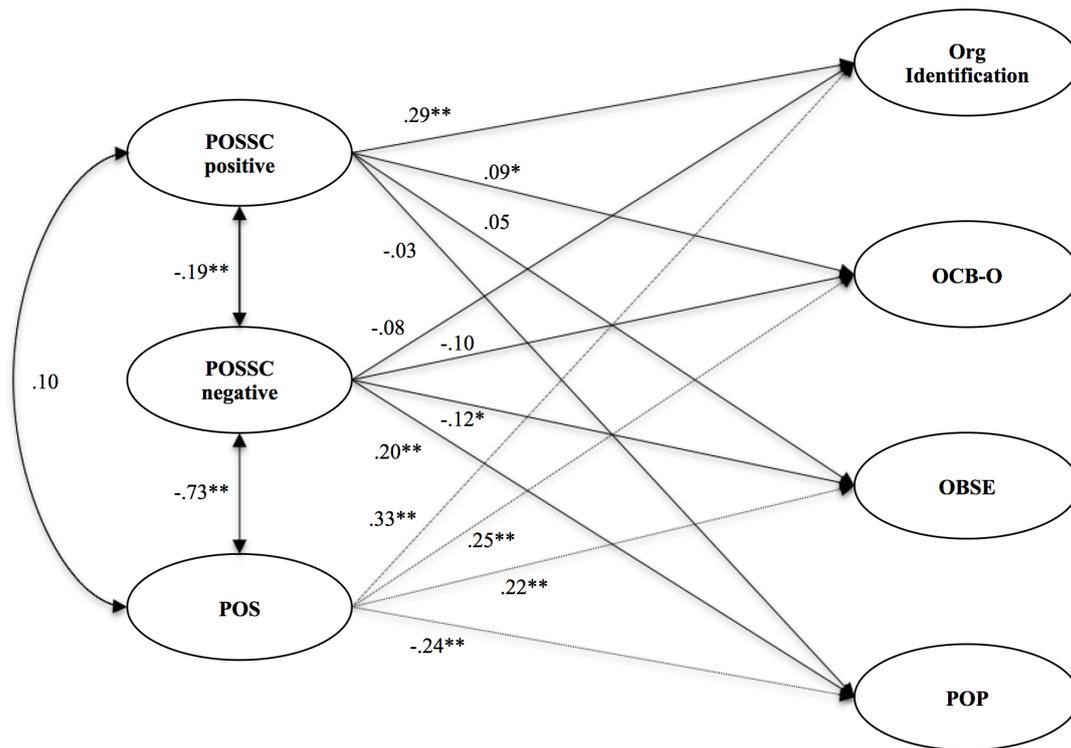


Figure 4.3: Saturated path model examining the relationship between the predictor variables of POSSC positive, POSSC negative, and POS (captured at time 1), and the outcome variables (captured at time 2) while controlling for trait equity sensitivity.

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

With regards to the hypotheses, in order to test whether POSSC accounted for additional variance over and above that accounted for by POS, the hypothesized model was contrasted with the inclusion and exclusion of both POSSC positive and POSSC negative. It was found that by including POSSC (both positive and negative) an additional 6.3% of variance was accounted for in relation to organizational identification ($R - \text{Square} = .270$ versus $.207$), an additional 1.7% of variance in

relation to OCBO (R – Square = .312 versus .295), an additional 1.5% of variance in relation to OBSE (R – Square = .279 versus .264), and an additional 3.4% of variance in relation to POP (R – Square = .284 versus .250). Thus all hypotheses (1, 2, 3, and 4) were supported. Overall, the inclusion of POSSC positive and negative within the measurement model accounted for an additional 12.9% of the total variance, over and above that accounted for by POS alone.

4.7 Discussion

Nearly two decades ago, Shore & Shore (1995) called for greater consideration of social comparison processes with regard to organizational support, acknowledging that the social context may play an important role within this phenomenon. Yet, despite their call there has been a dearth of theoretical and empirical focus regarding this, despite a burgeoning interest in the POS construct per se (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). The aim of this study was to address this gap, suggesting that people do indeed engage in social comparisons concerning their receipt of supportive organizational treatment, and proposed that POSSC would explain unique variance in attitudes and behaviors over and above that explained by POS (c.f. Goffin & Olson, 2011). Indeed, this study found evidence to support this reasoning, which in turn suggests that POSSC represents a valuable extension of the POS construct.

At the beginning of this study it was suggested that, rather than being a purely idiosyncratic/individualistic assessment (as is often explicitly or implicitly assumed in the literature), POS is a generalized perception that contains assessments of both

group/collectivistic and idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment. The fact that POSSC was found to be empirically distinct from POS offered support for this argument (i.e. given that POSSC positive/POSSC negative represents a solely individualistic and relative appraisal of support). Further, POSSC significantly predicted unique variance in OCB-O's, employee's organizational identification, OBSE, and employee's perceptions of organizational politics, when accounting/controlling for the effects of POS and equity sensitivity. Therefore, this study demonstrates that POSSC provides additional accuracy in our understanding of, and measurement of, the organizational support phenomenon; and thus makes a valid and meaningful contribution to the POS literature as a whole.

Specifically, this study suggested that POSSC may be an important sub-construct/dimension within POS, and that future research regarding organizational support may wish to include the measurement of POSSC in order to better account for the social context; thus, gaining greater predictive validity. Indeed, it should be noted that whilst POS was found to have significant statistical relationships with all outcome variables, POSSC positive and POSSC negative had significant statistical relationships with different outcomes (i.e. POSSC positive demonstrated statistically significant relationships with organizational identification and OCB-O, whilst POSSC negative demonstrated statistically significant relationships with OBSE and POP). This suggests that perceived relative over-benefit, and relative under-benefit, possess differing motivational mechanisms that lead to meaningful differences in attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. For example, theory would suggest that a perceived relative over-benefit of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. POSSC positive) would imply that the individual perceives they are more valued and cared for by the organization, and thus in turn, likely to possess greater notions of self-worth;

however, this study did not find a statistically significant relationship between POSSC positive and OBSE. Conversely, however, this study did find that a perceived relative under-benefit of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. POSSC negative) did possess a statistically significant negative relationship with OBSE. This suggests that perceived relative under-benefit functions as the mechanism between supportive organizational treatment and evaluations of self-worth vis-à-vis cues from the social context. Or in other words, results suggest OBSE is not so much influenced by a notion of “how much more support I get from the organization than others”, but rather “how much less support I get from the organization than others”. Indeed, supporting this finding, prior research has shown that self-evaluative judgments are more greatly influenced by perceptions of deprivation (as opposed to over-benefit) relative to others (e.g. Seta et al., 2006).

Further, a statistically significant relationship was found between POSSC positive and organizational identification, yet a statistically significant negative relationship was not found between POSSC negative and organizational identification, which again may initially be theoretically puzzling. However, scholars in the field of evolutionary psychology have long argued that people have a “hard-wired” need to belong (e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995). It is possible to speculate that whilst a perceived relative over-benefit of supportive organizational treatment could more greatly fulfill socio-emotional needs (and thus lead employees to possess a greater sense of attraction towards, and belonging/identification with, the organization – e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004), employees who perceive relative under-benefit may be less willing to reduce their levels of organizational identification as doing so may have a detrimental impact on their own self-related need for belonging. Therefore, whilst a perception of relative under-benefit may thwart socio-emotional needs, the

active psychological distancing of the individual's self-concept from the organization may further deplete the individual's socio-emotional resources (i.e. a sense of belonging); thus, these individuals may look to retain their sense of organizational identification in order to avert an even greater negative impact on their socio-emotional needs/resources (which could stem via a sense of lack of belonging, and/or through a sense of being ostracized).

Similarly, a statistically significant relationship was found between POSSC negative and POP, which arguably makes sense when considering that people are seen to consistently and universally engage in self-serving attributions in relation to social judgments (e.g. Mezulis, Abramson, Hyde, & Hankin, 2004). As such, in order to deflect cues that could threaten self-worth, a perceived relative under-benefit of supportive organizational treatment leads employees to attribute the organization as unfair and/or capricious in its distribution of supportive resources (i.e. POP). Yet, a statistically significant negative relationship was not found between POSSC positive and POP. In theory, a self-serving bias would suggest that a perceived relative over-benefit should result in a more positively orientated view regarding organizational resource distribution (i.e. lower POP). However, upon reflection, this may be tempered by a moral/collectivistic consideration, in that the relative over-benefit of the individual implicitly suggests the relative under-benefit of others.

Finally, whilst a statistically significant positive relationship was found between POSSC positive and OCB-O, a statistically significant negative relationship was not found between POSSC negative and OCB-O. Thus, this suggests a perceived relative over-benefit of supportive organizational treatment leads to reciprocal and equity based needs to restore balance by increasing OCB-Os. However, this reasoning

doesn't appear to apply in the converse. In hindsight, some scholars have argued that, as opposed to being discretionary, OCB-Os might in actual fact be deemed by employees as being an implicitly mandatory role requirement (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Spector & Fox, 2010; Van Dyne & Butler Ellis, 2004), and thus, employees may find it difficult to actively reduce such behaviors.

Overall, these findings suggest that there may be certain boundary conditions with regard to the usefulness of exchange, reciprocity and equity accounts of social behavior when considering organizational support in the context of social comparisons. Indeed, whilst POS was found to have significant statistical relationships with all the outcome variables, the utilization of POSSC (positive and negative) was able to cast a new light on some of the mechanisms and dynamics that operate within the organizational support phenomenon. As such, the current conceptual measure of POS may not fully elucidate important and noteworthy processes that could be of interest and benefit to both scholars and practitioners alike. Arguably by taking a broader overarching perspective, the differences between POS and POSSC positive/negative may be analogous to the theoretical and conceptual domain of organizational justice for example; in that perceptions of organizational justice can be seen as manifested as a higher-order global perception (e.g. Ambrose & Schminke, 2009) or, as consisting of various different lower-order dimensions (i.e. distributive, procedural, and interactional justice – e.g. Colquitt et al., 2001), with each order/dimension possessing differing predictive, as well as interactive, properties. Similarly, this study elucidates that POS represents a generalized perception of organizational support, whilst POSSC (positive and negative) may represent a valid sub-dimension that possesses unique predictive validity.

Yet it should also be noted that the findings of this study may raise as many questions as it answers. For example, neither POSSC positive nor POSSC negative demonstrated statistically significant relationships that were greater in strength than the equivalent POS-outcome relationship. This is surprising, as the more proximal concerns relating to equity and reciprocity within the immediate (i.e. idiosyncratic) employee-organization exchange relationship would suggest that these relationships should be greater (in support of this reasoning, OST suggests that the idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment should have a greater effect on POS than such treatment offered to all employees - Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Indeed, the relationship between POSSC positive and OCB-O in comparison to POS and OCB-O (for example) was .09 ($p < .05$) and .25 ($p < .01$) respectively. Arguably, these findings may bring us back full-circle to the reasoning considered at the beginning of this study; such that POS was reasoned to be a generalized appraisal of organizational supportive treatment, that in part, is formed of collectivistic/group-based evaluative facets. Indeed given such reasoning, the results of this study suggest that an individual's collectivistic/group-based appraisal of organizational supportive treatment has a far greater motivational influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes than relative individualistic-based appraisals. And further, may suggest that collectivistic/group-based appraisals of organizational supportive treatment receipt, forms a larger proportion of the generalized appraisal of organizational supportive treatment (i.e. POS). Intriguingly, this reasoning may concur with recent findings that levels of POS tend to be similar within networked groups (Hayton et al., 2012; Zagenczyk et al., 2010), thus suggesting that POS may be more greatly affected by collectivistic/group-based influences than individualistic-based influences. And further still, this finding is consistent with research that suggests an individual's

notion of ‘self’ may subconsciously be predisposed towards a collective self-concept (e.g. Stapel & Koomen, 2001). As such, the findings may contribute to a greater understanding of attributional processes regarding individualistic vis-à-vis collectivistic foci (c.f. Brewer & Chen, 2007).

In sum, when asked how supportive the organization is, the findings of this study suggest that employees are more likely to subconsciously evaluate how supportive the organization is towards the group in which the individual belongs (i.e. the individual and his/her coworkers), as opposed to how supportive the organization is towards the individual relative to others. This in turn may have important implications with regard to the dominance of equity, social exchange and reciprocity theories in detailing the mechanisms and motivations between the supportive organizational treatment→POS→prosocial outcome dynamic, suggesting that communal exchange (e.g. Clark & Mills 1979, 1993; Clark et al., 1986) for example, may provide an important and viable alternative (i.e. additional) explanation of such phenomena. In other words, whilst POS/OST has predominantly explained the organizational support dynamic through rational, quid pro quo, ‘one good turn deserves another’ exchange accounts that essentially stem from an individualistic perspective (i.e. “the more I get, the more I give in return; the less I get, the less I give in return”), the findings within this paper suggest that the attribution of POS (and thus, organizational support phenomenon) may be more complex than initially conceptualized; in that POS appears to be more greatly influenced by a concern for the value and caring the organization has for employees *per se*, as opposed to the value and caring the organization has for individual relative to others.

Interestingly, the findings within this study may be supported by a burgeoning literature that suggests that individuals have a dual motivational need relating to the enhancement of the self (i.e. from an individualistic perspective) and the enhancement of the group in which the individual feels they belong (e.g. Ashmore et al., 2004; Brewer, 1991, 2003; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Hogg & Williams, 2000; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Lind et al., 1998; Sedikides & Brewer 2001; Tajfel, 1978; Turner et al., 1987, 1994). Further, this literature suggests that these dual needs may not always operate in tandem, and that either need may possess a greater influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes than the other given different circumstances and contexts. As such, it may be possible to speculate as to why the findings suggest that collective/group-based appraisals form a larger proportion of generalized POS; in that given the overall collective emphasis of the work environment (such that individuals need to work together collectively in order to accomplish organizational goals) this may in turn prime/activate individual's social self-concept with regard to attributions at and about work. In doing so, this might help maintain and develop needs for belonging and relatedness. Therefore, with a lesser emphasis on the individualistic self-concept, POSSC may have a lesser influence on subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Notwithstanding, it is also possible to speculate that POSSC may have a much greater influence when situational and contextual factors activate/prime the individualistic self-concept (such as through the experience of more significant events such as organizational change, downsizing, the competition for a promotion or resources etc.) thus, placing greater emphasis on needs for fairness and equity relative to others.

Overall, the findings of this study lends weight to recent evidence regarding the influence of the social context within the organizational support phenomenon, helping

to clarify our conceptual understanding of what perceptions of organizational support actually entail, as well as the mechanisms and motivations that operate between these perceptions and their attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

4.7.1 Limitations and future directions

As has been highlighted, with regard to the measurement of POSSC, analytic results showed that, while being distinct from POS, POSSC itself formed two distinct sub-factors (POSSC positive and POSSC negative). Whilst initially the failure of POSSC to form one distinct factor may raise some analytical/methodological questions, in retrospect it may make sense that POSSC operates as two separate, but related factors. For example, recent research has shown that individuals can, and do, make social comparisons that differ in focal target, such that comparisons can be upward in nature (i.e. comparison of the self vis-à-vis people who are better off), as well as downward in nature (i.e. comparison of the self vis-à-vis people who are worse off), and further, that the dual nature of such comparisons is substantively valid and meaningful (e.g. Brown, Ferris, Heller, & Keeping, 2007; Harris, Anseel, & Lievens, 2008). Therefore, when asked to compare their idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment to that of others, similar to upward and downward comparisons, employees may alter their comparative focus between positively orientated items (i.e. POSSC positive) and negatively orientated items (i.e. POSSC negative). Arguably, therefore, this may be the main reason why POSSC formed two distinct factors within the analysis. Indeed, other constructs that would initially appear to be polar opposites have been found to be distinct, but related factors: such as positive and negative affect (e.g. Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009), OCBs

and CWBs (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling, & Nault, 2002) and trust and distrust (e.g. Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998).

However, it should be noted that research into the effects of negative worded items have suggested that two factor splits could be due to a measurement artifact. Noting this, this study utilized both positive and negative latent model factors within the CFA (as recommended by Marsh et al., 2010) in order to control for the artifactual effects of negative worded items. Indeed, when using this technique, results did in fact support a two-factor split of POSSC. Further, if the factor split had occurred as a result of a method artifact, it is possible to argue that this would have impacted upon the path relationships. Indeed, the fact that both POSSC positive and POSSC negative possessed statistically significant relationships with different outcome variables (and thus did not overlap), suggests that there is a more substantive and meaningful relationship between the variables. Indeed, post-hoc reasoning was able to offer theoretical explanations for the existence of relationships/non-relationships. Had the relationships formed purely due to a methods artifact it would possible to speculate that one or both predictors (i.e. POSSC positive and POSSC negative) would have failed to establish statistically significant relationships with any of the outcome variables.

Notwithstanding, it seems fair to say that there is significant and continued debate as to whether sub-factors that consist solely of negatively worded items represent a measurement artifact or as something more substantive and meaningful in relation to the construct of interest; indeed, as Lance, Baranik, Lau, & Scharlau (2009) argue, definitively delineating between the two may be a significant challenge.

As such, it is suggested that future research with regard to POSSC accounts/controls for potential artifactual method effects brought about by negatively worded items.

Future research may also wish to prime employees' specific perceptions of collectivistic/group receipt of organizational support, and thus contrast this with POS. Potential item could be "[organization] cares about *its employees'* well-being" and "[organization] takes pride in *its employees'* accomplishments at work". By comparing and contrasting perceptions of collectivistic/group receipt of organizational support with POS it may be possible to more definitively ascertain the extent to which generalized POS is indeed based on collectivistic/group appraisals.

4.7.2 Practical implications

The implications of this study primarily lend themselves to the more accurate capture and interpretation of employees' perceptions relating to organizational support. However, the findings of this study also suggest there are a number of practical implications that are likely to be salient for organizational management practice. Firstly, results show that when individuals do feel that that they are relatively under-benefited in terms of organizational support, they are much more likely to have a lower generalized appraisal of organizational support (i.e. POS). In turn, findings suggest that this will lead to a reduction in prosocial attitudes and behaviors that are beneficial to the organization (indeed, this is consistent with extant findings – e.g. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002), as well as being detrimental to the individual's self-esteem. As such, organizations should be mindful to ensure that the distribution of supportive organizational resources does not create a

climate in which some employees perceive themselves to be relative “losers” in comparison to others.

Equally, there may be marginal benefits to be had from promoting a climate that fosters perceptions of being a relative “winner” in comparison to other employees; while results suggest that such a perception increases employees’ emotional “bonding” with the organization (i.e. organizational identification), overall, such a perception was only weakly related to an increased generalized appraisal of organizational support (i.e. POS), whilst specifically having a limited influence on increased contextual performance. As such, it could be argued that such employees (i.e. relative winners with regards to the receipt of supportive organizational treatment in comparison to others) have extrapolated a greater amount of resources from the organization and thus demonstrate a highly favorable orientation towards the organization (due to the greater benefits they receive), yet do little to reciprocate with comparatively greater prosocial behaviors aimed at aiding the organization.

Overall, results suggest that organizations would do well to ensure that supportive organizational treatment is distributed in such a way as to mitigate/avoid a climate of winners and losers. Indeed, results suggest that employees’ perceptions of support are more greatly influenced by more generalized perceptions of group-level receipt of support from the organization, and further that such generalised perceptions have greater motivational influence. Therefore, organizations may wish to emphasize supportive organizational treatment from a group, rather than from an individualistic perspective. For example, rather than treating leave for emergency caring commitments on an ad-hoc case-by-case basis (such that there could be significant disparity between the amount of leave any two given employee are allowed to take),

organizations might wish to implement policies and procedures that are universal to all, as well as being communicated as such. Therefore, rather than targeting support in an individualistic manner, it may be pertinent to foster perceptions of support at a group level; such that employees develop a perception that “we” are supported.

4.8 Conclusion

Organizational support theory and the POS construct have garnered a significant degree of interest over many years (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), yet despite calls (e.g. Shore & Shore, 1995), there has been a relative dearth of focus towards the influence of social comparison within the construct. This study argued that employees may engage in comparative appraisals of the receipt of supportive organizational treatment relative to others within the organization. By proposing the sub-construct of POSSC, this study examined the influence of social comparison with regard to POS, with results suggesting that POSSC does indeed account for unique and meaningful variance with regards to the measurement of POS, as well as possessing unique motivational and predictive influence. However, whilst POSSC was found to be distinct from POS, the latter possessed greater predictive strength, which suggests that employees’ attribution of organizational supportiveness is more greatly influenced by collectivistic/group-based receipt of organizational supportive treatment, and that such collectivistic/group-based attributions have a greater motivational influence on subsequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. As such, this study helps advance our understanding of the attributional processes, and the componentry nature of, perceptions relating to organizational support.

4.9 References

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5 PAPER 2 - Perceived Organizational Cruelty: A Test of Employees' Attribution of the Malevolent Organization

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5.1 Abstract

Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) recently proposed the theoretical construct of perceived organizational cruelty (POC), which represents an attribution that the organization possesses a malevolent intent towards the employee(s). The present study looks to develop the construct through the theoretical and empirical comparison of POC with the well-established construct of perceived organizational support (POS). In order to test the discriminant and criterion validity of POC vis-à-vis POS we utilized two distinct samples; a longitudinal study of employees in a large UK hospital, and a convenience sample of full time employees from within the USA. Overall, findings provide initial evidence of the theoretical and empirical validity of the POC construct, that POC accounts for unique and meaningful variance over and above that of POS, as well as of the need to utilize both POC and POS constructs when measuring the overall quality of the employee-organization relationship from the perspective of the employee.

Keywords: Perceived Organizational Cruelty, Perceived Organizational Support, Employee-Organization Relationship

5.2 Introduction

Over many decades, there has been a significant degree of interest in employees' experience of negative treatment within the work context, as evidenced by literatures that consider injustice (e.g. Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001), discrimination (e.g. Goldman, Gutek, Stein, & Lewis, 2006), abusive supervision (e.g. Tepper, 2000; 2007), ostracism (e.g. Ferris, Brown, Berry, & Lian, 2008), psychological contract breach/violation (e.g. Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1995), and underinvestment contracts (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997). When considered collectively, these literatures suggest that negative treatment may be a commonplace phenomenon experienced by many employees in today's global workforce. Surprisingly, however, relatively scant attention has been focused on how such negative treatment experienced in the workplace influences the way employees view their relationship with their employing organization. Indeed, this is in stark contrast to the burgeoning literature that has considered the experience of positive treatment in the workplace on employees' psychological relationship with the organization (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis, Eisenberger, Ford, Buffardi, Stewart, & Adis, 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Noting this paradox, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) reasoned that employees who experience negative treatment at work may form an attribution regarding the organization, such that the organization's treatment of the individual is deemed as being malevolent in intent. Specifically, they proposed that employees may hold "extreme negative views [regarding] their relationship with their employer" such that

the organization is perceived to be “intentionally callous and malicious” (p. 141); given this, they argued that the experience of negative treatment may lead employees to form an attribution that the organization is essentially cruel. Utilizing this logic, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) went on to propose the theoretical construct of perceived organizational cruelty (POC), which they defined “as the employee’s perception that the organization holds him/her in contempt, has no respect for him or her personally and treats him or her in a manner that is intentionally inhumane” (p. 141). Essentially, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue that the extant literature concerning the employee-organization relationship (EOR) has primarily taken a more positive orientation at the expense of a more critical theoretical and empirical focus on more negative aspects of the relationship. Thus, they argue that POC may provide an important advancement within the EOR literature domain, as no construct exists that explicitly concerns employees’ attribution(s) of the organization’s negative intent towards them.

Interestingly, this may raise the question as to why negative attributions of the organization have not been considered in the literature earlier. We suggest that this may be due to an assumption that employees’ perceived organizational support (POS - Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986) effectively captures both *benevolent* and *malevolent* attributions concerning the organization (e.g. Byrne & Hochwarter, 2008; Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, & Kessler, 2006; Duke, Goodman, Treadway, & Breland, 2009; Hayton, Carnabuci, & Eisenberger, 2012; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson, 2003; Hochwarter, Witt, Treadway, & Ferris, 2006; Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006; Witt, & Carlson, 2006). For example, Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades (2001) posited that POS is “an experience-based attribution concerning the benevolent or malevolent intent of the organization's

policies, norms, procedures, and actions as they affect employees” (p 42). Indeed, the POS construct has received a significant degree of attention within the organizational behavior literature (for a review see: Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmondson, & Hansen, 2009) and is commonly assumed as being an indicator of the quality of the employee’s social exchange relationship with the organization (Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson, 2013; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson & Wayne, 2008; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). However, we argue that upon closer inspection, whilst the POS construct explicitly concerns employees’ attributions of the organization’s benevolence, the literature implicitly assumes that in doing so, POS also captures employees’ attribution of its antithesis (i.e. organizational malevolence - e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2001; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999). This is problematic however, for when we examine the empirical measurement of POS (the survey of perceived organizational support – Eisenberger et al., 1986), arguably attributions of organizational malevolence are not captured. Therefore, we argue that the implicit assumption that low POS equates to an attribution of malevolent intent of the organization towards the employee is essentially spurious, and further, we argue that in order to measure the full spectrum of employees’ attribution of the quality of the EOR (i.e. organizational malevolence through to benevolence), both POS and POC should be evaluated simultaneously.

In this study we utilize and build upon Shore & Coyle-Shapiro’s theoretical construct (2012) with the aim of establishing the conceptual validity of employees’ perception of organizational malevolence (i.e. POC); thereby aiding future research into this phenomenon. For the purposes of this study, building on Shore & Coyle-

Shapiro's work, we parsimoniously define POC as an attribution concerning the organization's malevolent intent towards employees. Indeed, regarding the importance of capturing negative perceptions of the EOR, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue that "employee sense making of harmful treatment as reflecting the EOR, and [subsequent] associated employee responses[,] has important implications for the development, maintenance and dissolution of employment relationships" (p. 163). More broadly, the salience of POC may be highlighted by research that has estimated that in America alone, organizational malpractice (which includes such things as unfair and discriminatory treatment of employees) costs organizations \$64 billion per annum, through the negative impact on recruitment, retention, job performance, organizational reputation, and litigation (Center for American Progress, 2012). Thus, the empirical measurement of POC may provide an invaluable tool in which to identify and understand negative EORs. Further, we consider the convergent and discriminant validity of POC vis-à-vis POS, as well as the criterion validity of POC with regard to theoretically relevant antecedent and outcome variables. Overall, we argue that POC and POS may represent two facets of a broader latent factor representing an individual's overall attribution of their relationship with their employing organization. Thus, more broadly, we argue that by combining POC (i.e. the attribution of organizational malevolence) with POS (i.e. the attribution of organizational benevolence) measures will help to establish a more valid approach for measuring and understanding employees' attribution of the overall quality of the EOR.

5.3 The Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Perceived Organizational Cruelty: Hypothesis Development

5.3.1 Perceived organizational cruelty: a brief overview

As has been highlighted, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) recently introduced the concept of POC, arguing that the organizational behavior literature has by and large ignored negative EORs, and thus, has neglected a phenomenon that may have profound ramifications for both the employee and the organization alike. Broadly influenced by social exchange (Blau, 1964), reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and equity (Adams, 1965) theories, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) proposed their theoretical model, setting out POC's convergent and discriminant nature from other related concepts, as well as setting out a number of tenets concerning the construct.

At its core, they suggest that POC is an employee's perception that the organization possesses a willfully negative intent towards the individual, and that essentially, the organization is fundamentally detrimental within the EOR. This attribution is seen to be formulated when organizational "treatment is perceived as deliberate, unnecessary, and harmful" (p. 141) which in the extreme, manifests itself as an attribution of cruel intent. With regard to the antecedents of POC, they suggest that the attribution may stem from the experience of negative treatment at work which can be attributed to the culture, policies, and procedures of the organization, through to harmful treatment by superiors. Further, organizational culture, values and processes could enable negative treatment of employees either through direct means

(e.g. through draconian disciplinary and dismissal practices, through practices that are exploitative of the employee in nature etc.) or indirect means (e.g. through an organizational culture that turns a “blind eye” to harmful treatment of employees by their superiors etc.). Likewise, harmful treatment by superiors may also be synonymously attributed as harmful treatment by the organization, due to the supervisors’ role as an agent of the organization. Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue that whilst most malevolent treatment emanates directly from individuals within the organization (such as supervisors and other superiors), employees have a tendency to personify the organization (Levinson, 1965), and as such may ‘bundle’ experiences at work to form an anthropomorphized view of the organization. Thus, malevolent treatment by other individuals within the organization, may also be attributed to the organization overall, such that it is perceived to be either the will of, condoned by, and/or tolerated by the organization.

With regard to attributional processes stimulated by experiencing negative treatment, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) suggest that needs for fairness and equity act as a psychological mechanism; acting between the experience of such treatment, and, an overall attribution regarding the malevolence of the organization (i.e. POC). As such, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) imply that employees engage in a rational and normative evaluation of the exchange relationship between the organization and the employee; in that when treatment is deemed as being unfair, and contrary to what would normatively be expected, employees are likely to form negative attributions regarding the treatment. However, an attribution process that concludes that the negative treatment was unintentional, forced upon the organization, and/or fair given the employee’s treatment towards the organization, is likely to mitigate the strength of negativity attributed to such treatment.

In support of Shore & Coyle-Shapiro's (2012) propositions, research suggests that individuals may be highly sensitized as to the malevolent (*vis-à-vis* the benevolent) nature of others, as there is an inherent risk that the individual could experience harm when within a group (e.g. Marr, Thau, Aquino, & Barclay, 2012). Further, consistent with Shore & Coyle-Shapiro's (2012) assertion that POC stems from harmful treatment, Miller (2001) argues that such treatment is likely to be directly attributed to a willful malevolent intent (and further, that this may even extend to harm that was unintentional yet could have been foreseeably avoided). Similarly, Kramer (1994, 1995) found evidence to suggest that individuals were prone to what he termed the "sinister attribution error", which refers to an individual's bias towards attributions of intentionality following the experience of harmful treatment; indeed he found evidence to suggest that following the experience of harmful treatment, individuals were much more likely to form attributions of intentional malevolence with regard to the harm-doer, even when there were other plausible non-malevolent motives.

Finally, regarding the outcomes of POC, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) proposed that POC will essentially have a deleterious effect on employees' physical and psychological well-being, with POC representing a state whereby the individual is denied socio-emotional benefits of group belonging, whilst heightening stress and anxiety. With regard to behaviors directed at the organization in response to negative organizational treatment, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) suggest employees may take one of two courses: either to succumb to a state of passivity/helplessness, or, to proactively seek revenge. In the former, due to the organization's position of greater power within the relationship (for example, the organization has the ability to impose significant sanctions on the employee such as the threat and/or actual termination of

employment, which subsequently may have significant negative ramifications relating to the individual's career and financial prospects), an individual may engage in behavior designed to deflect future negative treatment (e.g. ingratiation/fawning towards superiors, or engaging in similar negative behavior in order to seek group acceptance/belonging). Alternatively, motivated by needs for fairness and equity (Adams, 1965; Gouldner, 1960), employees who possess POC may engage in retaliatory behaviors designed to bring balance within the EOR (such as through theft, absenteeism etc.).

5.3.2 The theoretical and empirical dimensionality of POC vis-à-vis POS

Traditionally, a construct that has been utilized in order to capture an employee's assessment of the *benevolence* of the organization, and thus, the quality of the social exchange relationship, is that of POS (Colquitt et al., 2013; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac et al., 2008; Masterson et al, 2000). Contrasting POC and POS, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) note that POC "can be considered a mirror opposite of perceived organizational support in the sense that the organization is viewed as malevolent rather than benevolent, and some of the favorable experiences that contribute to POS (e.g., fair treatment, supervisor support, and investment [in the individual] by the organization [...]) could in a *negative* form contribute to POC" (p. 142). Essentially, in comparison of both constructs, POC and POS can be seen to entail a) an employee's attribution of the organization's orientation, or intent (i.e. malevolent as opposed to benevolent) towards the individual, b) the personified organization as the target of the attribution, c) the organization's greater power to affect the EOR, d) the employee's need for fairness

and balance within the exchange relationship with the organization, e) the employee's need to fulfill fundamental socio-emotional needs, and f) that the receipt of such malevolent/benevolent treatment from the organization leads to likewise negative/positive attitudinal and behavioral outcomes from the employee. In sum, both POC and POS constructs are grounded in social exchange, equity/fairness, and socio-emotional needs accounts, therefore utilizing the same theoretical 'lens' in which to understand the nature of the EOR. Further, both constructs look to understand employees' attributions of the organization, and specifically how treatment at work can influence these attributions, as well as considering the attitudinal and behavioral outcomes that result from such attributions. Finally, POC and POS hold that employees tend to personify the organization, such that experiences at work may be psychologically amalgamated, resulting in the employee viewing the relationship with the organization as similar to one with a more powerful person (e.g. Shore & Shore, 1995); thus, both constructs focus on the same actors (i.e. the organization vis-à-vis the employee).

However, whilst we argue that POC and POS share important theoretical parallels, at their crux they concern two very distinct social, experiential and attributional phenomena. Indeed, malevolence and benevolence can be seen as both the logical and lexical antitheses of each other, whilst initial reasoning would suggest that an individual's perceptions of either, would have significantly different (i.e. positive versus negative) antecedents, and, attitudinal and behavioral outcomes compared to the other. Therefore, despite the clear conceptual similarities between POS and POC, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) hold that POC possesses important differences to that of the POS construct, and as such, infer the discriminant nature

between the two such that they should be considered as distinct theoretical/conceptual domains.

This leads us to question as to why perceptions of organizational malevolence have, as yet, received limited attention within the literature (especially given the extensive literature that considers malevolent behaviors at the supervisory/leadership level, e.g. Neider & Schriesheim, 2010; Schyns & Hansbrough, 2010). We suggest that this may be due to the assumption that the POS construct accurately captures perceptions of organizational malevolence, with confusion stemming from earlier literatures that have posited that POS captures an employee's attribution of organizational malevolence, as well as benevolence (e.g. Eisenberger et al, 2001; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Lynch et al, 1999; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). For example, Lynch et al. (1999) argued that POS “may be used by employees as an indicator of the organization's benevolent or malevolent intent in the expression of exchange of employee effort for reward and recognition” (pp. 469–470). However, we argue that a closer examination of the survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) reveals that reverse-scored (i.e. negative) statements reflect a *lack of* support from the organization (e.g. “the organization shows very little concern for me”), and as such represent a *neutral* and/or *passive* act on the part of the organization. Therefore, we argue that there is an important caveat in the use of POS as a measure of the *overall* quality of the EOR, in that the implicit assumption that low POS equates to an attribution of the malevolent intent of the organization towards the employee, may essentially be spurious.

To clarify further, the survey of perceived organizational support empirically captures an attribution that the organization has a *positive* intent towards the employee (formulated with regard to notions of caring, value and regard), and thus importantly, lower POS essentially captures an employee's attribution regarding the *lack of* a positive intent of the organization towards the employee (i.e. a lack of caring, value and regard). We highlight this as an important boundary condition regarding the frame of reference of POS, in that lower POS may essentially represent an employee's attribution of the organization's *neutral* or *passive* act of not bestowing positive treatment associated with caring, value and regard. Importantly however, it does not specifically capture an attribution that the organization operates with a *proactive negative intent* towards the employee. In other words, it may be erroneous to assume that a perceived lack of benevolence (i.e. low POS) necessarily relates to the existence of the antithesis (c.f. Dalal, 2005), and thus we argue that low POS does not necessarily equate to an attribution that the organization possesses a negative, malevolent intent towards the individual. Indeed, as Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue, malevolence is essentially a proactive attempt to harm; thus, a statement that would reflect malevolence could be, for example: “[the organization] tries to reduce my well-being”. Indeed, arguably only one item within the full 36 item survey of perceived organizational support captures proactive negative intent (“*If given the opportunity, [the organization] would take advantage of me*”), however, this item is not included in the more commonly used shortened eight item measure (c.f. Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002). Supporting this argument, scholars who have recently explored the dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) vis-à-vis counter-productive work behavior (CWB), have shown that imprecise specificity within measure items (such as the assumption that the lack of a positive phenomenon infers

the presence of the antithesis) may inflate (or deflate) statistical relationships between constructs, and can thus, lead to significant measurement error (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010). (For a pictorial interpretation of POC vis-à-vis POS see figure 5.1).

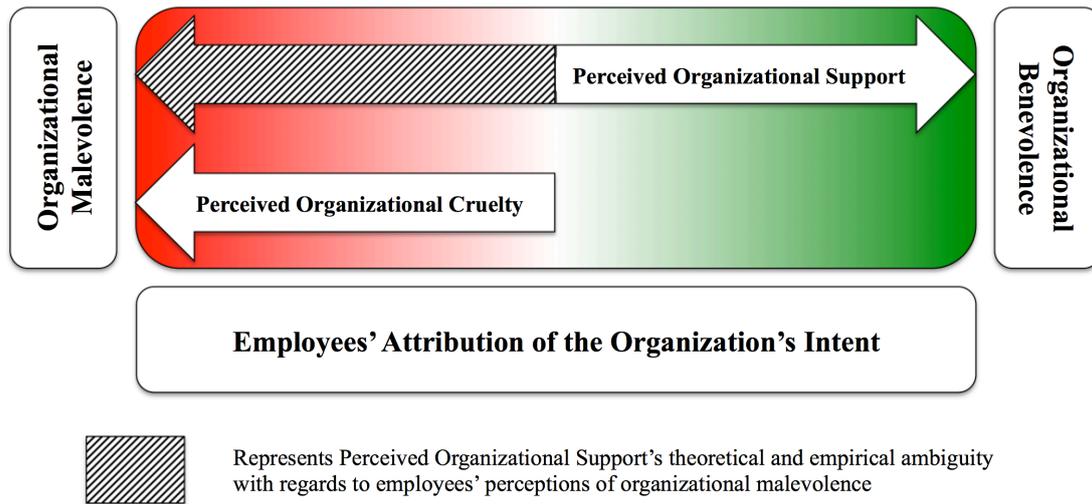


Figure 5.1: A pictorial interpretation of POC vis-à-vis POS

5.4 The Discriminant Validity of POC Vis-À-Vis POS

As has been highlighted thus far, there is strong evidence to suggest that POC may represent the theoretical antithesis, of POS. As such, we argue that both constructs may exist within a broad higher-order construct regarding the employee's overall/global evaluation of the organization's orientation towards the employee(s), with POS capturing an attribution of benevolence (i.e. positive intent), whilst POC captures an attribution of malevolence (i.e. negative intent). Therefore, we argue that POC will be negatively related to POS, and that empirical evidence to support this

hypothesis will help to establish the discriminant validity of POC vis-à-vis POS (c.f. Hinkin, 1998).

Hypothesis 1: POC will be negatively related to POS.

However, we note an important caveat regarding this hypothesis. Recent research concerning phenomena such as positive and negative affect (e.g. Cacioppo, & Berntson, 1994; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001), OCBs and CWBs (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Spector et al, 2010; Spector & Fox, 2010a; Venkataramani & Dalal, 2007), and trust and distrust (e.g. Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998; Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006) has shown that individuals can, and do, engage in both positive and negative attitudes and behaviors simultaneously. Indeed, this paradox has been the focus of much debate within the respective literatures, raising the question as to the discriminant and dimensional nature of such constructs. Concerning why individuals may engage in both positive and negative attitudes and behaviors simultaneously, most scholars appear to agree that the nature of work (per se) is both complex and multifaceted (e.g. Lewicki et al., 1998), meaning that employees are subject to innumerable experiences that may be categorized as positive, negative, or even a combination of both; thus employees are seen to engage in both positive and negative attitudes and behaviors as a process of adaptive response (e.g. Hulin, 1991). Ultimately, this suggests that employees may experience *ambivalence*, which is characterized by the simultaneous experience of both positive and negative attitudes towards a single target (e.g. Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997; Lewicki et al, 1998; Piderit, 2000; Priester & Petty, 1996; Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995); further, research suggests that ambivalence is both a natural and commonplace

psychological phenomenon experienced by individuals (Thompson et al, 1995), as well as there being evidence that employees can possess ambivalent attitudes regarding their employing organization (e.g. Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004). As such, whilst we suggest that POC and POS can, from a theoretical perspective, be seen as the antithesis of the other, we anticipate that, empirically, this relationship is unlikely to be strongly negative (i.e. approaching -1.00). This expectation is based on the fact that employees are likely to experience both organizational benevolence and malevolence, to varying degrees, and thus, employees may experience a certain degree of ambivalence concerning the organization's treatment.

5.5 The Criterion Validity of Perceived

Organizational Cruelty: Hypothesis Development

Whilst evidence to suggest that POC is negatively related to POS would in itself lend weight to the validity of the construct (i.e. as a measure of employees' attribution of organizational malevolence), evidence that POC relates to relevant theoretical antecedents and outcomes (i.e. criterion validity) would provide yet further validation. This is considered below.

5.5.1 The criterion validity of POC: antecedents

In considering the antecedents of POC, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) highlight numerous examples of negative organizational treatment, ranging from abusive supervisory treatment, through to an organization's overall culture that is

essentially harmful to its employees. Essentially, attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelly, 1973; Martinko, 1995; Weiner, 1986, 2011) suggests that from a *cognitive* perspective, the experience of such negative treatment would force individuals to ascertain (i.e. attribute) the causes and intent behind such treatment. As such, a sense-making process (Weick, 1995) is utilized in order to ascertain whether the treatment was *fair*, given normative expectations and situational/contextual factors (e.g. Adams, 1965; Crosby, 1976; Gouldner, 1960). Therefore, we argue that the experience of negative organizational treatment will directly relate to an employee's overall notion of *organizational justice*.

5.5.1.1 Organizational justice

Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue that a fundamental principle that delineates positive and negative EORs is whether there is balance in the exchange relationship, and as such they imply that POC primarily stems from a notion that the individual has been inequitably, or unfairly, treated by the organization. Indeed, in considering the EOR literature, Shore, Tetrick, Coyle-Shapiro, & Taylor (2004) suggest that fair treatment may represent a 'critical element' within EOR's. Utilizing social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), Adams (1965) proposed that individuals' perceptions of equity and balance (and thus also, inequity and imbalance) are formulated through a cognitive evaluation of the employee's inputs towards the organization vis-à-vis the outcomes the employee receives from the organization in return. Importantly, inequity at the expense of the employee is seen to have a negative effect on the individual, such that it causes *distress*; and that the greater the inequity, the greater the distress the individual will experience (Hatfield & Sprecher, 1983).

Indeed, equity theory has proven highly influential (Miner, 2003) and is seen to underpin much of the theoretical reasoning within the organizational justice literature (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001). Organizational justice is of direct relevance, as whilst Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) highlight numerous examples of negative organizational treatment (e.g. psychological contract breach and violation, underinvestment and quasi-spot contracts, abusive supervision etc.), we argue that the experience of such negative organizational treatment will manifest itself in a global (i.e. overall) notion of *injustice* within the EOR exchange dynamic (such that the negative treatment is seen as being intentional and there being no mitigating circumstances). Indeed, more broadly, the literature suggests that the experience of harmful treatment is likely to attribute the harm-doer as being intentionally malevolent (e.g. Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, Kim, & Chun, 2008; Kramer, 1994, 1995; Miller, 2001), and that an attribution that harm was undeserved is likely to directly relate to a notion of injustice (e.g. Seabright & Schminke, 2002; Tripp & Bies, 1997, 2010).

Whilst the organizational justice literature can be seen to purport the existence of four distinct types of organizational justice (i.e. distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational – c.f. Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001), more recently, Ambrose and her colleagues (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005; Ambrose & Schminke, 2009) both argued, and found evidence to suggest, that employees amalgamate these four distinct justice types into a global perception regarding the overall level of organizational justice. As such, a global perception of organizational justice may most accurately/effectively represent employees' overall experience of organizational treatment (per se), with low levels of organizational justice representing inequity and imbalance within the EOR at the

expense of the employee. In sum, we argue that POC is influenced by a rational evaluation (i.e. attribution) of the fairness of the EOR dynamic, and as such, perceptions of organizational *injustice* should predict perceptions of organizational malevolence. Or in other words, POC should manifest itself as and when employees believe that they have been unfairly treated.

Hypothesis 2: Perceptions of overall organizational justice will be negatively related to POC.

5.5.2 The criterion validity of POC: behavioral and attitudinal outcomes

Whilst Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) suggest that with POC employees may engage in passive and/or fawning behaviors designed to avert further/future negative organizational treatment, primarily they infer that employees are primarily motivated to ensure that there is fairness within EOR, and thus, are motivated to restore balance within the exchange relationship. Fundamentally, we argue that the employee may readdress balance by one of two methods: a) by withholding behaviors that benefit the organization which are conceptualized as organizational citizenship behaviors aimed at the organization (OCB-Os), and/or b) by proactively engaging in behaviors that are specifically targeted to harm the organization, which are conceptualized as counterproductive work behaviors (CWB-Os). Further, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) argue that POC is likely to have a deleterious effect on employees' psychological, and overall, wellbeing. Essentially, this may be due to the fact that negative organizational treatment thwarts socio-emotional needs relating to the need

for a positive self-concept, as well as the need for belongingness. Therefore, we also argue that POC will be positively related to withdrawal from the organization.

5.5.2.1 Organizational citizenship behavior

Organizational citizenship behaviors have received a considerable degree of interest from organizational behavior scholars over the past three decades (c.f. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009). Organ (1988) defined OCB as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (p. 4), and more recently, further proposed that it is behavior that contributes “to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance” (Organ, 1997, p. 91).

Organizational citizenship behaviors have been conceptualized as containing one or more of the following elements: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988) and additionally peacekeeping and cheerleading (Organ, 1990); that overall, enhances and facilitates organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Fundamentally, OCBs can be seen as behavior that goes over and beyond explicit and specified (i.e. contractual) expectations of job performance, and is engaged in by the employee with the express intent of benefiting the organization (c.f. Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch & Hulin, 2009).

Although there is some contention (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, Kessler, & Purcell, 2004; Spector & Fox, 2010a), OCBs can be seen as the result of the employee’s motivation to engage within, and/or to reciprocate, a social exchange relationship.

This may be supported by the findings that employees' perception of fairness (which is seen as an antecedent of social exchange) is positively related to OCBs (Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2006). Further, Kaufman, Stamper, & Tesluk (2001) found stronger links between POS and OCB-Os (OCBs directed at the organization) than between POS and OCB-Is (OCBs directed at other individuals), which suggests that employees actively target reciprocal behaviors. However, in the context of POC, a central tenet of the construct is that employees seek balance within the exchange relationship; thus, due to an overall lack of positive treatment from the organization (i.e. POC), the construct suggests that the employee will refrain from engaging in OCB-O.

Hypothesis 3: POC will be negatively related to OCB-O.

5.5.2.2 Counterproductive work behavior

Whereas OCBs are seen to benefit the organization, CWB can be defined as “intentional employee behavior that is harmful to the legitimate interests of an organization” (Dalal, 2005, p. 1241). Recently, Spector & Fox (2010a) proposed that CWB can be seen as an umbrella term that broadly encompasses behaviors by employees that are *harmful*; they include aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998; O'Leary- Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996), deviance (Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett, 2004; Hollinger, 1986; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and revenge (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). As such, CWB shares distinct parallels/similarities with the construct of deviance within the workplace (e.g. Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). For example, Bennett & Robinson (2000) noted that “deviance has been defined as

voluntary behavior that violates significant norms and, in so doing, threatens the well-being of the organization or its members, or both” (p. 349). Similar to OCBs, CWBs have also been suggested as being distinct in terms of their target, either being targeted towards the organization (CWB-O) or towards other individuals (CWB-I – Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

Therefore, following negative organizational treatment, POC suggests that employee’s will engage in CWB-O in order to seek balance within the EOR (c.f. Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), which may be best explained by the norm of negative reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and/or the common folk belief of “an eye for an eye”.

Hypothesis 4: POC will be positively related to CWB-O.

In sum, employees are seen to desire balance within the EOR (e.g. Shore & Shore, 1995); hence, when an employee perceives that there is imbalance within the exchange (to the detriment of the employee), and/or perceives that the EOR is characterized by negative treatment, the individual may look to restore balance, brought about via the norm of negative reciprocity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger et al, 2004; Gouldner, 1960) and the need to restore equity within the exchange relationship (Adams, 1965). Theory suggests that the level to which the employee engages in rebalancing the exchange dynamic/negative reciprocity is likely to be dependent on the degree of imbalance the individual perceives. Therefore, a minor imbalance may result in individuals withholding citizenship behaviors such that the employee does not aid or further the development of the organization (e.g. not working any longer than necessary, failing to promote the organization etc.).

However, a more extreme imbalance (as represented by greater POC) may result in the employee engaging in behaviors with the specific intent to *harm* the organization through counterproductive (i.e. deviant) behaviors. In this instance, negative reciprocity can conceptually be seen as to the act of *revenge* (e.g. Bordia, Restubog, & Tang, 2008).

5.5.2.3 *Withdrawal*

Whereas POS is seen to foster commitment towards the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), logically, the polar opposite of this is likely to come in the form of the actual termination of the EOR (i.e. quitting one's job). However, as Burris, Detert & Chiaburu (2008) noted, "employees often psychologically detach, or mentally begin the process of quitting, long before they physically exit" (p. 913), with psychological detachment being defined as an "individual's sense of being away from the work situation" (Etzion, Eden, & Lapidot, 1998, p. 579). Employees who are psychologically detached from the organization may become "physically uninvolved in tasks, cognitively unvigilant, and emotionally disconnected from others in ways that hide what they think and feel, their creativity, their beliefs and values, and their personal connections with others" (Kahn, 1990, p. 702).

Perceived organizational cruelty theory suggests that employees who perceive that the organization possesses malevolent intent towards them are unlikely to have their socio-emotional needs met, or worse, suffer a physical and psychological threat to the self. In such circumstances, employees are likely to engage in attitudes and behaviors designed to distance themselves from the organization, and as such are

likely to have increased intention to quit the organization. Further, the act of quitting may be perceived as a means by which to gain revenge on the organization, thus restoring balance and equity. Indeed, high turnover rates are seen as adding significant costs to organizations, in the form of increased recruitment costs and a reduction in overall performance (c.f. Koys, 2001; Park & Shaw, 2013).

Hypothesis 5: POC will be positively related to intention to quit.

5.5.2.4 Organization-based self-esteem

Finally, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) posited that POC is likely to have a negative effect on employees' health and well-being; for example, they argue that:

“being in a relationship with an organization that is destructive and demeaning is likely to invoke perceptions of relational devaluation, unfairness and is also likely to thwart an individual's basic needs. The violation of justice norms and needs of self-esteem, belonging, control and meaningful existence as a result of organizational cruelty may explain the resultant effects on employee health and well being” (p. 155).

In sum, they suggest that organizational cruelty could have a direct deleterious impact on employees' health by denying the fulfillment of employees' socio-emotional needs, and/or actively reducing employees' socio-emotional resources.

A construct that is seen as core to an individual's psychological health and well-being is that of self-esteem. With regards to self-esteem within the work context, organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) was a term first coined by Pierce et al. (1989)

to “define the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant and worthy as an organizational member” (Pierce & Gardner, 2004, p. 593). Core to OBSE theory is the tenet that an individual’s self-esteem can be shaped through experiences at work and within an organizational context, with Pierce & Gardner (2004) noting that “OBSE is, in part, a social construction, shaped and molded according to the messages about the self transmitted by role models, teachers, mentors, and those who evaluate an individual’s work” (p. 594). As such, Pierce & Gardner (2004) posited that the quality of social relationships in their own right affect OBSE as they inherently imply the individual’s worth as defined by others. Importantly, OBSE theory is implicit that self-esteem may have differential facets such that it represents notions of self-worth stemming from external cues from the social environment (i.e. a more surface-level notion of self-worth), as well as more innate, trait-like evaluations of self-worth (i.e. a deeper-level notion of self-worth stemming from a more generalized perspective). Given the more extreme nature of organizational cruelty, it would reason that POC could indeed go beyond surface level appraisals of self-worth at work, to affect a deeper level of the individual’s self-concept. In other words, organizational cruelty may have the power to influence not just how an individual feels their worth is perceived by others, but also how the individual perceives themselves as a person. Indeed, it is at this deeper level that psychological well-being is seen to reside (e.g. Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & Rosenberg, 1995).

Hypothesis 6: POC will be negatively related to OBSE.

5.5.2.5 POC as a mediator between antecedents and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes

In considering the criterion validity of the construct it has been argued that perceptions of fairness, balance and justice (i.e. organizational justice) are antecedent of notions of organizational cruelty (i.e. POC), and further, that POC is likely to be positively related to intentions to quit and CWB-O, whilst in turn likely being negatively related to OCB-O and OBSE. As such, this implicitly suggests that POC may act as a mediator between the antecedent and outcome variables. Indeed, the organizational justice literature has demonstrated empirical relationships between notions of justice and OCB-O (e.g. Podsakoff et al, 2009) and OBSE (e.g. McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Pierce & Gardner, 2004), and negative relationships between justice and intention to quit (e.g. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000) and CWB (e.g. Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Dalal, 2005). As such, evidence that POC mediates these relationships may further substantiate POC as psychological mechanism that operates between notions of organizational justice/injustice and the aforementioned outcome variables (indeed, POS has been found to operate as a mediator between some of these outcome variables, e.g. OCB - Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998; and intentions to quit - Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006)

Hypothesis 7: POC will mediate the relationship between organizational justice and a) OCB-O, b) CWB-O, c) intention to quit, and d) OBSE, when the effects of POS are controlled for.

5.6 Study 1: Method

5.6.1 Participants and procedure

Employees from a large UK public sector hospital were invited to participate in a longitudinal online survey via an email to their work email accounts. The invitation email emphasized that participation was entirely voluntary, strictly confidential, and anonymously collated. Each individual was provided with a unique identifier code so that responses could be matched between time 1 and time 2 (five months later). Out of the 3340 hospital employees, 480 responded to the survey in time 1 (14.4% response rate), and of these 161 filled out the second survey five months later (time 2). Out of the 161 respondents, 71.2% were female, 28.8% were male; 79.3% were ethnically white British, white Irish, or white from another background, 6.5% were Asian (i.e. India, Pakistan etc.), 7.4% were Black, 1.8% were Mixed Origin, whilst the remaining 6.4% classed themselves as “Other”; the mean age was 49.7 years (s.d. 9.8 years); organizational tenure was on average 6.6 years (s.d. 6.4 years); 96% were full-time employees; 37.1% held managerial and/or clerical roles, 28.8% were either nurses or midwives, 11.2% were allied health professionals (e.g. physiotherapists, radiographers, dieticians etc.), 10.6% were scientific and technical professionals (e.g. pharmacists, psychologists, therapists etc.), 7.1% were medical doctors or surgeons, and the remaining 5.2% included other roles such as laboratory workers etc.

5.6.2 Measures

5.6.2.1 *Organizational justice*

In order to assess overall organizational justice we used the six-item measure developed by Ambrose and Schminke (2009), composed of general statements concerning justice in the organization (measured at time 1). The items used a seven point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Sample items include “Overall, I am treated fairly by [name of organization]” and “Usually, the way things work at [name of organization] are not fair (R)”. Cronbach’s alpha was .89.

5.6.2.2 *Perceived organizational support*

To measure POS we used the shortened survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) which uses eight of the highest loading items from the original 36 item measure (measured at time 1). The items used a seven point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. This measure included items such as “[name of organization] values my contribution to its well-being” and “[name of organization] would ignore any complaint from me (R)”. Cronbach’s alpha was .91.

5.6.2.3 *Perceived organizational cruelty*

In order to create a reliable and valid measure for POC, we first considered whether a new, or an adapted, measure would most usefully and accurately capture the theoretical construct. Hinkin (1998) argued that scale development should be predicated by the specification of the domain of the construct, and further, should

ensure that the items/scale are able to empirically measure that domain. To recap, whilst Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) suggest that POC is a distinct theoretical construct from POS, such that POC (POS) considers negative (positive) organizational treatment, attributions concerning the experience of such negative (positive) treatment, and subsequent negative (positive) attitudinal and behavioral outcomes; we argue that at their absolute core, theory holds that the actual attribution of POC per se concerns *organizational malevolence*, whilst the attribution of POS concerns *organizational benevolence*. As such, from a theoretical and lexical perspective, malevolence and benevolence represent the antithesis of one another. Further, whilst POC is theoretically negatively orientated, and POS is theoretically positively orientated, we argue that by utilizing both constructs may usefully consider the broader/higher-order latent construct of employees' attribution of the organization's *general orientation/intent* towards them.

With these core tenets in mind, we elected to adapt the current survey of perceived organizational support in order to account for POC. Indeed, we argue that there are strong theoretical and empirical grounds to support this approach. For example, a number of scholars have called for parsimony and restraint with regards to the development of new measures (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011; DeRue, Ashford, & Myers, 2012; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, 2012; Suddaby, 2010); predominantly, this is in order to avoid the 'jingle jangle fallacy' in which a certain term may possess multiple conceptual meanings (jingle), and/or different terms may be applied to the same phenomenon (jangle) (e.g. Block, 1995, 2000; Kelley, 1927). Indeed, Block (1995) argued that such fallacies "waste scientific time" and "work to prevent the recognition of correspondences that could help build cumulative knowledge" (p. 210). Similarly Suddaby (2010) argued that

“when researchers use different terms for similar phenomena, it produces confusion—“confounding effects”—that impede the ability of members of a research community to communicate with each other or to accumulate knowledge” (pp. 352-353), thus ultimately resulting in a ‘Tower of Babel’ effect.

Given this, we propose that an adaption of the current survey of perceived organizational support to represent employees’ perceptions of organizational malevolence may most usefully and accurately capture the phenomenon of POC, as well as building on, and extending, extant theory and empirics (i.e. the POS construct). Arguably, the survey of perceived organizational support has proven to be a highly reliable and valid measure considering the relationship between employees’ attribution of the benevolent organization (i.e. POS) with it’s conceptual antecedents and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (c.f. Kurtessis et al., 2015; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle et al, 2009; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). As such, by adapting the survey of perceived organizational support to reflect POC, this research aims to extend the measure in order to accurately account for perceived organizational malevolence, and in doing so retaining the methodological robustness housed within the POS measure, as well as extending prior research in the domain (indeed, with a similar aim, other scholars have adapted items from the survey of perceived organizational support in order to capture differing yet related constructs to POS – e.g. perceived follower support, Eisenberger, Restubog, Wang, Mesdaghinia, Wu, Yong Kim, & Wickham, 2014). As such this aids conceptual clarity (Schwab, 1980) as well as enabling the effective contrast and comparison between the POC and POS constructs (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). More broadly, in doing so, we argue that this will help to provide a robust approach to assessing employees’ *overall* perception of the quality of the EOR (i.e. from benevolence through to malevolence), and avoiding

convergent and discriminate validity issues (i.e. the jingle jangle fallacy - Block, 1995, 2000; Kelley, 1927) which may arise through the creation of a unique scale.

Specifically, in order to capture employees' attribution of the malevolent organization, we adapted relevant items from the preexisting eight item shortened survey of perceived organizational support measure. Of the eight items, four are positively coded, whilst the other four are reverse coded (i.e. inferring the lack of organizational benevolence). As such, we adapted the four positively coded items to represent the lexical/antithetical opposite, thus inferring the organization's malevolence.

We chose the shortened eight item measure survey of perceived organizational support, over the 16 and 32 item measure, for a number of reasons. Firstly, the eight item measure has demonstrated robust psychometric properties, with items demonstrating the highest reliability compared to other items within the 16 and 36 item measure (see Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002 for a review).

Secondly, we argue that all eight items of the shortened measure tap into employees' *general* notion of organizational benevolence (e.g. the overall extent the organization cares for the employee etc.), whereas many/most of the items in the 16 and 32 item measure are more *specific* in nature (e.g. concerning organizational compassion in the event of the employee's absence, opportunities for promotion, rationale for salary increases etc.). Utilizing Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller's (2010) recent recommendations concerning general versus specific measurement within organizational behavior research, we argue that both POC and POS are essentially general constructs (i.e. POC and POS concerns an overall notion of the extent the

organization is malevolent/benevolent towards the employee(s), rather than the extent to which an employee has received training, or a salary increase for example; indeed, the POS literature has long held that POS is a generalized construct, e.g. Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger et al, 2001), and therefore, generalized measurement may most accurately capture the conceptual phenomenon of interest (c.f. Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2010). In other words, whilst *actual* harmful organizational treatment may take many specific forms (bullying, dangerous working conditions, underpayment etc.), we argue that, much like POS, POC manifests itself as a generalized attribution of organizational malevolence. Indeed, research has shown that there may be distinct limitations with regard to the use of specific measures, as they may have limited predictive validity when considering broader themes (c.f. Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001), whereas generalized perceptions act as a more proximal influence on outcomes (e.g. Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Shapiro, 2001). Indeed, this reasoning may arguably offer a convincing explanation as to why the shortened (i.e. generalized) eight item measure of perceived organizational support consistently demonstrates the highest reliability loadings in comparison to the remainder items (which are often specific in nature) within the 16 and 32 item measure.

Thirdly, a cursory review of the literature suggests that the eight item measure has been predominantly used by scholars in more recent years. For example, between 2007 and 2012, within the Academy of Management Journal, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Management, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, and Personnel Psychology journals, of the 27 studies that utilized the survey of perceived organizational support,

only two used the 16 item measure, whilst none used the full 36 item measure. Thus, by utilizing the eight item measure, we are consistent with the overriding consensus within the domain, and thus, contribute research with similar scope and coherence to current research (e.g. Suddaby, 2010).

Finally, scholars have both argued and found evidence to suggest that lengthy measures/questionnaires risk an increase in careless responding (e.g. Breugh & Colihan, 1994; Meade & Craig, 2012).

In sum, in order to adhere to the call for greater emphasis on building and extending existing knowledge, and thus the need for greater parsimony/restraint in the development of new (unique) measures (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011), as well as to remain consistent within the boundaries of, and with specific focus towards, perceptions of organizational malevolence vis-à-vis benevolence (c.f. Suddaby, 2010), we elected to adapt the eight item survey of perceived organizational support measure. We argue that, whilst theoretically POC and POS constructs consider specific acts of organizational malevolence and benevolence respectively (e.g. attitudes in relation to pay, promotion, time off work, work conditions etc.), this is at the periphery to an overall and generalized attribution of organizational malevolent/benevolent intent. Indeed, we argue, it is with the eight item survey of perceived organizational support measure that captures a general attribution of benevolence, and thus, the adaptation of this scale best fits our aim of capturing a general attribution of malevolence.

Our measure included the following items: “[name of organization] tries to reduce my well-being”, “[name of organization] is dismissive of my accomplishments

at work”, “[name of organization] wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work”, “[name of organization] is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being”. POC was measured at time 1. Cronbach’s alpha was .92.

5.6.2.4 Organizational citizenship behaviors (towards the organization)

Organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization were measured with the eight items presented by Lee and Allen (2002), which were developed from a pool of items developed in previous research. The items used a five point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “very often”. It included items such as “How often do you attend functions that are not required but that help [name of organization]’s image” and “How often do you keep up with developments at [name of organization]”. OCB-O was measured at time 2. Cronbach’s alpha was .90.

5.6.2.5 Counterproductive work behavior (towards the organization)

CWB-O was measured at time 2 using the 12-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000). The items used a seven point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “daily”. Post data collection, an initial analysis of the spread and distribution of responses revealed that out of the 12 items, only 4 items demonstrated any meaningful variance, and hence were used to test the model fit and the hypotheses. These items were: “Spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working” “Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable”, “Neglected to follow your manager's instructions”, and “Put little effort into your work”. Arguably, these items represent, and are consistent with, the less extreme forms of CWB-O captured in the full scale. Cronbach’s alpha was .72

5.6.2.6 *Intention to quit*

Intention to quit was assessed with two items that focused on contemplating and planning to leave the organization developed by Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings (1989). The items used a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. These items were “I often think about quitting” and “I will probably look for a new job in the next year”. Intention to quit was measured at time 2. Cronbach’s alpha was .84.

5.6.2.7 *Organization-based self-esteem*

Organization-based self-esteem was measured using the last three items of Pierce et al.’s (1989) ten item OBSE measure. The last three items were chosen due to the fact that they capture evaluations of self-worth (within the context of the work environment) stemming from an internal self-appraisal of worth (conversely, the first seven items of the scale capture an evaluation of self-worth stemming from external evaluative cues from the work environment). Essentially we wished to test the effect POC has on an individual’s internal psychological well-being vis-à-vis the work environment. The items used a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. The items were: “I am helpful around here”, “I am efficient around here” and “I am cooperative around here”. OBSE was measured at time 2. Cronbach’s alpha was .80.

5.7 Study 1: Analysis and Results

5.7.1 Construct validity

Core to this study is the assertion that, whilst being related, POC is distinct from POS; as such, it is important that we ascertain the discriminant validity of POC vis-à-vis POS. In order to test this, the set of sample data from time 1 (n=470) was randomly split in half, with one half subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal-factors extraction with oblique rotation, and the remaining half subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation (see Table 5.1). The results from the EFA suggested a two-factor solution, with POC items and POS items loading onto different factors as anticipated (POC loadings ranged between .63 and .98, whilst POS loadings ranged between .65 and .89). Although one POC item (“[Organization] is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being”) did cross-load slightly on the POS factor (at .30), at .63 its loading on the POC factor was significantly greater; thus, the item was retained. Further, with an overall correlation of -.63, the POC and POS factors were found to be sufficiently distinct from one another. Overall, the two factors combined accounted for 68.7% of the total variance (POS factor = 58.9%; POC factor = 9.8%).

The other half of the dataset was subjected to a CFA in which two models were tested, one in which POC and POS were treated as a single factor, and another in which they were treated as two separate factors. Firstly, the data were fitted as a one-factor model in which all 12 items loaded on a single latent variable. The results of this model demonstrated a poor fit to the data ($\chi^2(54) = 574.24$; CFI = .78; Tucker-Lewis Index = .73; RMSEA = .20; SRMR = .08), suggesting that the items did not

reflect a single overall factor. Secondly, the data were fitted as a two-factor model in which the eight POS items were loaded onto one factor, whilst the four POC items were loaded onto a second factor. The results of this model demonstrated a significantly better fit to the data ($\chi^2(53) = 329.66$; CFI = .88; Tucker-Lewis Index = .85; RMSEA = .15; SRMR = .06). It should be noted that this second model falls somewhat short of what could be considered a “good fit”, but equally certain scholars have argued that fit indices should not be allowed to drive research at the expense of theoretically driven empirics, and that over-prioritizing goodness of fit at the expense of theoretically driven empirics could negatively impact scientific research through increasing Type 1 error (e.g. Barrett, 2007; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004).

Table 5.1: Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) loadings for POC items

Item	Factor Analysis Loadings	
	EFA	CFA
<i>[Organization]</i> is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being	.63	.82
<i>[Organization]</i> tries to reduce my well-being	.98	.86
<i>[Organization]</i> wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work	.96	.86
<i>[Organization]</i> is dismissive of my accomplishments at work	.71	.92

To further ascertain the distinctive validity of the measures, the Fornell and Larcker (1981) test of discriminant validity was conducted on POC and POS. Essentially, this test requires that the average variance extracted from the items within

each scale exceed the squares of the correlations between the other constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Specifically, this test found that with a squared correlation of .59, both POC and POS were sufficiently distinct with averages of .75 and .61 respectively. Thus, the results of this test, as well as the EFA and CFA, suggest that, as theorized, POC and POS are closely related but can at the same time be seen to be sufficiently distinct.

To examine convergent validity, we examined whether the pattern of correlations between our POC measure and the other variables in our model (i.e. POS, organizational justice, OCB-O, CWB-O, turnover intentions, and OBSE) followed our theoretical reasoning. Table 5.2 displays the zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics for all the variables included in study 1. The correlation matrix and reliabilities were calculated using the sample of employees that answered at both time 1 and time 2 (i.e. n=161). Reliabilities for all scales were acceptable, ranging from .72 to .93.

Table 5.2: Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables (study 1).

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Organizational Justice	5.08	1.04	(.89)						
2. POC	2.78	1.18	-.76**	(.92)					
3. POS	4.54	1.23	.77**	-.74**	(.93)				
4. OCB-O	3.42	.80	.46**	-.42**	.50**	(.90)			
5. CWB-O	2.00	.94	-.07	-.02	-.19*	-.09	(.72)		
6. Intention to Quit	2.78	1.20	-.55**	.54**	-.59**	-.46**	.11	(.84)	
7. OBSE	4.22	.45	.08	-.18*	.09	-.24**	-.05	-.17*	(.80)

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are shown in parentheses.

Perceived organizational cruelty was found to have statistically significant relationships with all variables with the exception of CWB-O ($-.02$, $p > .05$). The non-significant relationship between POC and CWB-O suggested an initial lack of support for hypothesis 4. However, the negative relationship with POS ($-.74$; $p < .01$) suggests support for hypothesis 1. Further, POC was found to be positively related with turnover intentions ($.54$; $p < .01$), and negatively related with OBSE ($r = -.18$; $p < .05$), organizational justice ($-.76$; $p < .01$) and OCB-O ($-.42$; $p < .01$). Therefore, with one exception (i.e. POC vis-à-vis CWB-O) the pattern of correlations are aligned with our expectations stemming from our hypothesized relationships. Overall, taken together, the factor analysis and the pattern of correlations offer evidence for the construct validity of our measure of POC.

5.7.2 Path analysis of the role of POC

The choice of approach used to formally test the hypothesized model was influenced by the overall size of the longitudinal sample ($n = 161$) as well as the number of variables of interest. As such, this model was tested using observed composite scores formed from observed items as opposed to factors. Therefore, a saturated path model was utilized, which thus provided a perfect fit to the data (i.e. fit indices are not relevant in this instance as the model tested and controlled for all possible paths).

Based on the results of the EFA and CFA, POC and POS clearly formed distinct factors, and as such seven variables needed to be tested within the model. Due to the overall response rate across both time 1 and time 2 ($n = 161$) the analytic strategy utilized two separate CFAs (one that focused on antecedent and mediator variables, and one that focused on the outcome variables). With regard to the antecedent and mediator variables (organizational justice, POC, and POS) a CFA demonstrated that a three-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2(116) = 746.23$; CFI = .91; Tucker-Lewis Index = .89; RMSEA = .10; SRMR = .05), and provided a significantly better fit than a single-factor model ($\chi^2(119) = 1504.60$; CFI = .78; Tucker-Lewis Index = .75; RMSEA = .16; SRMR = .07). With regard to the outcome variables, whilst they represent well-established and distinct constructs, a CFA was conducted to ensure there were no significant deviations present (with regard to expected factor structures) brought about via the nature of the sample. As such, a single CFA was tested on a four-factor model; the results showed that the four-factor model fit the data well ($\chi^2(113) = 208.12$; CFI = .92; Tucker-Lewis Index = .91; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .07), with all items loading onto their respective measures.

5.7.3 Results

In relation to the study's hypotheses, the saturated path model demonstrated the following results (see figure 5.2). POC was found to be negatively related to POS (-.21 $p < .01$), thus hypothesis 1 was supported. Further, whilst controlling for the influence of POS, POC was found to have the following relationships. Perceptions of organizational justice were found to be a negative antecedent to POC (-.86 $p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 2. A statistically significant negative relationship was not found between POC and the outcome variable of OCB-O (-.05 $p > .05$), thus hypothesis 3 was not supported. POC was found to be positively related to the outcome variable of CWB-O (.27 $p < .01$), supporting hypothesis 4. A statistically significant positive relationship was not found between POC and the outcome variable of intention to quit (.15 $p > .05$), thus hypothesis 5 was not supported. POC was found to be negatively and statistically significantly related to the outcome variable of OBSE (-.13 $p < .01$), thus supporting hypothesis 6.

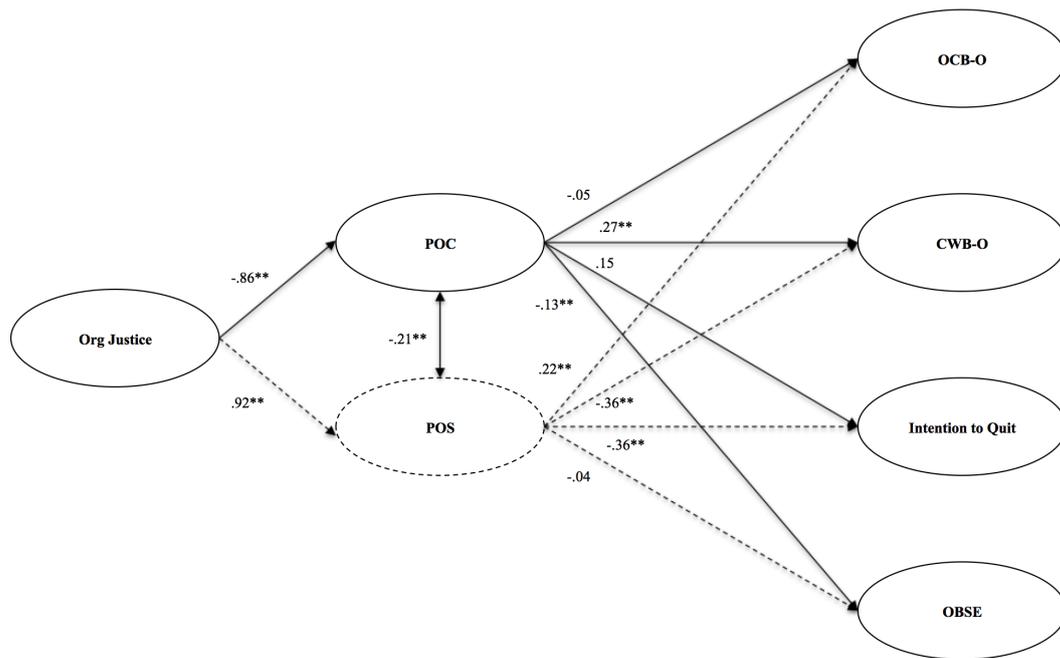


Figure 5.2: Saturated path model examining the relationships between POC, the antecedent of organizational justice, and behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, whilst accounting for POS (study 1).

****** $p < .01$

Finally, with regard to the mediating influence of POC, whilst controlling for the influence of POS, POC represented a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and the outcome variables of CWB-O (.24 $p < .01$) and OBSE (-.11 $p < .01$) thus supporting hypothesis 7b and 7d (see table 5.3). That is, as organizational justice decreases, POC increases, which in turn accounts for a reduction in OBSE and an enhancement of CWB-O. However, POC did not act as a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and

the outcome variables of OCB-O (.04 $p > .05$) and intention to quit (.13 $p > .05$), thus hypothesis 7a and 7c were not supported.

Table 5.3: Tests of indirect relationships through POC and POS between organizational justice and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (study 1).

Relationship (direct effect)	Indirect Effect Through	
	POC	POS
Org Just → OCB-O (.10)	.04	.21**
Org Just → CWB-O (.04)	.24**	-.34**
Org Just → Intention to Quit (-.15)	.13	-.33**
Org Just → OBSE (-.04)	-.11**	-.04

** $p < .01$

Further, in order to test whether POC accounted for additional variance over and beyond POS, the hypothesized model was contrasted with the inclusion and exclusion of POC. It was found that by including POC an additional 4.1% of variance was accounted for in relation to OBSE (R-square = .050 versus .009), and an additional 4.1% of variance in relation to CWB-O (R-square = .095 versus .054). However, POC only accounted for an additional 0.7% of variance in relation to intentions to quit (R-square = .369 versus .362), and did not account for any additional variance in relation to OCB-O (R-square = .288 versus .288). Overall, the inclusion of POC within the measurement model accounted for an additional 8.2% of the total variance, over and above that accounted for by POS alone.

5.8 Study 2: Method

5.8.1 Participants and procedures

In order to assess the generalizability of the findings of the first study, a supplementary sample was sought utilizing Amazon.com's crowdsourcing platform Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk is an online forum in which individuals can be requested to engage in various different tasks in return for a payment. Increasingly, researchers have argued and found evidence to suggest that the platform presents a reliable and valid means by which to collect data relevant to employee-focused research (e.g. Barger, Behrend, Sharek, & Sinar, 2011; Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012). Individuals were invited to partake in an online survey in which they would be reimbursed \$1 for fully completing the survey (with the survey taking approximately 10 minutes to complete). In order to partake, participants were required a) to be resident within the US, b) to be in full-time employment, c) to work on their employing organization's premises, d) to be employed by an organization with approximately 100 employees or more, and e) to be 18 years old or older. In order to increase confidence in the validity of the data, various manipulation checks were carried out in order to help ensure respondent diligence (and thus limit the potential for the data to be influenced by 'sloppy' responding and/or 'gaming' of the system – c.f. Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009).

In total, n=497 observations were collected, with 63.6% of respondents being male, the average age was 30.73 (s.d. 9.67), and the average tenure at their current organization was 4.18 years (s.d. 5.12). Respondents represented employees from a broad breadth of industry sectors (with educational services, the retail trade, and health care and social assistance being the highest represented at 11.9%, 11.5% and 10.3% respectively), as well as varying levels of annual full-time earnings (with the highest proportion of respondents reporting an annual salary of between \$40,000 - \$60,000 at 26.0%, followed by \$30,000 - \$40,000 at 25.2%).

5.8.2 Measures

Whilst the overall aim of study 2 was to assess whether the findings of the first study would be replicated in a different sample, there were two important differences between study 1 and study 2. Firstly, study 2 utilized all the variable measures used in the first study with the exception of OBSE. Secondly, it should be noted that within study 2, all variables/measures were captured in a cross-sectional manner. For Chronbach's alpha reliabilities for each variable measure, see Table 5.4 below.

5.9 Study 2: Analysis and Results

Table 5.4 displays the zero-order correlations and descriptive statistics for all variables included in study 2. Reliabilities for all scales were acceptable, ranging from .86 to .90. Of note is the fact that the zero-order correlations in study 1 showed POC to have statistically significant relationships with all variables apart from CWB-O,

while in study 2 POC has statistically significant relationships with all variables including CWB-O. Further, the pattern of correlations are aligned with expectations stemming from hypothesized relationships, and thus, these findings offer initial support for hypotheses 1-5. Overall, the pattern of correlations offers further evidence for the construct validity of POC. Indeed, notwithstanding the relationship between CWB-O and other variables, the pattern of correlations between variables are extremely similar to that in study 1, which is arguably striking when considering the differing natures of the two samples.

Table 5.4: Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables (study 2).

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Organizational Justice	4.91	1.31	(.89)					
2. POC	3.11	1.30	-.74**	(.87)				
3. POS	4.62	1.25	.84**	-.76**	(.88)			
4. OCB-O	3.21	.83	.50**	-.40**	.55**	(.90)		
5. CWB-O	2.29	1.10	-.32**	.33**	-.32*	-.21**	(.89)	
6. Intention to Quit	2.75	1.20	-.67**	.58**	-.66**	-.43**	.31**	(.86)

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

Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are represented in parentheses.

Given that CWB-O appeared to relate differently to other variables in study 2 (in comparison to study 1), a post-hoc review of the data was conducted. It was found

that there was more meaningful variance (with regard to responses) across the 12 items of the CWB-O measure. Due to the fact that this differed to study 1, it was decided to subject CWB-O to a factor analysis. The sample dataset was split in half, with an EFA using principal-factors extraction with oblique rotation run on one half of the data, whilst the remaining half of the data was subjected to CFA with maximum likelihood estimation. The results of the EFA suggested that CWB-O represented two separate factors (with eigenvalues which were greater than 1). The first factor represented the more extreme forms of CWB-O (such as fraud and theft) and accounted for 47.06% of the variance, whilst the second factor represented less extreme forms of CWB-O (such as putting little effort into work and taking longer breaks than authorized), accounting for 14.39% of the variance. Given this, the other half of the dataset was subjected to a CFA in which two models were tested, utilizing all of the variables within the hypothesized model. Firstly, the data were fitted as a two-factor model in which CWB-O was treated as two distinct factors (i.e. more extreme CWB-O, and less extreme CWB-O – with high cross loading items identified within the EFA being removed). The results of this model demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data ($\chi^2(681) = 2211.76$; CFI = .89; Tucker-Lewis Index = .88; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06). Secondly, the data were fitted as a single-factor model in which CWB-O was represented by the more extreme forms of CWB-O (as identified in the EFA). The results of this model also demonstrated an acceptable fit to the data, as well as a more superior fit to the data in comparison to the two factor model ($\chi^2(512) = 1792.14$; CFI = .90; Tucker-Lewis Index = .89; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06). Thus, subsequently, CWB-O was utilized as a single factor that captures the more extreme forms of CWB-O, which is consistent with the theoretical approach of the study. The items that were retained were, “used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job”,

“falsified a claim form to get reimbursed for more money that you never spent on business expenses”, “discussed confidential work related information with an unauthorized person”, “taken property from work without permission”, “littered your work environment”, and “dragged out work in order to get overtime”.

5.9.1 Structural analysis of the role of POC

Due to the overall sample size being much larger than in study 1 ($n = 497$), it was elected to test the substantive relationships between the variables utilizing a structural model. In order to examine whether the results of study 2 replicated the findings of study 1, it was elected to utilize all variables as per the hypothesized model. Indeed, the hypothesized model fit the data well ($\chi^2(512) = 1792.14$; CFI = .90; Tucker-Lewis Index = .89; RMSEA = .07; SRMR = .06), with all items loading onto their respective measures.

5.9.2 Results

In relation to the study’s hypotheses, the paths demonstrated the following results (see figure 5.3). POC was negatively related to POS ($-.24 p < .01$), thus hypothesis 1 was supported. Further, whilst controlling for the influence of POS, POC was found to have the following relationships. Perceptions of organizational justice were found to be a negatively related antecedent to POC ($-.85 p < .01$), thus supporting hypothesis 2. A statistically significant relationship was found between POC and the outcome variable of OCB-O, however this relationship was positive as opposed to negative ($.09 p < .05$), thus hypothesis 3 was not supported. POC was found to be positively related to the outcome variable of CWB-O ($.42 p < .01$), supporting

hypothesis 4. A statistically significant positive relationship was found between POC and the outcome variable of intention to quit (.15 $p < .05$), meaning hypothesis 5 was supported. Due to the fact that OBSE was not measured in this model hypothesis 6 could not be tested.

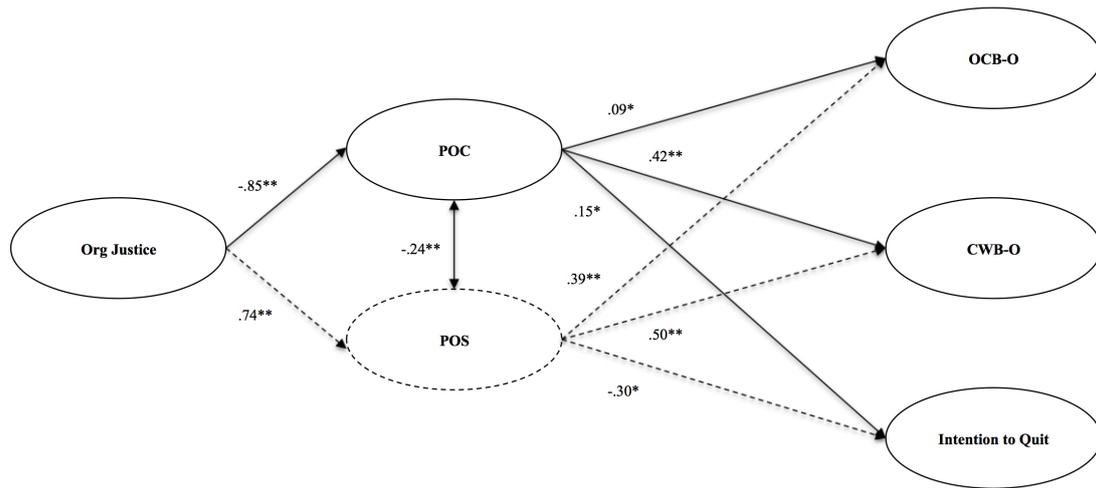


Figure 5.3: Structural model examining the relationship between POC, the antecedent of organizational justice, and behavioral and attitudinal outcomes, whilst accounting for POS (study 2).

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

Finally, with regard to the mediating influence of POC (see table 5.5); whilst controlling for the influence of POS, POC was shown to be a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and OCB-O ($-.07 p < .05$). That is, as organizational justice decreases, POC increases, which in turn accounts for a reduction in OCB-O. Further, POC represented a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and CWB-O ($.36 p < .01$). That is, as

organizational justice decreases, POC increases, which in turn accounts for an increase in CWB-O. Thus hypothesis 7a and 7b were supported. However, POC was not shown to be a statistically significant mediator in the relationship between organizational justice and intention to quit ($-.13 p > .05$), and thus hypothesis 7c was not supported.

Table 5.5: Tests of indirect relationships through POC and POS between organizational justice and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (study 2).

Relationship (direct effect)	Indirect Effect Through	
	POC	POS
Org Just → OCB-O (.04)	-.07*	.28**
Org Just → CWB-O (-.20*)	.36**	-.37**
Org Just → Intention to Quit (-.36**)	-.13	-.22

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

Further, in order to test whether POC accounted for additional variance over and beyond POS, the hypothesized model was contrasted with the inclusion and exclusion of POC. It was found that by including POC an additional 9.1% of variance was accounted for in relation to CWB-O (R-square = .157 versus .066). However, much like the findings of the first study, POC only accounted for an additional 0.7% of variance in relation to intentions to quit (R-square = .570 versus .563); though unlike the first study, POC did account for 1.1% of variance in relation to OCB-O (R-

square = .391 versus .380). Overall, the inclusion of POC within the measurement model accounted for an additional 10.9% of the total variance, over-and-beyond POS alone.

5.10 Discussion

Whilst anecdotal evidence would suggest that organizational malevolence may be commonly experienced by many employees within the workplace, there has been a surprising dearth of attention paid to such phenomena within the organizational behavior and associated literatures. Taking inspiration from Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012), we argued that the experience of such organizational malevolence is likely to have a profound effect on the EOR, and as such merits greater scholarly attention. With this in mind, the aim of this study was to empirically measure POC, and to compare and contrast the construct with POS, in order to better understand the effects of employees' perceptions of organizational malevolence. Our findings from two diverse samples suggest that POC is indeed distinct from POS, and further, we were able to demonstrate that the measure was able to predict unique and meaningful variance within two similar models, from two different samples, when controlling for the effects of POS. Therefore, we argue that through capturing POC we have provided an important contribution to the EOR literature, helping us to better understand employees' negative perceptions of organizational intent, which have thus far been by-and-large overlooked within the literature.

Specifically, we suggest that the prior reliance on POS alone as an indicator of the overall quality of the EOR (c.f. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Dulac, et al., 2008) is likely to have resulted in an incomplete perspective. Indeed, our findings suggest that employees can indeed possess perceptions of organizational malevolence, and that by capturing such perceptions, it is possible to account for greater variance and greater measurement accuracy with regards to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes associated with the EOR. Broadly, whilst this study contributes to the theoretical and empirical establishment of POC as a valid and relevant construct, this research also contributes to the theoretical and empirical clarity of the POS construct and extant OST, such that POS does not explicitly/accurately capture employees' notions of organizational malevolence. As such, this study helps clarify this confounding issue, and again as such, we argue strengthens the POS construct overall as a result; as Suddaby (2010) notes, "just as constructs are the building blocks of strong theory, clear and accurate terms are the fundament of strong constructs" (p. 347).

More broadly, in much the same way that theorizing concerning organizational justice has advanced over the years from essentially being a uni-dimensional construct (i.e. the consideration of distributive justice) to possessing four distinct constructs (distributive, procedural, interactional, and, interactional justice - c.f. Colquitt, 2001), as well as including the more recent development of the overall organizational justice construct (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009); we believe that POC may represent an important and salient construct that complements and advances the extant POS domain, by furthering our understanding of employees' perception of the organization's positive versus negative orientation towards them. Further, just as the various organizational justice constructs possess unique characteristics that relate to various antecedents and outcomes, the findings of this study likewise suggests POC

possesses differential characteristics to POS. For example, the finding that POC was found to have a statistically significant (negative) relationship with employees' innate notion of self-worth whilst POS did not, suggests that the perception of organizational malevolence can have differential effects in comparison to the perception of organizational benevolence (over and beyond the converse).

Notwithstanding, with regards to the criterion validity of POC, it may be prudent to consider why POC failed to demonstrate a statistically significant negative relationship with OCB-O in the first study, yet did so, albeit a positive one, in the second study (thus, in both studies, hypothesis 3 was not supported). With regard to POC's relationship with OCB-O, our predictions were strongly influenced by the theoretical reasoning of Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012), who in turn, were strongly influenced by social exchange (Blau, 1964), reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) and equity (Adams, 1965) theories. These theories suggest that, following negative organizational treatment (and thus, perceptions of imbalance and unfairness), employees will seek to reduce OCB-Os in order to re-establish balance within the exchange dynamic. Given this, an inability to establish a negative relationship between POC and OCB-O is somewhat puzzling. However, in hindsight, this may be explained by one (or a number of) the following potential reasons.

Firstly, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) noted that, due to the more powerful position of the organization within the EOR, employees who experience negative organizational treatment may not have the will and/or the means to engage in negative reciprocation. In other words, in order to avert potential negative treatment in the future, employees may seek to avoid behaviors (e.g. a reduction in OCB-O) that could lead to yet further negative treatment (indeed, the findings from the second study

indicated that POC led individuals to increase their OCB-O, albeit very modestly). However, the strength of this explanation is weakened somewhat by the finding (in both studies) that POC was positively related to increased CWB-O, which could suggest that employees do look to *actively* restore balance through engaging in retaliatory behaviors.

Secondly, certain scholars have argued, and found evidence to suggest that OCBs may be viewed by employees as being ‘part of the job’ and therefore representing a behavior(s) that cannot be actively reduced (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Spector & Fox, 2010b; Van Dyne & Butler Ellis, 2004). Indeed, given this reasoning, the two differing sample populations may have presented certain unique measurement facets, or contexts, that may have influenced the findings (e.g. Johns, 2006). For example, due to the hospital/health care provider sample being made up of (amongst others) doctors, nurses, and other healthcare professionals, it is possible to speculate that engaging in OCB-O is synonymous with being a healthcare professional (for example, taking action to avert potential problems and boosterism of the hospital’s image etc., may ultimately represent professional standards relating to patient care). Also, being employed within the UK public sector, these employees may have felt they had a significant amount of employment protection (with regard to employment rights and influence from unions etc.), while in contrast the broad sample of employees from the US may have less employment protection, making the threat of yet further negative treatment (including potential threats to earnings and/or job loss) more salient, thus motivating increased OCB-O.

With regard to the hypothesized positive relationship between POC and intention to quit, support was found within the second study, but not the first. Again,

in hindsight this could be due to the nature of the first sample. For example, due to the complex nature of the work undertaken, and the nature of healthcare professions per se, individuals may have limited opportunities in which to engage within their elected specialism within other hospitals. Also, individuals may deem that due to being a part of the broader public health service, hospitals per se (i.e. as employing organizations) may be viewed as broadly similar in their treatment of employees; as such, limiting individuals' desire to quit.

Interestingly, it should also be noted that the relationship between POC and intention to quit in the second study ($.15 p < .05$) was not as large as might have been expected. One potential explanation for this could stem from findings in the first study. Due to the fact that POC was found to reduce employees' psychological well-being in the form of reduced internal evaluations of self-worth (OBSE), this may mean that employees experience a reduction in self-resources, leading to a (greater) state of helplessness. Thus, rather than having the necessary energy in which to seek alternative employment, the findings might suggest that employees enter into a (greater) state of passivity and/or despondency. Indeed, whilst initially this reasoning may appear to run contra to the finding that POC was positively related to CWB-O (and thus retaliatory and proactive behavior with the aim of restoring balance), scholars have recently argued and found evidence to support the assertion that CWB stems from a reduction in self-resources, which in turn leads to an inability to self-regulate (i.e. self-control) behavior (e.g. Baumeister, 2002; Thau, Aquino, & Poortvliet, 2007; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). In other words, these scholars suggest that rather than being a result of conscious and deliberate retaliation, CWB may be a subconscious response to/consequence of situational factors that reduce an individual's ability to maintain normative behavior.

Arguably, perhaps one of the most surprising findings was that within the second study POS was positively related to CWB-O; indeed, the items used/retained within this measure represented the more extreme forms of CWB-O (such as fraud and theft) and the relationship was relatively large (.50 $p < .01$). This finding is surprising as it runs contra to normative reasoning; such that it seems illogical that when employees feel greater organizational support (i.e. benevolence) they would be more likely to engage in behavior that is detrimental to the organization. It should be noted, however, that there is a relative dearth of studies that have considered the direct relationship between POS and CWB-O, and thus, there is little in the way to contrast this finding. Further, such counterintuitive findings are not uncommon within organizational behavior research (e.g. meta-analytic evidence suggests employees can engage in OCB and CWB simultaneously – Dalal, 2005). Given this, it is possible to speculate that this finding may stem from the data collection method in that, due to the complete anonymity of the online forum, survey respondents may have felt more at ease reporting these behaviors (whereas empirical studies conducted within a specific organizational setting may raise respondents' fears relating to confidentiality and potential reprisal). Subsequently, this leads us to consider and speculate as to why greater POS could lead to greater CWB-O. One reason may be that, given the notion of greater organizational support, employees feel more at ease to abuse and take advantage of the organization's benevolence due to the fact that such supportiveness suggests a lesser risk of negative consequences of engaging in CWB-O. In other words, employees may engage in drinking alcohol, taking illegal drugs, taking work property, falsifying timesheets etc., not necessarily as an act of revenge against the organization, but as a means by which to satisfy self-centered/base wants and needs (e.g. Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000), emboldened by

a belief that the organization will not respond negatively if they are caught. Indeed, it is possible to speculate that, due to greater notions of supportiveness, employees may go so far as to reason/rationalize that the organization condones such behavior; thus, by “sparing the rod” the organization may “spoil the child”.

5.10.1 Future research

One of the key challenges of this study was to help establish the dimensionality and validity of POC, both theoretically and empirically. As discussed earlier, we concur with Shore & Coyle-Shapiro’s (2012) assertion that POC should be viewed as a distinct construct in relation to POS; however, in concurrence with them, we also acknowledge that POC and POS share important similarities. Indeed, following a process of theoretical deduction, we elected to adapt the empirical measure of POS to account for POC as opposed to establishing an entirely new measure. This may raise the question as to the distinctive nature of POC vis-à-vis POS, and fundamentally, whether POC and POS are best viewed as polar opposites of a continuum representing perceptions of organizational intent or (as we suggest) should be viewed as related bivariate constructs. This is an important question, and one which some other notable constructs have been the subject of in the recent past. For example, debate exists as to whether trust and distrust represent a single bipolar construct (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007), or whether they represent two distinct but linked constructs (Lewicki et al., 1998; Lewicki et al, 2006), with scholars on both sides suggesting that such clarity is vital for both theoretical and empirical validity.

With regard to POC vis-à-vis POS, we argue that the bipolar versus bivariate debate may essentially ‘boil down’ to the focus of analysis in which POC and POS

are considered, with the two representing distinct constructs at the experiential, attributional, and social levels (i.e. antecedents, attributional processes, and subsequent attitudes and behaviors), whilst from a broader perspective, POC and POS can be seen to exist as part of a higher-order continuum concerning employees' perception of the organization's (malevolent through to benevolent) intent toward them. In other words, we argue that an overall perception of the organization's intent is best considered as a function of *both* POC and POS, such that an amalgamated composite of both attributions (POS and POC) may best represent a higher-order, latent continuum of employees' perception of the organization's intent. Indeed, this reasoning may be supported by scholars who have considered the dimensionality of OCBs vis-à-vis CWBs, noting that employees can, and do, engage in both positive and negative behaviors simultaneously, and as such have suggested that OCBs and CWBs could be considered together in order to ascertain an employee's overall contribution to the organization (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Sackett & DeVore, 2001). Thus, potentially, future research could use hierarchical analysis that considers POC and POS as separate lower-order factors, and alternatively, as forming an amalgamated higher-order factor concerning an overall perception of organizational intent, which may aid greater empirical validity (c.f. Edwards, 2001; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2010).

Concerning why employees may hold perceptions of both organizational malevolence and benevolence, as we suggested earlier, this is likely to be the result of ambivalence towards the organization. Whilst initially, it may seem contrary to reason that employees may hold perceptions that the organization is both malevolent and benevolent simultaneously, we argue that this is likely due to the inevitable complexity of making sense of experiences at work. For example, a person may have

received particularly favorable treatment from the organization (e.g. a salary increase or bonus, promotion, or other favorable discretionary outcome etc.), yet concerning the treatment of coworkers per se, may deem organizational treatment as being less favorable (e.g. that such a salary increase or bonus, promotions, or other favorable discretionary outcomes etc. are denied other employees despite being merited). Indeed, much has been made of the experience of guilt following a positive outcome for the individual at the expense of others (e.g. Brockner, Greenberg, Brockner, Bortz, Davy, & Carter, 1986). Another hypothetical example could include an employee that has been given a promotion, yet at the same time feels that they have been ‘thrown in at the deep end’. These examples suggest that organizational treatment may possess both malevolent and benevolent facets, which in turn may lead employees to form ambivalent attributions regarding the organization. As such, future research may wish to consider the influence of ambivalence on such phenomena.

5.10.2 Practical implications

Our findings suggest that employees can form an attribution that the organization possesses a negative (malevolent) intent towards them (i.e. POC), and that with POC employees may experience a reduction in their psychological well-being as well as increasing behaviors which could be of detriment to the organization. Therefore, organizations should be mindful to ensure that the antecedents of POC are minimized as and where possible. Practically speaking, Shore & Coyle-Shapiro (2012) theorized that POC stems from two broad areas: 1) negative policies, procedures and culture of the organization, and 2) negative treatment of employees by superiors. As such, the CEO and executive members of the board should seek to ensure that the organization’s policies, procedures and culture are grounded in

humanistic principles, and that these principles are actively promoted and adhered to within the organization. Further, executive members and senior managers should be mindful that their attitudes and behaviors may well be deemed to be representative of the organization as a whole; therefore, these principles should also be adhered to and enacted at the highest levels of the organization. Similarly, it is also possible to envisage that organizational leaders are often tasked with making decisions that affect part, or all, of the organization based on ‘business’/‘profitability’ needs (such as restructuring, refocusing resources etc.). The results of this study suggest that the ‘human’ side of such decisions should be given serious consideration; in that decisions that are deemed to negatively impact employees could lead to perceptions of organizational malevolence, and thus, run the risk of decreasing employees’ psychological well-being and increasing counter productive behaviors.

Secondly, due to their role as agents of the organization, superiors should ensure the fair and benevolent treatment of subordinates, and should refrain from management practices that could be deemed negatively (such that they could be deemed as being cynical, vindictive, uncompassionate, capricious etc. in nature). Therefore, from a human resources management (HRM) perspective, close attention should be placed on staff attitudes and turnover rates as they relate to each supervisor; with negative staff attitudes potentially indicating negative treatment. Broadly, HRM practitioners should be mindful that negative treatment from a supervisor may manifest itself as a perception that the organization is malevolent overall (given that supervisors may be seen as agents of the organization); thus potentially, ‘one bad apple’ may ‘spoil the barrel’.

5.10.3 Limitations

There are several limitations to this research that should be considered. Firstly, whilst the two different samples demonstrated the discriminant validity of POC vis-à-vis POS, as well as the convergent validity of POC with organizational justice and CWB-O; POC's relationship with OCB-Os and intention to quit was somewhat inconsistent. As such, we suggest that further empirical research utilizing the POC measure (in conjunction with the POS measure) is needed in order to establish the generalizability of the measure/construct. Indeed, construct/measurement validity is a continual and dynamic process (Colquitt, 2001) and as such we suggest the use of the POC scale in other contexts and with other potential antecedent and outcome variables.

Secondly, the self-report nature of our research may mean that our findings were influenced by the inflating (and/or deflating) effect of common method variance (Podsakof, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakof, 2003). In order to attenuate such effects, the first study's data were collected at two different points in time, separated by five months. Moreover, questionnaires were stressed as being completely confidential, and further, respondents were provided with a unique anonymous identifier code. Whilst the second study's data collection ensured respondents' anonymity, it was however, cross-sectional in nature. Recently, though, certain scholars have argued that the measurement error effects of common method variance have been overstated and may produce negligible measurement error (Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2006). Indeed, a recent meta-analysis concerning the measurement of CWBs found that self-report measures were as valid (if not more so) than other measurement methods (Berry, Carpenter, & Barrett, 2012).

Thirdly, due to POC being essentially a subjective attribution, it is possible that individual differences such as self-esteem, neuroticism, negative affect etc. may influence the degree to which individuals develop POC, and potentially how they respond with subsequent attitudes and behaviors. For example, it has been suggested that an individual's core self-evaluations influence the extent a person is disposed to see 'the world' as more or less malevolent/benevolent (e.g. Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). Thus, further research on potential moderators is needed. Similarly, it is theoretically conceivable that other antecedent and outcome variables could have contributed to this study's model. For example, it is theoretically conceivable that abusive supervision (e.g. Tepper, 2000, 2007) could act as a direct antecedent of POC, such that the supervisor is perceived as an agent of, and acting in accordance with, the organization (e.g. Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013), abusive treatment from the supervisor would in theory increase POC. However, it should be noted that theorizing housed within this paper suggests that such treatment would be amalgamated into the anthropomorphized organization, and thus, overall organizational justice perceptions may act as a general proxy that includes abusive supervision. With regard to other potential outcomes, actual physical ill-health has been found to be influenced by employees' experience of the workplace (Ganster & Rosen, 2013) and therefore may warrant further attention with regard to POC.

On a final note, it is possible that criticism could be levied at this study's decision to adapt the survey of perceived organizational support instead of developing an entirely new scale in order to capture POC. This criticism could stem from an argument concerning the discriminant and convergent validity of the theoretical construct vis-à-vis POS. In short, we have argued (see the methods section) that, whilst there is some distinction between the two constructs, they do at their core

represent a perception of organizational malevolence (POC) versus a perception of organizational benevolence (POS) and thus may be seen as sub-dimensions within a higher-order perception of organizational intent. Indeed, as Suddaby (2010) succinctly notes, “new constructs [...] are usually the result of creative building upon preexisting constructs, which themselves refer to other extant constructs, in an ongoing web of referential relationships. Constructs, thus, are the outcome of a semantic network of conceptual connections to other prior constructs” and that “theoretical constructs are suspended in a complex web of references to, and relationships with, other constructs” (p. 350). Overall, Suddaby (2010) called for greater

“construct clarity [which] allows us to build on prior research by providing the research community with a common language. A common language is an essential prerequisite for a community of scholars interested in the same or similar phenomena to exchange ideas and build knowledge. The ability to precisely articulate the key elements that underpin an idea helps us to understand the degree to which ideas overlap or differ. Moreover, the advancement of theory and knowledge relies on the ability of new researchers to build on the work of prior researchers. If new and old researchers cannot agree on or communicate the basic elements of a phenomenon, the accumulation of knowledge cannot occur” (p. 352).

As such, we feel strongly that, with measures being an integral part of a construct, had we produced a new scale we could have rightly been accused of pouring ‘old wine in new bottles’ (e.g. Suddaby, 2010), falling foul of the ‘jingle jangle fallacy’ (e.g. Kelley, 1927), and/or of exacerbating a ‘Tower of Babel’ effect (e.g. Block, 1995; Suddaby, 2010). As DeRue et al. (2012) suggest, “these fallacies typically occur when independent researchers pay no mind to existing constructs in

the field while inventing new ones. Independent research streams emerge and confusion ensues” (p320). Or as noted by Suddaby (2010)

“when researchers use different terms for similar phenomena, it produces confusion—“confounding effects”—that impede the ability of members of a research community to communicate with each other or to accumulate knowledge. The creation of a common vocabulary avoids the “Tower of Babel” effect, in which sub-communities of researchers have no common means of communication” (p. 353).

Indeed for example, Klein, Molloy, & Brinsfield, (2012) recently argued that such confusion was endemic within the workplace commitment domain meaning that there had been little cohesive scientific advancement in recent years as well as there being a distinct threat to the validity of empirical findings, thus leading them to attempt to re-conceptualize (i.e. ‘tidy-up’) the construct. However, perhaps most poignantly, certain scholars have warned that scales (in themselves) can potentially assume ‘a life of their own’, thus implicitly becoming the construct (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Schimmack; 2010).

5.11 Conclusion

This study aimed to develop the newly introduced construct of POC, through the theoretical and empirical comparison of POC with the well-established construct of POS. Our findings provide preliminary evidence of the discriminant validity of the construct vis-à-vis POS, as well as accounting for variance between theoretical antecedents and their outcomes over and above the variance accounted for by POS,

and thus evidencing the criterion validity of POC. As such, this highlights the importance of capturing employees' negative attribution of the organization as it may predict relevant and important outcomes that would not be accounted for if POS was utilized alone. Therefore, we argue that POC and POS are separate constructs that, when considered together, may represent a higher-order construct concerning an employee's attribution of the organization's intent (i.e. malevolence through to benevolence) towards the employee(s). Overall our findings lead us to suggest that in order to better understand the full spectrum of the quality of the EOR, *both* the POS and POC constructs should be utilized.

5.12 References

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6 PAPER 3 - Perceived Organizational Support: A Self-Relevant Resources and Need for Relatedness Perspective

- 6.1 Abstract
- 6.2 Introduction
- 6.3 Theory and Hypothesis Development
 - 6.3.1 Supportive organizational treatment: a currency or an energy?
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6.8 References

6.1 Abstract

Organizational support theory (OST) utilizes the rules and norms associated with social exchange and reciprocity to account for the dynamic relationship between employees' perceived organizational support (POS) and employees' subsequent prosocial attitudes and behaviors. Taking an approach that integrates key tenets from conservation of resources and self-determination theories, this study looks to extend OST by examining whether self-relevant resources and the need for relatedness may provide an alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) account of the mechanisms and motivations that exist within this dynamic. Specifically, it is argued that POS represents an emotional resource that manifests greater emotional engagement, which in turn motivates and drives prosocial attitudes and behaviors. To test this, a longitudinal study of 161 hospital employees examined the relationship between POS and employees' emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement, and the mediating effect of engagement (emotional, cognitive, and physical) on the relationships between POS and organizational identification, organizational citizenship behaviors aimed towards the organization, and intention to quit. Overall, results (with one exception) supported the utility of self-relevant resources and the need for relatedness as an alternative to social exchange and reciprocity accounts.

Keywords: perceived organizational support; engagement; resources

6.2 Introduction

The perceived organizational support (POS) construct (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986) has received a significant degree of interest since its conception by Eisenberger and his colleagues nearly three decades ago. Essentially, POS is conceptualized as an employee's global belief concerning the extent to which his/her employing organization values their contribution and cares for their wellbeing (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). In turn, POS has consistently demonstrated robust empirical relationships with employees' prosocial attitudes and behaviors aimed towards the organization, such as commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational citizenship behaviors, and overall performance; whilst having negative relationships with withdrawal behavior, turnover intentions and notions of strain at work (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Riggle, Edmonson & Hansen, 2009).

Organizational support theory (OST - Eisenberger et al, 1986; Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber 2011; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski & Rhoades, 2002; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001; Shore & Shore, 1995; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) details the causal *mechanisms* between employees' POS and prosocial attitudinal and behavioral outcomes via the rules and norms relating to social exchange (Blau, 1964) and reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). Such that supportive organizational treatment is fundamentally seen as a beneficial *resource*, and that with the receipt of such beneficial resources, employees are *motivated* by an obligation to

reciprocate in kind with likewise propitious resources (i.e. which are manifested as prosocial attitudes and behaviors - Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As such, POS is conceptualized as a *cognitive*, and/or *calculative*, attributional appraisal of the employee-organization exchange dynamic, whereby employees evaluate the degree to which they have received favorable resources from the organization, and subsequently, evaluate the degree in which to (accordingly) reciprocate with likewise favorable resources (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004).

However, despite a significant amount of interest in the POS construct (for an extensive review, see Eisenberger & Stinglhamber 2011) there has been little in the way of critical examination as to whether other *mechanisms* and/or *motivations* exist that may also influence and explain the dynamic between POS and prosocial outcomes. Indeed, of particular interest to this study is OST's premise that employees possess *socio-emotional needs*, which include the needs for caring, affiliation, approval, and esteem (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber 2011; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); and likewise, that supportive organizational treatment possesses *socio-emotional resources* that help fulfill these socio-emotional needs (e.g. Armeli, Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Lynch, 1998). Yet despite alluding to the importance of emotional factors within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, OST has paid scant attention as to their potential mechanistic and motivational influence. Rather, OST holds that with socio-emotional needs being met, employees are obligated to reciprocate with prosocial attitudes and behaviors in accordance with reciprocal exchange-based norms.

Arguably, however, OST's over-reliance on exchange-based accounts may provide an overly narrow account, given that some scholars have questioned social

exchange's dominance in detailing the causal *mechanism* between situational experiences at work, and employees' subsequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (e.g. Clark & Mills, 1979, 1993; Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007; Shore, Coyle-Shapiro, & Tetrick, 2012). Indeed, one alternative explanation may stem from the growing body of literature concerning *resources* and individuals' *energy*, which suggests that certain behaviors may essentially stem from *sub-conscious* and *reactive* processes, resulting from the extent to which an individual possesses necessary self-related resources (e.g. Baumeister, 1998, 2002; Lian, Brown, Ferris, Liang, Keeping, & Morrison, 2012; Muraven & Baumeister, 2000; Schmeichel & Baumeister, 2004; Thau, Aquino, & Poortvliet, 2007; Thau & Mitchell, 2010; for a review see Quinn, Spreitzer, & Lam, 2012). Similarly, the dominance of social exchange and reciprocity accounts as a *motivator* of behavior may also be brought into question. For example, motivational theories grounded in evolutionary psychology suggest that individuals have *innate* needs for group belonging and relatedness, and thus individuals may be *subconsciously* motivated to engage in prosocial attitudes and behaviors in order to fulfill these rudimentary psychosocial needs (e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Stevens & Fiske, 1995).

Arguably, with regards to OST, these literatures raise an important and salient question: does the receipt of supportive organizational treatment lead employees to reason that they are obliged to reciprocate in kind (c.f. Blau, 1964; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Gouldner, 1960), or, does supportive organizational treatment lead to employees possessing a greater cache of self-related resources, which in turn gives the individual greater energy in which to engage in more prosocial attitudes and behaviors (c.f. Quinn et al., 2012), driven by an innate need to enhance

social/relational bonds (e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000)? Whilst the distinction may be subtle, it does offer an alternative to OST's assumption that cognition and exchange-based norms both drive and motivate employees' prosocial attitudes and behaviors at the expense of more subconscious and innate psychosocial factors. Overall, reasoning sourced from self-resources and relatedness-based theories (c.f. Quinn et al., 2012) would further suggest that *resources* and *needs* may provide a potential alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) explanation of the *motivations* and *mechanisms* that operate within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. Following this reasoning, this study argues that, as opposed to solely representing a resource that is exchanged as a form of *currency* between the organization and the employee (and vice-versa), supportive organizational treatment may represent a form of social resource (e.g. Hobfoll, Freedy, Lane, & Geller, 1990; Hobfoll & Stokes, 1988), which in turn gives employees greater self-resources, which again in turn, gives employees greater energy in which to engage in prosocial attitudes and behaviors.

In order to examine this, this study draws on literature that suggests that such resources/energy essentially manifests itself as employee *engagement* (e.g. Crawford, LePine, & Rich, 2010; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Kuhnel, Sonnentag, & Bledow, 2012; Quinn et al., 2012). Building on OST's tenets that employees possess socio-emotional needs, and that supportive organizational treatment acts as a socio-emotional resource to help fulfill these needs, this study looks to utilize key tenets from conservation of resources theory (which has been instrumental in our understanding of resources relating to the self - Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014; Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 1990), as well as self-determination theory (which provides a compelling account of human needs and motivation – Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000;

Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000), in order to analyze the mediating effect engagement has on the relationship between POS and prosocial outcomes.

To date, there have only been a small number of studies that have examined POS vis-à-vis engagement and its associated outcomes, and it should be noted that these have done so by treating employee engagement as a unified construct, as well as considering employee engagement as a volitional response to exchange and reciprocal rules and norms (e.g. Saks, 2006; Sulea, Virga, Maricutoiu, Schaufeli, Dumitru, & Sava, 2012). However, this study makes the important distinction that employee engagement can be theoretically and empirically sub-divided into emotional, cognitive, and physical facets (e.g. Khan, 1990, 1992; Rich, LePine, & Crawford, 2010), and by utilizing self-determination theory's central tenet that 'like' resources result in 'like' energies (Deci & Ryan, 2000), it is proposed that these three subdivisions (i.e. emotional, cognitive and physical engagement) may possess unique characteristics in terms of how they relate to various antecedent and outcome variables. Therefore, due to the conceptual socio-emotional nature of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. the perception of being valued and cared for - Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), this study argues that POS represents an emotional resource, and thus POS should have a differential effect on emotional engagement than on cognitive and physical engagement.

Given this reasoning, evidence that emotional (as opposed to cognitive and physical) engagement operates as a mediator within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic would imply support for the argument that POS provides greater emotional energy in which to engage in prosocial attitudes and behaviors. Further, it would also offer support for the reasoning that the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic is essentially

subconscious in nature, given that the extant literature has suggested that as part of a volitional/conscious attempt to reciprocate the organization for supportive treatment, employees should enhance all three facets of engagement (i.e. emotional, cognitive and physical - e.g. Saks, 2006).

Thus, this study examines the effect POS has on employees' emotional energy (as represented by their level of emotional engagement), specifically arguing that POS functions as an emotional resource, which in turn relates to greater emotional engagement. This aim is consistent with a number of scholars who have called for research to explore, and account for, alternatives to the rational actor model, which has been seen to dominate the literature regarding social phenomena (e.g. De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Overall, by utilizing conservation of resources and self-determination theories, the aim is to contribute to the extension and development of OST and the POS construct by reexamining the mechanistic and motivational facets within the organizational support phenomenon, thus, aiding greater construct validity.

6.3 Theory and Hypothesis Development

6.3.1 Supportive organizational treatment: a currency or an energy?

An underlying tenet within OST is that the employee-organization relationship is essentially characterized by the exchange of both tangible and intangible resources between both parties (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber,

2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). At its core, OST can be seen to be grounded in social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) which Rhoades & Eisenberger (2002) argued “allude[s] to employment as the trade of effort and loyalty for tangible benefits and social rewards” (p. 698). As such, supportive organizational treatment can take the form of tangible resources such as pay, rewards, job conditions, benefits, training, development opportunities (etc.) and intangible resources, which include such things as caring, approval, respect, status, appreciation, and even love (c.f. Foa & Foa, 1980). Both tangible and intangible supportive resources are seen to be transferred through the medium of fairness of treatment, support from organizational representatives, and/or supportive human resources practices (Eisenberger et al., 2004). OST holds that, with the receipt of such supportive organizational treatment, an employee’s attribution of the organization’s value and caring for the individual will be enhanced; thus manifesting greater POS. Subsequently, OST holds that employees cognitively assess their receipt of supportive organizational treatment, and through the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), are motivated to repay the organization with likewise beneficial treatment. Given such reasoning, supportive organizational treatment may arguably be deemed a *currency*, with the norm of reciprocity and quid pro quo norms (such that “one good turn deserves another”) generating a mutual obligation to reciprocate (Blau, 1964; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005); thus perpetuating a virtuous cycle.

Arguably, however, OST’s over-reliance on exchange-based accounts may present an overly narrow view of the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, as more broadly, emerging literatures suggest that alternative mechanisms may also explain attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. For example, Thau and his colleagues (Thau & Mitchell, 2010; Thau, Aquino, & Poortvliet, 2007) argued that whilst workplace

deviance has traditionally been seen as a retaliatory response to negative workplace experiences with the aim of achieving some form of revenge within the exchange relationship (i.e. negative reciprocity - e.g. Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), they found evidence to suggest that deviance may in fact result from an employee's inability to self-regulate (or self-control) their behavior in a normative/prosocial manner. This they argued was due to a critical depletion of *self-resources* (Thau & Mitchell, 2010). In essence, their findings suggest that *negative* attitudinal and behavioral outcomes may be a *sub-conscious* and *reactive* response given an individual's critical depletion of self-resources. Thus, their findings draw into question the assumption that deviance is necessarily a result of a *cognitive* and/or *calculative* process designed to achieve some form of equity within an exchange dynamic, and as such they question the utility of (negative) reciprocity and exchange based norms in detailing the causation of employees' negative attitudes and behaviors.

Whilst the POS–prosocial outcome dynamic may be quite different to that of the antecedents and outcomes associated with workplace deviance, by taking inspiration from the literature that considers the relationship between self-resources and behavior it could be possible to argue that the two exist at either end of a continuum; in that whilst a critical depletion of self-resources may result in an inability to maintain attitudes and behaviors necessary for successful social functioning, the converse of this may represent an abundance of self-resources which facilitates greater social (and thus prosocial) functioning (e.g. Baumister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Hobfoll, 2011; Quinn et al., 2012; Wheeler, Harris, & Sablinski, 2012). Therefore, this logic suggests that, as well as the rules and

norms associated with social exchange (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), self-resources could also feasibly act as a *mechanism* within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic.

To explore this reasoning further, while OST has predominantly emphasized the practical utility of supportive organizational treatment (such that through the ongoing trade of supportive resources for employees' prosocial attitudes and behaviors, both the organization and the employee are seen to amass greater amounts of desirable resources), it has paid far less attention to the emotional facets of such favorable treatment. Yet, as has been noted, OST holds that supportive organizational treatment helps to fulfill important socio-emotional needs such as the need for esteem, approval, emotional support, and affiliation (Eisenberger et al., 2004, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002); and as such, OST alludes to the importance supportive organizational treatment has on employees' *self* and/or *self-related resources*. For example, as Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) state, "perceived organizational support provides for the immediate fulfillment of socioemotional needs. Believing the organization values one's contribution and cares for one's well-being makes one feel esteemed, accepted, [and] integrated into a significant social structure" (p. 244). In other words, organizational support may have a propitious effect on individuals, not just in practical terms, but at a deep and personal level.

Similar to OST's premise that supportive organizational treatment is effectively a resource that can have an enhancing effect at an innate emotional level, several theories suggest that behavior may result from the degree to which individuals possess (necessary levels of) self-resources. Arguably, the most influential of these has been conservation of resources theory (COR - Hobfoll, 1989, 1998, 2002), which

essentially posits that individuals possess a finite cache of self-resources that are needed, and utilized, when interacting with the social environment, and that the extent to which individuals possess resources represents the extent to which they have *energy* to effectively engage in the wider social context (e.g. Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). Hobfoll (1989) defined resources “as those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects” (p. 516). Overall, COR theory suggests that an important source of resources stems from the social context, such as the support, value and caring an individual receives from others (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll et al., 1990).

Traditionally, COR theory has predominantly focused on deleterious factors that impact self-resources, the steps individuals undertake to conserve their resources, and the overall effect of a critical depletion of resources on individuals (e.g. burnout). However, more recently, COR theorizing has taken a more positivistic approach, such that individuals are seen to be motivated to not just conserve their self-resources, but are also motivated to capitalize on opportunities to acquire additional self-relevant resources (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008). Broadly, Gorgievski & Hobfoll (2008) argued that individuals need to ‘speculate to accumulate’, in that individuals need to expend their self-resources in order to acquire yet greater resources, and further, that this is predominantly an innate subconscious process. In short, individuals are seen to be motivated to acquire additional resources in order to ensure greater levels of well-being (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008).

When considering OST and COR theory together, it can be seen that there are certain conceptual symmetries that exist between the two. For example, in detailing

OST, Eisenberger et al. (2004) note that “for employees, the organization serves as an important source of socio-emotional resources, such as respect and caring” (p. 206); similarly, Hobfoll and his colleagues argue that “social support is the major vehicle by which individuals’ resources are widened outside the limited domain of resources that are contained in the self...” (Hobfoll et al., 1990, p. 467), with social support being seen as “social interactions or relationships that provide individuals with actual assistance or with a feeling of attachment to a person or group that is perceived as caring or loving” (Hobfoll & Stokes, 1988, p. 499).

However, both OST and self-resource theories differ in terms of their explanations for the causal mechanisms behind employees’ behavior. Whereas OST holds that behavior is predominantly driven by a cognitive evaluation of the exchange relationship and motivated by rules and norms associated with reciprocity (Eisenberger et al, 1986, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), COR theory on the other hand, suggests that behavior may be predetermined by the extent to which an individual possesses self-resources, such that individuals are predisposed to engage in behaviors that both conserve and enhance their self-resources, and further, that this motivation may be by-and-large subconscious (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008).

In sum, COR theory suggests that behavior can, to a larger extent, be attributed to the extent to which an individual possesses and has extrapolated self-relevant resources from the work environment, and that these self-resources are not only necessary to avoid negative outcomes (such as stress, burnout, antisocial behavior etc.) but may also provide individuals with the necessary *energy* which enables greater social functioning (e.g. Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Hobfoll, 2011).

6.3.2 The motivation behind the POS-prosocial behavior dynamic: the obligation to reciprocate, or the need for relatedness?

Whilst COR theory may suggest an alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) mechanism (to social exchange and reciprocity accounts) for the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, a potential criticism that could be levied at this theoretical interpretation is that it does not immediately explain *why* POS would *motivate* the employee to engage in prosocial attitudes and behaviors directed towards the organization. In other words, if it were not for the rules and norms associated with social exchange and reciprocity, why would the employee not act in a selfish manner by capitalizing on resources and resisting having to divest their resources (e.g. effort, energy etc.) on others?

A potential answer to this question could come from theories based within evolutionary psychology, which primarily argues that individuals are predisposed to engage in social behaviors, stemming from a primitive motivational instinct which seeks to gain the benefits of group membership (such as survival and betterment - e.g. Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Buss, 1995; Stevens & Fiske, 1995). One such theory that builds on this proposition and has received a significant degree of attention in the broader psychological literature is self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Gagne & Deci, 2005; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Self-determination theory posits that human behavior may best be understood as an adaptive process in which individuals are motivated to fulfill innate and subconscious psychological needs, relating to competence, autonomy, and relatedness. It is the fulfillment of these needs that ultimately serves to increase individual well-being, and, constructive social

development. In providing a broad thesis for self-determination, Deci & Ryan (2000) argued that

“the starting point for [self-determination theory] is the postulate that humans are active, growth-oriented organisms who are naturally inclined toward integration of their psychic elements into a unified sense of self and integration of themselves into larger social structures. In other words, [self-determination theory] suggests that it is part of the adaptive design of the human organism to engage [in] interesting activities, to exercise capacities, to pursue connectedness in social groups, and to integrate intra-psychic and interpersonal experiences into a relative unity” (p. 229).

Self-determination theory defines psychological needs as ‘organismic necessities’ brought about via evolutionary and survival pressures that are essentially ‘hard wired’ into the human subconscious; for example, Deci & Ryan (2000) argued that the need for relatedness “reflects a deep design feature of social organisms” (p. 253). As such, self-determination theory suggests that, whilst belonging within a group offers instrumental benefits to the individual, as opposed to the need being driven by a *rational* and *cognitive* appraisal concerning the acquisition of resources necessary for survival, the underlying motivation may manifest itself through *subconscious* and *emotional* processes such that individuals strive to feel loved and cared for (Ryan, Huta, & Deci, 2008). Thus, self-determination theory suggests that prosocial behavior may be primarily motivated by subconscious need-fulfillment motives as opposed to cognitive and rational evaluations based on exchange obligations. In a similar vein, more recent COR theorization has supported this, suggesting that group membership can bestow (and thus enhance) important self-relevant resources, with Gorgievski & Hobfoll (2008) noting that “one of peoples’

primary resources is having meaningful relationships and belonging to resourceful social groups” (p. 14). Overall, the argument that the need for relatedness is a prime motivation behind human behavior directed towards others has proved to be compelling (e.g. Leary & Downs, 1995).

Conversely, OST’s extant motivational account of prosocial behavior fundamentally differs from self-determination theory’s relatedness motivation, in that prosocial motivation is seen as essentially driven by *quid pro quo* exchange based norms, such that the receipt of favorable treatment leads to obligations to reciprocate with likewise favorable treatment. Interestingly however, in their recent comprehensive review of OST, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) utilize the work of Hill (1987) to suggest that social contact is a key motivator in human behavior and that individuals may only attain certain self-relevant resources (such as self-esteem, affiliation, and emotional support) through social integration.

In sum, by utilizing COR and self-determination theories, it is possible to argue that supportive organizational treatment provides employees with greater self-resources, and that with greater self-resources employees will have greater energy in which to engage in prosocial behavior, motivated by a subconscious predisposition to acquire yet further self-resources from the social context.

6.3.3 Self-resources and engagement

Both self-determination and COR theories are explicit that self-relevant resources essentially manifest themselves as an individual’s intrinsic energy, which in turn fuels and drives human motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Quinn et al., 2012). Taking this further, the literature suggests that the

combination of self-relevant resources, intrinsic energy, and motivation, essentially manifests themselves in greater levels of *engagement* (e.g. Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Crawford et al., 2010; Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008; Halbesleben, 2010; Quinn, et al., 2012; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2009). Whilst there is some debate as to the exact nature of engagement relating to work (c.f. Rich et al., 2010), much of the current interest in the phenomenon can be seen to stem from the works of Khan (1990, 1992) who argued that engagement represents the intensity and persistency an individual invests and applies their self-resources and energies into work related endeavors (c.f. Rich et al., 2010).

However, with regard to the motivation in which individuals apply greater engagement at work, arguably most theorizing within the organizational behavior literature has (like OST) been influenced by social exchange/reciprocity accounts; in that the experience or receipt of positive job-related resources (such as, job characteristics, favorable conditions of the work environment, the supportiveness of supervisors etc.) leads to individuals who are obliged to reciprocate with greater engagement towards organizational related tasks or goals (e.g. Rich et al., 2010; Saks, 2006). Indeed, both Khan (1990) and Rich et al. (2010) suggested that engagement is consciously driven, such that individuals exercise volitional control regarding how persistently and intensely self-resources are invested and applied. Arguably, this is broadly consistent with OST's premise that through a cognitive appraisal of the receipt of organizational support, employees essentially choose the extent to which they direct prosocial behaviors towards the organization.

Conversely, recent theorizing concerning COR suggests that engagement is the result “of the inverted process of real or anticipated resource gain *enhancing* energetic resources” (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008, p. 10); in other words, engagement may result from an individual’s *subconscious* attempt to enhance levels of self-resources. As such, whilst engagement may represent the expending and/or consumption of self-resources, COR theory suggests that individuals may have a predisposition to do so in order to solicit yet greater levels of resources (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008). Therefore, whilst both OST and COR theories differ in explaining the causal mechanisms that lead to behavior, they do however suggest that supportive organizational treatment will increase employees’ self-resources, which (following the above reasoning), would manifest itself in greater levels of engagement. Indeed, OST holds that, with greater POS (which is theorized to be a direct corollary to the receipt of supportive organizational treatment), employees will increase their levels of *effort* in reciprocating the organization (e.g. Rhoades, et al., 2001).

6.3.4 Perceived organizational support and emotional engagement

Until more recently, there have been very few empirical studies that have examined the relationship between POS and engagement; however, recently both Saks (2006) and Rich et al. (2010) found a positive relationship between POS and engagement. Yet, importantly, both studies utilized an exchange-based theoretical approach to explain this relationship. Conversely, by utilizing key tenets from COR and self-determination theories, this study argues that this relationship could also be explained by the mechanism of self-related resources and the motivation for greater relatedness.

To explain further, when examining the concept more closely, the literature suggests that engagement is an amalgamation of three distinct subsets which relate to physical, cognitive, and emotional engagement (e.g. Rich et al, 2010). Physical engagement relates to the increased amount, and the extended period in which, employees invest physical energy towards a certain foci/endeavor; cognitive engagement relates to the increased amount, and the extended period in which, employees invest their attention and mental effort towards a certain foci/endeavor; whilst emotional engagement can be seen to relate to the increased amount, and the extended period in which, employees invest their emotional connection and bonding with, a certain foci/endeavor (Khan, 1990). However, neither Saks (2006) nor Rich et al. (2010) looked to theoretically or empirically analyze the direct effect POS has on each of these sub-constructs. Importantly, by utilizing a key tenet from self-determination theory it is possible to argue that POS may have varying degrees of influence on each subset of engagement. For example, Deci & Ryan (2000) suggest that a motivation towards growth in a certain motivational domain (i.e. either relatedness, competence, or autonomy) may be dependent on the extent that necessary resources (or as they describe, ‘nutriments’) are there to facilitate such ‘growth’. In other words, an individual’s ability to engage in behavior that enhances relatedness, for example, may be influenced by the degree to which the individual has received relatedness-specific resources from the external social environment.

As highlighted earlier, self-determination theory’s conceptualization of the need for relatedness (i.e. the need to feel loved and cared for) essentially shares the same characteristics as OST’s definition of socio-emotional needs (in that employees are seen to possess needs of esteem, caring, approval and affiliation - Armeli et al., 1998; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Therefore, when considering OST’s

premise that POS signifies the extent to which an employee believes they are valued and cared for by the organization, POS may represent the degree to which the individual has received emotional resources from the organization. In turn, utilizing self-determination theory, this suggests that, with such POS, employees will possess emotional energy in which to further expend towards relatedness (i.e. loving and caring) behaviors. Thus, greater POS should facilitate greater emotional engagement, as emotional engagement relates to the greater investment of energy towards social connectedness (e.g. Rich et al., 2010). Conversely, this reasoning (i.e. that like resources lead to like energies) also suggests that POS (again, which represents the belief of being valued and cared for by the organization, and is thus emotionally orientated) will be unrelated to cognitive and physical engagement, as they are in essence instrumentally orientated in nature (i.e. they concern the investment of cognitive focus and physical effort towards achieving work-related tasks and goals - e.g. Rich et al., 2010).

Therefore, it is possible to reason that evidence that POS is positively related to emotional as opposed to cognitive and physical engagement, may go some way to support the argument that self-related resources and the need for relatedness act as an important mechanism and motivation within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. To clarify further, by utilizing exchange-based explanations, extant OST suggests that employees engage in a cognitive and rational appraisal of the receipt of favorable resources from the organization, and subsequently look to engage in attitudes and behaviors that benefit the organization. If this is the case, it would be reasonable to assume that employees' POS would be positively related to all three types of engagement, such that employees invest their "hands, head, & heart" (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995, p.110) in order to reciprocate supportive treatment (for a pictorial

interpretation see figure 6.1). Indeed, certain scholars argue that engagement can be volitionally controlled and directed, and when done so, this necessarily represents the conscious effort to invest the ‘full-self’ (i.e. emotional, cognitive and physical facets) into endeavors (e.g. Khan, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). Conversely, evidence that POS is only related to emotional engagement, would lend weight to the argument that the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic operates via innate and subconscious functions related to employees’ intrinsic energies and resources (for a pictorial interpretation see figure 6.2). Indeed, it may be interesting to note that extant research has demonstrated a rather weak relationship between POS and task performance (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), which in itself may suggest that POS has a somewhat limited influence on cognitive and physical engagement.

Hypothesis 1: POS will be positively related to a) emotional engagement, as opposed to b) cognitive engagement, and c) physical engagement

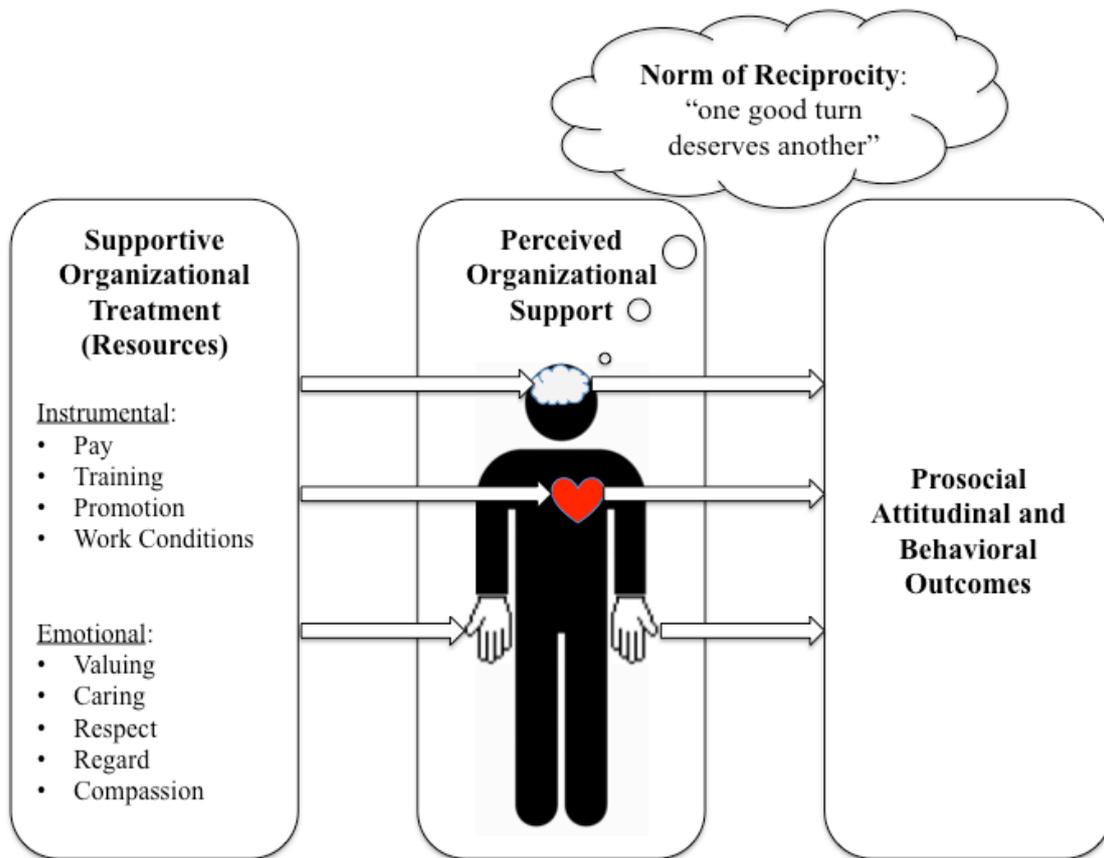


Figure 6.1: A pictorial interpretation of the cognitive/conscious activation of the norm of reciprocity between the receipt of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. resources) and prosocial outcomes; with POS implying greater cognitive (head), emotional (heart) and physical (hands) engagement

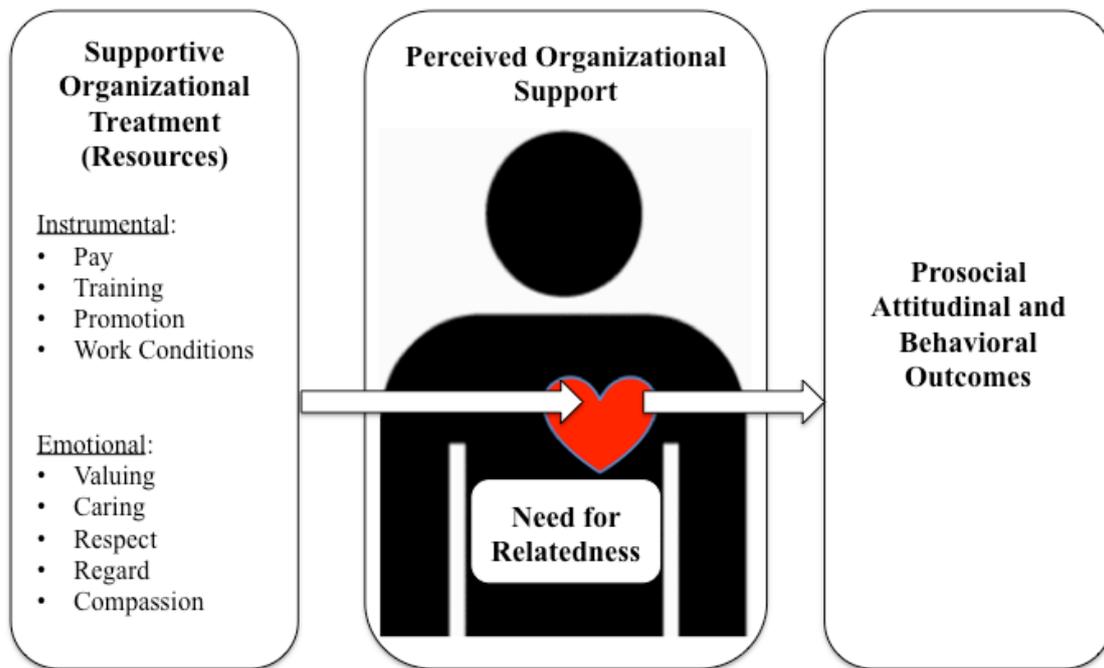


Figure 6.2: A pictorial interpretation detailing the effects of self-relevant resources and the need for relatedness on employees' POS, emotional engagement, and subsequent prosocial outcomes

6.3.5 Emotional engagement and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes

With regard to the outcomes of engagement, there is a burgeoning literature that suggests increased engagement (per se) leads to greater proactive and prosocial attitudes and behaviors (e.g. Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; Weigl, Hornung, Parker, Petru, Glaser, & Angerer, 2010; for a review see Halbesleben, 2010; Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002). However, Rich et al. (2010) suggest that the application of engagement differs between each type of engagement. For example, physical engagement manifests itself in increased levels of effort, whilst cognitive

engagement manifests itself in greater attention, focus and vigilance. Of particular interest to this study, Rich and his colleagues suggest that emotional engagement essentially manifests itself via the promotion of greater ‘connection’ with others in the pursuit of organizational goals. As such, similarities can be drawn between emotional engagement and self-determination theory’s motivational need for relatedness.

This suggests that emotional engagement should be positively related to attitudes and behaviors that essentially promote greater relatedness between the employee and the organization. Given this reasoning, emotional engagement should be positively related to organizational identification (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Mael & Ashforth, 1992) as recent research suggests that relatedness-based attitudes and behaviors generalize to form greater identification with the organization (Sluss, Ployhart, Cobb, & Ashforth, 2012). Broadly, organizational identification concerns the extent to which the employee perceives a sense of ‘oneness’ with the organization and its goals, as well as the emotional significance of membership with/within the organization (e.g. Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008). As such, organizational identification may most accurately capture the socio-emotional manifestation of relatedness (e.g. Ashforth et al., 2008; Sluss, Klimchak, & Holmes, 2008).

Similarly, in order to foster relatedness, employees should look for ways in which to enhance the organization. While task performance may be directly related to furthering organizational goals, the motivation to engage in such performance may not necessarily relate to a desire to benefit the organization (e.g. the employee may find intrinsic satisfaction through engaging in the work task per se – c.f. Deci & Ryan, 2000); thus, task performance may be a poor indicator of a relatedness motive. However, on the other hand, organizational citizenship behaviors targeted towards the

organization (OCB-O) are conceptualized as discretionary behaviors directly intended to benefit the organization (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). OCBs are seen as containing one or more of the following elements: altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, civic virtue and sportsmanship (Organ, 1988) and additionally, peacekeeping and cheerleading (Organ, 1990), which overall, enhances and facilitates organizational effectiveness (Organ, 1988). Essentially, OCBs are conceptualized as behavior that goes over and beyond explicit and specified (i.e. contractual) expectations of job performance, is altruistic in nature, and is engaged in by the employee with the express intent of benefiting the organization (Dalal, 2005; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Hypothesis 2: Emotional engagement will be positively related to a) organizational identification and b) OCB-O.

Likewise, emotional engagement should be negatively related to attitudes and behaviors that are deleterious for the organization and the employee-organization relationship. As such, emotional engagement should be negatively related to intention to quit, as this signals an employee's intent to terminate the relationship (and thus relatedness) with the organization. Further, intention to quit may signal not just the desire to terminate the relationship in the future but may also represent a current state of psychological detachment; as Burriss and his colleagues noted, employees may 'mentally quit' the organization long before their actual exit (Burriss, Detert, & Chiaburu, 2008).

Hypothesis 3: Emotional engagement will be negatively related to intention to quit.

6.3.6 Emotional engagement as a mediator between POS and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes

Thus far, it has been argued that POS is likely to provide employees with an emotional resource that leads to emotional engagement, and further, that emotional engagement is likely to have positive relationships with relatedness-orientated outcomes of organizational identification and OCB-Os, and subsequently a negative relationship with intention to quit. Broadly, this reasoning suggests that emotional engagement will mediate the relationship between POS and the various outcome variables. Of note is that extant empirical findings indicate that POS has a positive relationship with organizational identification (e.g. Sluss et al., 2008) and OCB-O (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and a negative relationship with intention to quit (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Given this, evidence that emotional engagement mediates these relationships may further substantiate the premise that employees' self-relevant resources act as a subconscious mechanism within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic.

Hypothesis 4: Emotional engagement will mediate the relationship between POS and a) organizational identification, b) OCB-O, and c) intention to quit, whilst accounting for the effects of both cognitive and physical engagement.

6.4 Method

6.4.1 Participants

Employees from a large UK public sector hospital were invited to participate in a longitudinal online survey via an email to their work email accounts. The invitation email emphasized that participation was entirely voluntary, strictly confidential, and anonymously collated. Each individual was provided with a unique identifier code so that responses could be matched between time 1 and time 2 (five months later). Out of the 3340 hospital employees, 480 responded to the survey in time 1 (14.4% response rate), and of these 161 filled out the second survey five months later (time 2). Out of the 161 respondents, 71.2% were female, 28.8% were male; 79.3% were ethnically white British, white Irish, or white from another background, 6.5% were Asian (i.e. India, Pakistan etc.), 7.4% were Black, 1.8% were mixed origin, whilst the remaining 6.4% classed themselves as “Other”; the mean age was 49.7 years (s.d. 9.8 years); organizational tenure was on average 6.6 years (s.d. 6.4 years); 96% were full-time employees; 37.1% held managerial and/or clerical roles, 28.8% were either nurses or midwives, 11.2% were allied health professionals (e.g. physiotherapists, radiographers, dieticians etc.), 10.6% were scientific and technical professionals (e.g. pharmacists, psychologists, therapists etc.), 7.1% were medical doctors or surgeons, and the remaining 5.2% included other roles such as laboratory workers etc.

6.4.2 Measures

6.4.2.1 Perceived organizational support

POS was measured at time 1 using the shortened survey of perceived organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1986) which uses eight of the highest loading items from the original 36 item measure. The items used a seven point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. This measure includes items such as “[*the organization*] values my contribution to its well-being” and “[*the organization*] would ignore any complaint from me (R)”. Cronbach’s alpha was .92.

6.4.2.2 Emotional engagement, cognitive engagement, and physical engagement

The three types of engagement were measured at time 2 using Rich et al.’s (2010) emotional, cognitive and physical engagement scales. Each scale comprised of six items and utilized a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items from the emotional engagement scale include “I am enthusiastic in my job” and “ I feel positive about my job”. Example items from the cognitive engagement scale include “At work, my mind is focused on my job” and “At work, I concentrate on my job”. Example items from the physical engagement scale include “I devote a lot of energy to my job” and “I work with intensity on my job”. Cronbach’s alpha was .93, .95, and .93 respectively.

6.4.2.3 Organizational identification

Organizational identification was measured at time 2 using Mael & Ashforth’s (1992) six item measure. The items used a seven point Likert scale ranging from

“strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Example items include: “[*the organization’s*] successes are my successes” and “When I talk about [*the organization*], I usually say “we rather than ‘they’”. Cronbach’s alpha .88.

6.4.2.4 Organizational citizenship behaviors (aimed towards the organization)

OCB-O was measured at time 2 using Lee & Allen’s (2002) eight item measure. The items used a five point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “very often”. Example items include: “Defend [*the organization*] when other employees criticize it” and “Take action to protect [*the organization*] from potential problems”. Cronbach’s alpha .90.

6.4.2.5 Intention to quit

Intention to quit was measured at time 2 using two items that focused on contemplating and planning to leave the organization developed by Schaubroeck, Cotton, & Jennings (1989). The items used a five point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. These items were “I often think about quitting” and “I will probably look for a new job in the next year”. Cronbach’s alpha was .84.

6.5 Analysis and Results

Table 6.1 details the descriptive statistics and zero-order correlations among the study variables, including means, standard deviations and internal consistency

reliability. These correlations reveal that POS and all three types of engagement possess statistically significant relationships with all of the hypothesized attitudinal and behavioral outcome variables. However, of particular interest, and consistent with expectations, POS is positively and statistically significantly correlated with emotional engagement, but not to cognitive and physical engagement. As such, this may provide initial evidence to support this study's theoretical stance.

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics and correlations for study variables

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. POS	4.44	1.15	(.92)						
2. Emotional Engagement	3.90	0.76	.40**	(.93)					
3. Cognitive Engagement	4.15	0.62	.13	.54**	(.95)				
4. Physical Engagement	4.18	0.61	.11	.59**	.79**	(.93)			
5. Organizational Identification	4.67	1.16	.43**	.42**	.26**	.31**	(.88)		
6. OCB-O	3.42	0.80	.50**	.53**	.33**	.35**	.70**	(.90)	
7. Intention to Quit	2.78	1.20	-.59**	-.55**	-.22**	-.19*	-.36**	-.46**	(.84)

Cronbach's alpha reliabilities in parentheses.

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

In order to ascertain the replicability of findings, an additional field study collected data from 99 employees who were members of a management development program within a major logistics company based in the UK. Due to the modest sample size, it was not possible to conduct more complex statistical analysis, however,

correlational relationships between POS, emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement, were consistent with the main sample, as well as measures demonstrating similar reliabilities. As such, this additional sample helps provide additional confidence that findings within the main sample did not occur purely by chance.

Table 6.2: Descriptive statistics and correlations for an additional sample of employees within a graduate recruitment program within an international logistics company based in the UK (n=99), concerning the study variables of POS, emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4
1. POS	5.13	0.98	(.89)			
2. Emotional Engagement	4.27	0.65	.44**	(.92)		
3. Cognitive Engagement	4.20	0.55	.08	.50**	(.93)	
4. Physical Engagement	4.39	0.56	-.04	.35**	.67**	(.92)

Cronbach's alpha reliabilities in parentheses.

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

In order to assess the validity and reliability of the measurement scales utilized, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted on both the mediator and outcome variables. Specifically, Rich et al. (2010) treated emotional, cognitive, and physical

engagement as subsets of an overall measure of job engagement, as such, it was important for this study to ascertain the discriminant validity of the three types of engagement. The results of the CFA demonstrated that each of the three types of engagement loaded onto a separate factor whilst demonstrating a good fit in an absolute sense ($\chi^2(132) = 396.18$; CFI = .92; Tucker-Lewis Index = .90; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .06), and that the three factor model provided a significantly better fit than a one factor model ($\chi^2(135) = 1152.45$; CFI = .67; Tucker-Lewis Index = .63; RMSEA = .21; SRMR = .12) as well as providing a better fit than a one factor second order model ($\chi^2(133) = 396.20$; CFI = .92; Tucker-Lewis Index = .90; RMSEA = .11; SRMR = .06). Thus, the results of the CFA suggested the distinctiveness of the measures. To further ascertain the distinctive validity of the three engagement measures, the Fornell & Larker (1981) test of discriminant validity was conducted. In essence, this test requires that the average variance extracted from the items within each scale, exceed the square of the correlations between other constructs (Fornell & Larker, 1981). Specifically, this test found that emotional engagement (average .70) is clearly distinct from cognitive and physical engagement (with squared correlations of .37 and .28 respectively), cognitive engagement (average .79) is clearly distinct from emotional engagement but more highly correlated with physical engagement (with squared correlations of .28 and .66 respectively), whilst physical engagement (average .69) is clearly distinct from emotional engagement but more highly correlated with cognitive engagement (with squared correlations of .37 and .66 respectively). Thus, results of this test demonstrate that the three measures are sufficiently distinct (indeed, whilst cognitive and physical engagement were relatively highly correlated at .66, this is within the acceptable discriminant threshold of $<.85$ – Kline, 2010). A CFA was also run on the three outcome variables, which demonstrated that each of the three

variables loaded onto a separate factor whilst also demonstrating an acceptable fit ($\chi^2(101) = 247.21$; CFI = .91; Tucker-Lewis Index = .89; RMSEA = .09; SRMR = .06).

In order to fully test the hypotheses, the data were assessed and fitted utilizing a path analysis model. Due to the fact that the hypothesized model utilized a single independent variable, a saturated path model was utilized (thus, fit indices are not relevant in this instance as the model tested and controlled for all possible paths). The standardized path estimates (as depicted in figure 6.3) indicate that POS was positively and significantly related to emotional engagement (.25 $p < .01$), whilst relationships between POS and cognitive engagement (.07, $p > .05$) and POS and physical engagement (.05, $p > .05$), were not established; thus the results supported hypothesis 1. Further, emotional engagement was found to have statistically significant relationships with organizational identification (.30 $p < .05$), OCB-O (.32 $p < .01$), and intention to quit (-.70 $p < .01$); thus these results supported hypothesis 2a, 2b, and 3. As such, the path analysis thus far concurs with the supposition that emotional engagement has a mediating influence on the relationships between POS and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

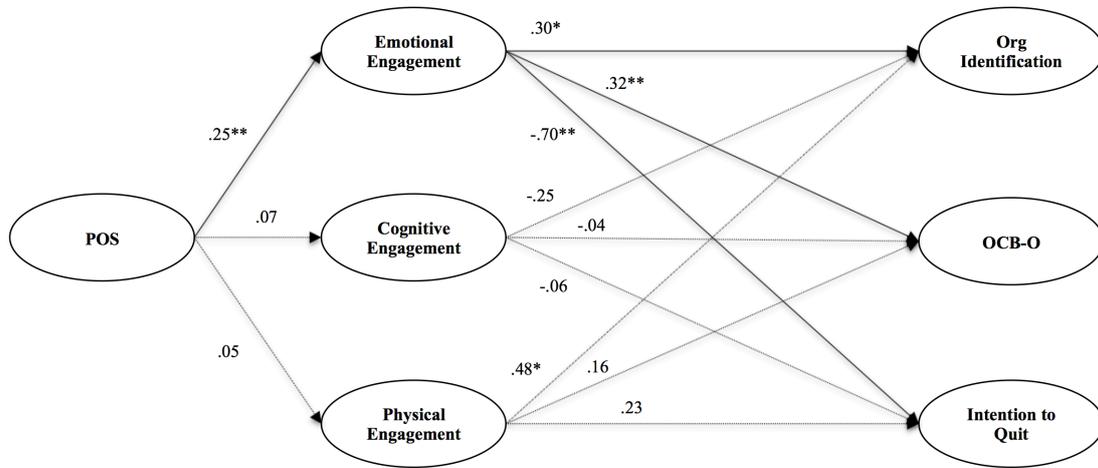


Figure 6.3: Structured path analysis of the mediating effect of emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement on the relationships between POS and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

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

In order to more accurately examine mediation, the indirect relationships attributable to emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement were analyzed. The results of this analysis can be seen in table 6.3. Hypothesis 4a suggested that the relationship between POS and organizational identification would be mediated via emotional engagement, however this was not supported by the findings ($b = .07$, $SE = .04$, $Z = 1.87$, $p > .05$), albeit with a p-value of .06 this could arguably be considered borderline, and the hypothesis would have been supported had the criteria been at the 90% confidence level. Consistent with hypothesis 4b, POS was found to have a statistically significant indirect association via emotional engagement on OCB-O ($b =$

.08, $SE = .03$, $Z = 2.61$ $p < .01$). Consistent with hypothesis 4c, POS was found to have a statistically significant indirect negative association via emotional engagement on intention to quit ($b = -.17$, $SE = .04$, $Z = -3.84$, $p < .01$).

Table 6.3: Test of indirect effects via emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement.

Relationship	Indirect Effect Through		
	Emotional Engagement	Cognitive Engagement	Physical Engagement
POS → Organizational Identification	.07†	-.02	.03
POS → OCB-O	.08**	-.00	.01
POS → Intention to Quit	-.17**	-.00	.01

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

6.6 Discussion

Whilst the POS construct has relied almost exclusively on exchange and reciprocal based accounts in detailing the mechanism and motivation within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, the aim of this study was to explore whether self-relevant resources (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008) and the need for relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2000) could equally provide an alternative (i.e. additional/complimentary) and plausible explanation for this phenomenon. As such, utilizing COR and self-determination theories, this study argued that greater POS equates to employees

possessing greater emotional resources, which in turn is manifested as greater emotional energy, and again in turn, enables employees to pursue innate needs. Further, it was argued that POS fulfills the innate socio-emotional need for relatedness, and thus likewise, POS also facilitates greater emotionally-based attitudes and behaviors. Using engagement as a proxy for this dynamic, as well as utilizing key tenets from COR and self-determination theories it was argued that POS would have a differing effect on emotional engagement, as opposed to cognitive and physical engagement; this is in contrast to tenets from extant OST and exchange based accounts which suggest that POS would have an equally positive effect on all three types of engagement. Specifically, following this reasoning a self-relevant resources/relatedness approach suggests that the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic would operate through the medium of emotional engagement alone (due to tenet that 'like' resources result in 'like' energies – Deci & Ryan, 2000), whereas in contrast, exchange based accounts suggest the dynamic would operate through all three engagement dimensions (i.e. emotional, cognitive, and physical) due to an assumption that engagement is volitional in nature, and that the employee would more greatly exert the 'full-self' in an attempt to reciprocate supportive organizational treatment.

Due to the latent and abstract nature of the theories covered in this study (and theories in general - e.g. Suddaby, 2010; Weick, 1989), it is not possible for these theories to be directly observed, but instead they are substantiated through the inferential observation of relationships between independent and dependent variables (e.g. Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007). Given this, the findings of this study do indeed allude support for the self-relevant resources/relatedness approach. As such, the primary theoretical contribution of this study is the extension of OST to additionally

account for the mechanism of self-relevant resources and the motivational need for relatedness within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic.

Specifically, as hypothesized, POS was found to be significantly and positively related to emotional engagement, whilst further, (as hypothesized) significant relationships were not established between POS and cognitive engagement and POS and physical engagement. Arguably, this lends weight to the argument that POS essentially functions as an emotional resource. Indeed, this logic is consistent with OST's premise that supportive organizational treatment possesses socio-emotional resources that help fulfill employees' socio-emotional needs (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1986, 2004). Further, POS in itself, is conceptualized as an attribution that the organization values and cares for the employee, which intuitively suggests POS is fundamentally emotional in nature. Thus by utilizing self-determination theory's tenet that 'like' resources are both needed and substantiate 'like' energies (Deci & Ryan, 2000), it arguably goes to reason that greater POS should relate to greater emotional engagement. However, extant OST also holds that as well as helping fulfill socio-emotional needs, supportive organizational treatment also possesses practical and instrumental utility which (again using self-determination theory's tenet of like resources resulting in like energies) would suggest that POS should also relate to employees demonstrating greater cognitive and physical energies. However, as has been highlighted, this study did not find a relationship between POS and cognitive engagement, nor POS and physical engagement. In short, the findings of this study suggest a potentially important clarification with regards to the nature of, and effects of, POS, such that POS may be most usefully seen as an emotional resource that in turn provides employees with greater emotional energy (i.e. emotional engagement).

Similarly, the finding that POS was significantly and positively related to emotional engagement and not to cognitive and physical engagement also lends weight to the argument that this relationship may essentially be subconscious in nature. OST holds that, with the receipt of supportive organizational treatment, employees cognitively evaluate reciprocal obligations, and subsequently, consciously direct their reciprocal efforts accordingly. If this were the case, it may be fair to assume that employees would equally utilize cognitive and physical energies when engaging in reciprocal attitudes and behaviors. Indeed, Kahn (1990) for example suggests that through the volitional channeling of engagement towards a certain foci, individuals utilize all three facets of engagement. With regard to POS, Saks (2006) argued that greater POS relates to a greater obligation to help the organization achieve its objectives through greater engagement in task-related/instrumental endeavors. Alternatively, other scholars have suggested that POS facilitates greater psychological safety (i.e. a notion of being valued and cared for, and thus there being a lesser threat of negative consequences) resulting in individuals being more inclined to consciously invest their entire self-related energies into work related tasks (e.g. Rich et al., 2010). However, again, the lack of a relationship between POS and either cognitive and/or physical engagement may inadvertently lend weight to the argument that POS operates subconsciously rather than consciously. Thus, this study further extends OST in that, rather than being wholly conscious/cognitive in nature, the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic could in fact be equally explained via subconscious motivations. Indeed, whilst there is debate (c.f. Baumeister, Masicampo, & Vohs, 2011), some scholars have argued that a significant proportion of behavior can be attributed to subconscious (as opposed to cognitive) processes (e.g. Dijksterhuis, Chartrand, & Aarts, 2007).

More broadly, this study may also have important implications for the engagement literature. For example, scholars have suggested that in essence engagement represents the investment of an individual's complete self into work-related endeavors; thus, engagement has been conceptualized as the simultaneous investment of emotional, cognitive, and physical energies (i.e. the 'full self' - Khan, 1990; Rich et al., 2010). However, the findings of this study run contra to this assumption, showing that the three types of engagement were conceptually distinct, and implying that each may have differing characteristics as they relate to certain antecedents and outcomes (indeed, in support of viewing engagement in a multi-dimensional manner, there is an emerging literature, for example, that concerns aging in relation to individuals' resources and their subsequent desire to expend cognitive effort on tasks – e.g. Hess, 2014). Again, whilst scholars have argued that engagement is essentially volitionally controlled, by utilizing COR and self-determination theories this study suggests that engagement may also be subject to subconscious mechanisms relating to resources and innate motivations regarding relatedness. As such, this study may also contribute to the engagement literature, given that certain scholars (e.g. Rich et al., 2010) have called for greater integration of engagement with motivation theories.

This study also tested the relationship between emotional engagement and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, and found that, as predicted, emotional engagement was significantly and positively related to organizational identification and OCB-O, and significantly and negatively related to intention to quit. Further, as hypothesized, emotional engagement was found to mediate the relationship between POS and OCB-O, and POS and intention to quit, whilst accounting for cognitive and physical engagement within the model. Essentially these findings further illuminate

our understanding of POS and its effect on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, in that emotional engagement can be seen to provide employees with the necessary energy to engage in behaviors that enhance the organization, and attitudes that confirm the employee's desire to remain within the organization; thus, overall, demonstrating a desire for relatedness.

However, of equal interest is the hypothesis concerning the mediating effect of emotional engagement on the relationship between POS and organizational identification that was not supported. Whilst initial path analysis suggested support for the hypothesis, a further test of indirect effects failed to substantiate this (albeit this result was arguably borderline at $p = .06$). This is surprising as Eisenberger and his colleagues have posited that fulfillment of socio-emotional needs may have a profound effect on the self, such that the individual integrates the organization into his/her self-concept (Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). In hindsight, one potential reason why support was not found for this hypothesis may come from the nature of the sample itself; in that the sample consisted of a significant number of individuals who may possess strong professional identification(s) (e.g. such as doctors, nurses, pharmacists, etc.). As such, this may have impacted on the strength of perceptions regarding organizational identification (for example, certain scholars have argued, and found evidence to suggest, that professional identification can influence the way, and extent to which, employees identify with their employing organization – e.g. Hekman, Bigley, Steensma, & Hereford, 2009).

Overall, this study acknowledges that social exchange and reciprocity accounts are widely accepted and influential within the literature and offer a parsimonious and intuitive account of the dynamic between POS and prosocial outcomes. However,

equally, in certain circumstances self-resources and relatedness needs may arguably offer a more intuitive and parsimonious account. For example, extant OST suggests that favorable treatment should lead the recipient to possess a 'liking' for the organization, and that such liking (in itself) is motivated by a reciprocal norm to convey positive attitudes towards those that treat you well (Eisenberger et al., 2001). However, in such a circumstance, 'liking' could arguably be more intuitively and parsimoniously interpreted as an innate social attraction to those who treat one favorably. In short, this study does not look to refute social exchange and reciprocal accounts within the POS construct, rather this study aimed to explore whether self-resources and the need for relatedness could offer a plausible alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) perspective that could enrich our understanding of the POS phenomenon.

6.6.1 Practical implications

While the overarching aim of this study was to theoretically and empirically extend OST and the POS construct, the study does suggest a number of practical implications. Primarily, the findings suggest that employees' emotional engagement may play an important role in facilitating attitudes and behaviors that benefit the organization. As such, organizations should look for ways to increase employees' perceptions of being valued and cared for (i.e. POS). This is consistent with the extant POS literature, but, whilst OST suggests that supportive organizational treatment has both emotional and practical utility, this study's findings suggest that it is in fact the emotional element of supportive organizational treatment that drives and motivates employees to act in a prosocial manner. Taking this reasoning and applying it to the practical setting, organizations may wish to emphasize the emotional aspects of

supportive organizational treatment, over and above that of such treatment's practical/instrumental utility. For example, it is possible to envisage that training and development could be communicated to employees as having practical utility in advancing employees' skills and knowledge, therefore enhancing employees' performance in order to better meet organizational goals. Communicating this arguably highlights the tangible quid pro quo nature of training and development for both the organization and the employee. However, an emphasis on training and development as being a reward for past efforts, or as showing some form of benevolent interest in employees' betterment (per se), may arguably convey a greater sense of being valued and cared for by the organization. The findings of this study suggest that such an approach should increase employees' emotional energies, and thus, increase employees' emotional engagement.

6.6.2 Study limitations and future research

There are a number of potential limitations to this study. To recap, the study looked to extend the POS construct by utilizing COR and self-determination theories by examining whether self-relevant resources and the need for relatedness could offer an alternative explanation with regards to the mechanisms and motivations associated with the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic (as opposed to social exchange and reciprocal accounts alone). As such, one of the potential limitations of this study is that it did not contrast the influence of exchange related variables within the overall empirical model. One such variable could be that of felt obligation, which represents an individual's prescriptive belief that one should care for the organization and help the organization achieve its goals (Eisenberger et al., 2001). This study elected not to capture felt obligation as the linkage between POS and felt obligation has already

been empirically established (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2001). However, more importantly, there are reasons to speculate that felt obligation may not necessarily stem from a rational and cognitive evaluation of the exchange relationship. For example, in line with theorizing related to evolutionary psychology, felt obligation could represent the manifestation of an innate motivational force, which seeks greater relatedness (i.e. social bonds) to those that are/have been benevolent and/or beneficial to the individual (conversely, low felt obligation could represent an innate reactionary response to those that are unbeneficial and/or malevolent to the individual, thus drawing distance between the individual and those that may potentially be detrimental to them). Thus, rather than simply being conscious and rational in nature, felt obligation could plausibly stem from subconscious and rudimentary needs relating to betterment and survival. Having said this, future research may wish to account for, and thus contrast between, innate/subconscious vis-à-vis rational/conscious mechanisms within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic.

Similarly, future research might wish to account for *actual* supportive organizational treatment and the effect this has on employees' emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement. Whilst POS represents an attribution that (this study suggests) is fundamentally emotional in nature, actual supportive organizational treatment is conceptualized as being both emotional (i.e. caring, respect, regard etc.) and instrumental (i.e. job conditions, rewards, promotions, training etc.) in nature. In accordance with the rationale of this study, it is possible to speculate that such instrumental treatment should provide employees with greater instrumental resources, which in turn should relate to greater cognitive and physical engagement. Testing this may necessitate an experimental research design, and it would be interesting to see

whether (in this context) the relationship between such instrumental supportive treatment and the various types of engagement, operate directly, or via POS.

As mentioned earlier, another limitation may reside in the nature of the main sample, in that it may have had an influence on some of the hypothesized relationships. For example, the sample consisted of a significant number of employees who are part of a profession (e.g. doctors, nurses etc.), and thus these individuals may be more inclined to identify with their professions as opposed to the organization (e.g. Heckman et al., 2009). Thus, this may have influenced the mediating effect of emotional engagement on the POS and organizational identification relationship (i.e. it is possible to speculate that this may have weakened the mediating effect). Hence, future studies may wish to replicate this study within a different organizational/professional setting.

Finally, the self-report nature of the study may have meant that the findings could have been influenced by the inflating (and/or, deflating) effect of common method variance (Podsakof, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakof, 2003). In order to limit such effects, data were collected at two different points in time, separated by five months. Further, it was stressed that questionnaires were completely confidential, with respondents being provided with a unique anonymous identifier code, and that no members of the organization would be privy to responses. However, of note, it remains debatable as to the actual effect of common method variance on data and its findings, with certain scholars arguing that the effects have been overstated and may produce negligible measurement error effects (e.g. Chan, 2009; Conway & Lance, 2010; Spector, 2006).

6.7 Conclusion

Whilst social exchange and reciprocity accounts offer a parsimonious and intuitive interpretation of the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic (such that “one good turn deserves another”), as well as being widely accepted and influential within the literature, its support has been inferred via the observed interrelation of certain variables (i.e. such that when employees report that they feel supported by the organization, and thus have heightened POS, they are more likely to report prosocial attitudes and behaviors such as OCB-O, organizational identification etc.). With this in mind, through a process of theoretical deduction, the aim of this study was to examine whether self-relevant resources and the need for relatedness could provide a plausible and valid alternative account of the mechanisms within, and motivations behind, the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. The findings of this study do indeed suggest that this is likely to be the case. Put into simple terms, rather than representing “one good turn deserves another”, the findings of this study suggest that the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic might best be described as “one good turn facilitates another”. Hence, whereas extant OST has relied solely on social exchange and reciprocal accounts regarding the POS phenomenon, this study may provide an important extension to the construct. Specifically, this study suggests that future theorizing and research regarding organizational support should take into greater account the emotional and subconscious facets that may feasibly operate within this dynamic.

6.8 References

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7.1 Introduction

The aim of each of the three papers (and as such this thesis) has been to expand and develop our understanding with regards to the perceived organizational support (POS) construct and organizational support theory (OST) by taking an investigative reexamination of extant assumptions and viewpoints. In essence, by highlighting gaps/confounds within the extant literature, and/or by exploring potential alternative interpretations, each paper has looked to utilize additional literatures and theories to provide a different (or refocused) lens through which to view and understand the organizational support phenomenon. The aim of this final conclusory chapter is to provide an overarching discussion of the strengths and limitations of this research when considered as a whole, to suggest potential future directions that scholars might wish to pursue in light of the theoretical and empirical findings within this thesis, and to explore some of the broader practical implications that would appear salient for organizational practitioners. However, before doing so, this chapter will firstly provide a review of the key arguments and findings of each of the papers, as well as the main contributions these papers offer the POS/OST literature.

7.2 Review of the Key Questions, Arguments, Findings, Contributions and Implications of the Three Papers

7.2.1 Paper 1: The Social Comparison of Supportive Organizational Treatment: A Closer Examination of Perceived Organizational Support in the Social Context

7.2.1.1 *Question: How does the social context influence the individual's perception of organizational supportiveness?*

In line with the call made by Shore & Shore (1995), the theoretical motivation behind the first paper was to try to ascertain greater construct clarity with regard to the influence of the social context within organizational support phenomena. In this respect, this paper highlighted two central tenets of OST that, when considered together, presented an apparent paradox. Firstly, OST holds that supportive organizational treatment increases POS for *both* those who directly receive such treatment, *as well as*, increasing POS for those who do not receive such treatment but whom observe its receipt amongst fellow coworkers. Broadly, OST reasons that due to the collective ties employees' share with coworkers, the favorable treatment of other employees relays cues of the organization's value and caring for employees in general, and thus thereby, *indirectly* relaying the organization's value and caring for the individual whom did not directly receive the supportive resource (e.g. Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage, & Sucharski, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011).

However secondly, in contrast, OST is also grounded in a rationale that relates to the fairness and equity of exchange relationships, such that POS is by and large dependent on the individual deeming the employee-organization relationship (EOR) to be fair, equitable, and balanced (e.g. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa 1986; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Shore & Shore, 1995). Theoretically, this is potentially problematic when considering the likely possibility any given employee may observe others being in receipt of supportive organizational treatment, yet they themselves have not have been in receipt of such supportive treatment, which in turn would suggest that the aforementioned employee is relatively disadvantaged and/or under-benefited in comparison (and thus, implying a negative effect on POS).

Essentially, this paper argued that we are unsure as to the componentry nature of, and the attributional processes that lead towards, POS; and specifically, the extent to which employees form perceptions of organizational supportiveness based on appraisals which are individualistic-based (i.e. the receipt of treatment/resources the individual receives relative to others) versus collectivistic/group-based (i.e. the treatment/resources coworkers/employees receive per se) in nature. Given this, this study purposely looked to examine how an individualistic comparative appraisal of organizational support (i.e. perceived organizational support social comparison - POSSC) related to POS, as well as how POSSC related to various attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Thus, the aim of this paper was to achieve greater clarity and understanding with regards to the influence of the social context and social comparison within organizational support phenomena.

7.2.1.2 *Key findings*

The findings suggest that POS (i.e. the actual perception/attribution) is more complex than is currently assumed. Indeed, this study demonstrated that an employee can distinguish the support the individual receives directly from the organization in comparison to others (i.e. POSSC), and further that this perception is distinct to a broader *generalized* perception of support (i.e. POS). Thus, findings supported the proposition that POS may be best seen as a generalized attribution that incorporates *both* individualistic and collectivistic/group-based appraisals of organizational support.

Specifically, POSSC accounted for additional variance over and above POS with regards to organizational identification, organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization (OCB-O), organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) and perceptions of politics (POP). However, interestingly, the mechanism of perceived relative over-benefit (i.e. POSSC positive) operated differently to perceived relative under-benefit (i.e. POSSC negative) in relation to all the above outcome variables. For example, findings demonstrated that whilst perceived relative under-benefit of organizational support had a negative relationship with OBSE, conversely, a positive relationship between a perceived relative over-benefit and OBSE was not established. This suggests that a perception that the organization places less value on and cares less for an employee relative to others does indeed decrease his/her notions of self-worth, yet intriguingly, a perception that the organization places greater value and caring for an employee relative to others does not increase notions of self-worth. In a similar vein, POSSC positive was found to be positively related to organizational identification, yet POSSC negative was not found to have a statistically significant

negative relationship with organizational identification. Further, similar patterns of findings between POSSC positive and POSSC negative were found with OCB-O and POP. In short, this suggests that perceived over-benefit versus perceived under-benefit do not necessarily function in a polar opposite manner, but rather, perceived over-benefit may have a greater motivational influence than perceived under-benefit in relation to certain attitudinal/behavioral outcomes, and vice versa.

Perhaps most interestingly, this study found that POS is a stronger predictor of outcomes than POSSC (positive and negative). This is surprising, given that POSSC specifically captures individualistic appraisals of organizational support, and thus, the rules and norms associated with exchange and reciprocity suggest that there should be a greater (i.e. more proximal) influence on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Indeed, OST is implicit that the idiosyncratic receipt of supportive organizational treatment should have a greater influence on POS (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As such, the findings of this paper inadvertently suggest that collectivistic/group-based appraisals of organizational supportiveness play a more dominant role (as opposed to individualistic-based appraisals) within the generalized attribution of POS, and as such may have a greater influence on consequent attitudinal and behavioral outcomes.

7.2.1.3 Key contributions and implications for POS/OST

Overall, in response to calls from scholars (e.g. Shore & Shore, 1995; c.f. Goffin & Olson, 2011; Greenberg, Ashtonjames, & Ashkanasy, 2007) this study integrated social comparison within OST/POS and demonstrated that the social context can, and does, influence attributions of organizational supportiveness; and

further, that such comparative processes explain unique and meaningful variance with regard to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Specifically, this study demonstrated that, when primed to do so, individuals can purposely appraise their idiosyncratic receipt of organizational support relative to others, that this appraisal (i.e. POSSC) is meaningfully different to that of a generalized perception of organizational support (i.e. POS), and further, that this appraisal possesses unique characteristics in terms of how it relates to various attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. In short, in much the same way other (sub)constructs have provided greater measurement accuracy vis-à-vis POS (such as the perceived supervisor support construct - Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002), POSSC offers greater accuracy in our measurement of, as well as extending our understanding of, the organizational support phenomenon.

This study also makes a contribution by providing greater conceptual clarity (c.f. Suddaby, 2010) with regards to the POS construct/OST. For example, in detailing the organizational support phenomenon, the extant literature uses individual level and global level perspectives interchangeably. In other words, extant OST's core tenet that greater organizational supportive treatment→greater POS→greater prosocial outcomes, applies for both the individual employee and for employees per se. However, this parsimonious assumption has not considered if and how the social context influences POS, such that for example, greater organizational supportive treatment→greater disparity of resource receipt/distribution amongst employees→greater disparity in POS. Indeed, this confounding issue extends to the empirical measurement of POS. For example, the POS measure poses statements in the first person, hence scholars may assume that an individual's POS is an

idiosyncratic/individualistic appraisal of organizational support; yet, in contrast to this, OST holds that an individual's POS can be increased following the observation of coworkers receipt of supportive treatment (e.g. Eisenberger et al, 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). In short, we have been unsure as to the nature of (or what exactly comprises) the attribution of POS.

By capturing POSSC (i.e. POS from an individualistic perspective), and comparing/contrasting it with POS, this study helps to contribute to the more precise clarification of/within the POS construct. In that through the finding that POS and POSSC are related constructs, this suggests that generalized POS does contain elements of individualistic appraisal; however, POS and POSSC were found to be substantively distinct, which inadvertently supports OST's tenet that generalized POS is also influenced by collectivistic/group-based appraisals of organizational support received by coworkers (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Thus, OST could clarify the definition of POS as being an "individual's global belief concerning the extent to which the organization values the contributions and cares about the well-being of the individual and employees in general" (an adaptation of Rhoades & Eisenberger's POS definition, 2002: p. 698).

Perhaps most interestingly, given the greater influence of POS on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (compared to that of POSSC), this may imply that collectivistic/group-based appraisals housed within POS possess greater motivational influence. Arguably, this may suggest that OST's reliance on exchange and reciprocity based rules and norms (at the individual/dyadic level) may provide too narrow an account of the POS phenomenon; in that more altruistic and communal motivations and mechanisms may also have an important influence. As such, OST

and the POS construct may wish to emphasize and explore more thoroughly the social and collective nature of organizational support phenomena (as opposed to individualistic motivators relating to equity and reciprocity) in future literature and research.

7.2.2 Paper 2: Perceived Organizational Cruelty: A Test of Employees' Attribution of the Malevolent Organization

7.2.2.1 Question: Does low POS represent a belief that the organization is malevolent?

Whilst the POS construct/OST has been predominantly positivistic in its approach and focus regarding the EOR, the literature suggests that as well as representing a perception of organizational benevolence, POS also (such that POS is low) represents a perception of organizational malevolence (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). This paper highlighted this as a potential confound, in that a closer examination of the empirical measure of POS reveals that whilst the measure captures perceptions of benevolence, it does not specifically capture perceptions of organizational malevolence, but rather, captures perceptions of a *lack of* benevolence. Thus, this paper argued that perceptions of a lack of benevolence does not necessarily infer the existence of the antithesis (i.e. malevolence) (c.f. Dalal, 2005). In sum, it is unclear if low POS represents a perception that the organization has a passive lack of regard and cares little for the employee, or, whether low POS represents a perception that the organization possesses an active negative intent to devalue and harm the employee.

Taking inspiration from Shore & Coyle-Shapiro's (2012) recently proposed theoretical construct of perceived organizational cruelty (POC), this paper aimed to explore the dimensionality of POC vis-à-vis POS. Through a process of theoretical contrast and comparison, this study argued the central tenet that the two constructs fundamentally represent perceptions of organizational malevolence (i.e. POC) and benevolence (i.e. POS). Therefore, in an attempt to enhance conceptual clarity, and thus enhance conceptual validity, the aim of this paper was to empirically examine the relational and predictive nature of POC vis-à-vis POS.

7.2.2.2 Key findings

Data collected from two diverse samples (i.e. employees from a large hospital/healthcare provider in London, and a convenience sample of fulltime employees within the USA) demonstrated that the two constructs are negatively related, yet at the same time are substantively distinct (indeed, given the diverse nature of the samples, the statistical relationship between POC and POS, as well as the relationships between POC/POS and the antecedent of overall justice, were remarkably similar – see figures 5.2 and 5.3). Further, POC was found to account for additional variance over and above POS with regard to OCB-O, counterproductive work behavior aimed towards the organization (CWB-O), intention to quit, and OBSE.

Notwithstanding, when examining the criterion validity of both POC in relation to hypothesized attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, some but not all hypotheses were supported. As expected, POC was found to be positively related to CWB-O and negatively related to psychological well-being (measured only within the

hospital sample, utilizing items of OBSE that represent internal evaluations of self-worth). Yet despite hypotheses being grounded in rationale derived from exchange and reciprocity rules and norms, a negative relationship between POC and OCB-O, and a positive relationship between POC and intention to quit, was not substantiated. Post-hoc consideration reasoned that this could be due to a number of reasons, not least contextual influences (c.f. Johns, 2006) relating to the samples (e.g. hospital/healthcare employees may not be able to reduce OCB-Os as this could be seen to run contra to professional standards, and/or, seen to affect patient care), as well as the potential that POC functions as a depletion of individuals' self-resources, meaning that individuals enter into a state of helplessness, and are thus, less able to seek alternative employment.

However, a notable and surprising finding was that, within the convenience sample of fulltime US employees, POS was positively (rather than negatively) related to the more extreme forms of CWB-O. Subsequent post-hoc reasoning speculated that greater perceptions of the organization's benevolence may inadvertently engender a climate in which employees are more likely to engage in self-ingratiating behaviors, brought about by a belief that the organization is less likely to respond negatively.

7.2.2.3 Key contributions and implications for POS/OST

The motivation behind this paper was to clarify and extend our understanding of employees' perceptions of organizational malevolence with it being argued that the POS construct was unclear as to such phenomena. In turn, it was argued that the newly conceived construct of POC may most accurately address this important gap/confound. In short, this paper's main contribution was two-fold, in that through

the theoretical and empirical contrast of POC vis-à-vis POS, the paper helped establish POC as a valid and relevant construct that accounts for employees' perceptions of organizational malevolence; and likewise in turn, helps provide greater clarity with regards to the boundary conditions in which the POS construct can be seen to accurately capture organizational malevolence. Specifically, this paper elucidates that POS does not explicitly/accurately capture employees' notions of organizational malevolence, and thus a certain degree of caution is needed when interpreting the nature and influence of (low) POS on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. However, by utilizing POC alongside POS, scholars may gain greater accuracy in measuring employees' perceptions of organizational intent per se (i.e. malevolence through to benevolence), which in turn may aid greater accuracy in our measurement and understanding of EOR phenomenon. As such, this paper contributes to greater construct validity for both POS and POC (c.f. Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Edwards, 2003; Schwab, 1980).

Interestingly, whilst POC and POS were negatively related with one another, this relationship was arguably modest, and further, findings demonstrated that each construct may have differential effects on outcomes over and above being merely the converse of the other. As such, this paper also contributes to literatures that have found that theoretically antithetical constructs may, in reality, operate in counterintuitive ways. Broadly, there is mounting evidence that individuals can, and do, engage in both positive and negative attitudes and behaviors simultaneously, which include for example OCBs and CWBs (e.g. Dalal, 2005; Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, & Hulin, 2009; Spector, Bauer, & Fox, 2010) and positive and negative affect (e.g. Cacioppo, & Berntson, 1994; Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009; Larsen, McGraw, & Cacioppo, 2001). In a similar vein, this paper contributes to the

literature that concerns employee ambivalence (e.g. Piderit, 2000; Thompson, Zanna, & Griffin, 1995) which suggests that rather than existing on a single bi-polar continuum, individuals may possess both positive and negative attitudes/perceptions simultaneously regarding a particular foci. Therefore, more broadly, findings within this paper suggests that greater theoretical and empirical focus with regards to presumed antithetical constructs, may offer important, salient, and potentially surprising results.

In sum, this paper helps establish the validity of POC, in that POC accounted for unique and meaningful variance in attitudes and behaviors, over-and beyond that which is explained by POS alone. Further, this paper highlights the possibility that whilst employees may report high POS, they may also possess POC, and further, that employees may report low POS, yet may not necessarily possess POC. In this respect, similarities can be drawn between POC and the perceived supervisor support construct (Eisenberger et al., 2002), such that both constructs may further enrich our understanding of the psychological and social processes involved within the EOR, by building on and extending the POS construct.

7.2.3 PAPER 3 - Perceived Organizational Support: A Self-Relevant Resources and Relatedness Needs Perspective

7.2.3.1 Question: Do other mechanisms and motivations exist within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, other than those relating to exchange and reciprocal rules and norms?

The main theoretical motivation of this paper was to examine whether other mechanisms and motivations, other than the norms and rules associated with exchange and reciprocity, could offer an alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) interpretation of the dynamic between POS and subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Indeed, extant OST has almost solely relied on a ‘rational agency’ based logic; such that the receipt of supportive organizational treatment stimulates a conscious and rational appraisal of the exchange dynamic, resulting in employees cognitively deeming themselves obligated to reciprocate with likewise (volitional) beneficial attitudes and behaviors. Conversely, there are a small but growing number of scholars who question the dominance and utility of exchange/reciprocal accounts in explaining social phenomenon (e.g. Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Drawing on conservation of resources (Gorgievski & Hobfoll, 2008) and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 2000) theories, this paper utilized a different lens in which to view the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic, proposing that supportive organizational treatment may increase an individual’s self-resources, which in turn manifests an employee’s greater energy in which to engage in greater prosocial attitudes and behaviors. Core to this reasoning was the tenet that ‘like’ resources result in ‘like’ energies (Deci & Ryan, 2000), thus it was proposed that POS represents an emotional resource, that in turn results in greater

emotional engagement, which again in turn (through the subconscious ‘hardwired’ need for relatedness) results in greater prosocial outcomes.

By closely comparing and contrasting OST vis-à-vis conservation of resources and self-determination theories, as well as considering the extant literature with regards to engagement, the paper reasoned that a rational reciprocal account of the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic would necessitate employees to volitionally engage in all three sub-types of engagement (emotional, cognitive, and physical engagement - Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010), representing the investment of the full-self in order to reciprocate/benefit the organization. Conversely, this paper reasoned that a self-related resources and need for relatedness account would suggest that POS functions as an emotional resource, which in turn facilitates emotional engagement, and thus again accounts for prosocial outcomes.

7.2.3.2 Key findings

Findings offered support for the self-related resources and need for relatedness account, in that POS was related to emotional engagement and not cognitive and physical engagement, and that emotional engagement related to organizational identification, OCB-O and was negatively related to intention to quit. Further emotional engagement indirectly mediated the relationship between POS and all three outcomes, whereas cognitive and physical engagement did not.

7.2.3.3 Key contributions and implications for POS/OST

This paper contributes to OST by offering an alternative (i.e. additional/complementary) account of (or lens in which to view) the mechanisms and

motivations that exist within the POS-prosocial outcome dynamic. In short, POS/OST's predominant reliance on exchange and reciprocity accounts may provide too narrow an interpretation of organizational support phenomena. However, it is stressed that this paper does not discount exchange/reciprocal based accounts, but rather offers intriguing evidence that a resources and relatedness needs account of the dynamic may also provide a plausible and valid alternative, or indeed complementary, interpretation of this phenomenon. Overall, the findings of this study suggests that rather than being seen as something that is instrumental in nature, POS (and supportive organizational treatment) may best be viewed as something which is fundamentally an emotional phenomenon, which in turn provides employees with greater emotional energy. This suggests from a practical perspective, that organizations might wish to emphasize the emotional facets (as opposed to the instrumental facets) of supportive organizational treatment, in order to develop/solicit greater prosocial behavior from employees (for example, rather than emphasizing the practical utility in which a training program might increase an employee's skills in order to better perform their role, the organization might wish to emphasize that it values the employee and that the training is in reward for the employee's past efforts and has the aim of helping the employee fulfill their full potential in the future).

Further, this study also provides a contribution to the engagement literature, in that rather than best being seen as a higher order uni-dimensional construct, this study suggests that the three facets of engagement (i.e. emotional, cognitive and physical engagement) may operate as quite distinct sub-constructs with regard to their relationship(s) with antecedents and outcomes.

7.3 The Three Papers: Overarching Contributions and Implications for OST and the POS Construct

Whilst the contributions and implications from each of the papers are considered above, it may be salient to consider more broadly, if whether any overarching themes emerge when considering the three papers collectively. Indeed, taking this approach it is argued that the theoretical and empirical findings of the papers broadly suggest that POS/OST's extant overreliance on social exchange and reciprocity accounts may not fully explain (and may thus limit our greater understanding of) organizational support phenomena. For example, the finding within the first paper that POS had greater influence on outcomes than did POSSC (i.e. an individual's idiosyncratic appraisal of the receipt of supportive organizational treatment) runs contra to reasoning that more proximal (i.e. dyadic) exchanges (and thus POSSC) should have a greater bearing on outcomes. In short, findings appear to suggest that individual's were more greatly concerned with the extent the organization is supportive towards employees (*per se*) than of their own individual receipt of such treatment. This suggests that employees may be more greatly influenced by communal/collectivistic concerns and motivations (e.g. Clark & Mills, 1979) than had been previously conceptualized within extant OST. Further, in the second paper, a surprise finding within the sample of US workers was the positive relationship between POS and the more extreme forms of CWB-O. This finding is contrary to what exchange and reciprocal rules and norms would suggest; however, post-hoc theorizing speculated that greater organizational supportiveness (i.e. POS) could represent a situation in which individuals have little-or-no fear that the organization will punish them for engaging in self-gratifying acts (such as theft and fraud) (c.f.

Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). Indeed, the findings within the second paper demonstrated other relationships that were contrary to expectations based on exchange/reciprocity accounts (e.g. a positive relationship between POC and OCB-O in the US employee sample). Finally, the third paper found evidence that POS related to emotional engagement, but not to cognitive and physical engagement, which again brings into question the utility of exchange/reciprocal accounts, as theoretically greater organizational support should relate to the employee engaging in greater instrumental efforts (and thus engage in greater cognitive and physical engagement) in order to reciprocate the organization.

In short, all three papers found evidence to suggest that social exchange and reciprocal rules and norms did not fully account for observed relationships. As such, this thesis suggests that the social exchange/reciprocity lens may not provide an all-encompassing fit for OST/the POS construct. Indeed, whilst POS can be seen as being the most influential measure of social exchange relationships, Colquitt and his colleagues recently found through a process of content validation that POS did not accurately capture the social exchange relationship between the employee and the organization (whereas in turn, affect-based trust was found to be a much better indicator - Colquitt, Baer, Long, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2014). This finding was contrary to their initial expectations, leading them to state: “what stands out most from our results is that the most oft-utilized indicator of social exchange relationships – perceived support (and especially, POS) – was not shown to be content valid” (Colquitt et al., 2014, p. 608). Indeed, upon reflection they noted that Eisenberger et al.’s (1986) initial conception of the POS construct was not to capture the social exchange relationship, but rather to explain employees’ affective commitment (Colquitt et al., 2014). Given this, it is perhaps possible to speculate that social

exchange theory has been retrospectively ‘back-fitted’ onto the POS construct/OST in subsequent years in order to provide greater theoretical integration and parsimony with other related literatures (indeed, it was a number of years after Eisenberger et al.’s seminal paper that the POS construct was formally integrated with/within social exchange theory – e.g. Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990).

Perhaps at this point it may be salient to consider Blau’s (1987) own retrospective assessment and analysis of the utility of social exchange theory with regard to social phenomena. In a cautionary tone, he highlighted the potential of confounding effects when examining and interpreting phenomena using different levels and/or lens’ of theoretical analysis, and as such was a pains to stress the boundary conditions of social exchange’s utility. For example he explained that,

“the main reason for my interest in social exchange is that I consider it a strictly social phenomenon and thus particularly well suited for investigation by sociologists. This is not the case for most of the subjects studied in surveys. People’s attitudes [...] for example, are certainly socially conditioned and influenced, and many are orientated toward other people, but these factors themselves refer to the acting and thinking of individuals and not to social process. Social exchange in contrast, centers attention directly on the social process of give-and-take in people’s relations and analyzes how [person A’s] behavior depends not on [person A’s] prior conditioning, experiences, or attitudes but on [person B’s] behavior, which in turn is contingent on [person A’s] behavior. The behavior of each is, of course, psychologically motivated, but exchange theory does not seek to explain why each individual participates in the exchange in terms of these motives. Rather it dissects the transaction process to explain the interdependent contingencies in which each

response is dependent on the other's prior action and is simultaneously the stimulus evoking the other's further reaction. Thus the motivation of participants is taken as given, and concern is with the alternating reciprocities underlying the social interaction" (Blau, 1987, pp. 72-73).

In short, Blau (1987) appears to suggest that social exchange theory may have limited utility when considering the psychological antecedents of social exchange relationships (c.f. Flynn, 2005), suggesting that social exchange may not be the most effective lens in which to understand the causes (i.e. psychological factors such as attitudes, attributions etc.) of social phenomena. Arguably, Blau looked to distance social exchange theory from the 'black box' of individuals' psychological processes, and likewise looked to assert that social exchange theory was not meant as a 'catchall' phenomenological panacea. Indeed, Blau warned that social exchange theory was in danger of being/becoming an axiomatic system, such that its logic could be used to account for most (if not all) social behavior, thus increasing potential contradictions, and thus again in turn, decreasing both internal and external theoretical validity. For example, it is possible to envisage that a social exchange interpretation of an individual helping a stranger, giving money to a homeless person, or giving money to charity etc., would suggest that the act was as a result of the individual having benefited from receiving altruistic resources from others in the past, and thus, the individual (in this example) expends the obligation to likewise help others; or alternatively, that the act could be seen as an attempt to solicit some sort of favorable return in the future. Essentially, this reasoning may circumvent a more pragmatic and 'commonsense' explanation that such an act could plausibly be due to a purely altruistic motive (i.e. a desire to help others) that does not relate to any prior obligations or post expectations of resource exchange.

In sum, there are a growing number of scholars within the organizational behavior domain that question the ubiquity of social exchange and reciprocity accounts (e.g. Pearce, 2012; Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, Caesens, & De Zanet, 2013; Thau & Mitchell, 2010), and when considered collectively, the three papers may contribute to a growing call for other theoretical accounts to be considered in detailing social phenomena within the workplace setting. As has been highlighted, Blau (1997) stressed that sociological theory (i.e. such as social exchange) may have more limited utility when considering phenomena at the more micro/psychological level. Indeed, in all three papers, findings were clear in that whilst social exchange/reciprocal accounts could feasibly account for some of the observed relationships, it could not account for all observed relationships. In this vein, this thesis suggests that OST/POS has placed a far greater emphasis on rational appraisals of organizational supportiveness and volitional accounts of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes, at the expense of more subconscious and instinctive motivations and mechanisms. In short, this thesis elucidates that employees' socio-emotional needs and attributional processes may play a more prominent and influential role within organizational support phenomena than is currently acknowledged within POS/OST.

7.4 A Note on the Overall Approach of this Thesis

Towards the POS/OST Domain

As has been highlighted in the first and second chapters, the overarching approach to this thesis (and the three papers) was to develop and extend (and thus

contribute to) the POS construct and OST. Specifically, each paper highlighted theoretical and empirical problems, gaps, and assumptions that arguably, had they not been critically explored, could potentially limit our understanding of the organizational support phenomenon. Therefore, the approach of each paper was to provide salient and valid development in our understanding, and in doing so, to help advance the current theoretical and empirical status quo. Influenced by the calls of certain scholars (e.g. Bartunek, Rynes, & Ireland, 2006; Davis, 1971; Mintzberg, 2005; Whetten, 1989), the aim of each paper was to make contributions through starting conversations that looked to challenge current theoretical consensus, as well as to potentially challenge commonly held assumptions. Perhaps this may be most usefully summarized by Colquitt & George (2011), who called for scholars to “deal with large, unresolved problems in a particular literature or area of inquiry and tackle those problems in a bold and unconventional way that leaps beyond existing explanations” which in turn may “engender new paradigms or open new pastures for scholarly discourse” (p. 432). Overall, taking a lead from such calls, the aim was in many respects to make the three papers “interesting” (Davis, 1971).

However, it also needs to be stressed that the overall approach of the thesis was not to iconoclastically dismiss or refute the extant POS construct and OST. Indeed, the overriding popularity of POS/OST within the literature, and the scholarly domain in general, attests to the influence the construct/theory has had in helping both scholars and practitioners to better understand and manage the EOR (c.f. Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Arguably, whilst the findings of this thesis have demonstrated that the ongoing theoretical and empirical development of POS/OST can help advance the domain, in many respects the findings within this thesis have also helped to reaffirm the significant and sizable contribution POS provides with regard to

understanding organizational phenomena. Indeed, within all three papers, POS demonstrated relatively strong statistically significant relationships with all but one variable within hypothesized models (i.e. the relationship between POS and internal evaluations of self-worth within the second paper regarding POC).

Notwithstanding this, prominent proponents of the POS/OST have called for the theory's/construct's continued extension and development, noting that in its current form POS/OST does not answer all the questions that can be asked of it (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2004; Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Shore & Shore, 1995). In sum, this thesis adhered to this call, by exploring and challenging a number of extant assumptions and confounds, with the aim of contributing to the ongoing clarification, extension and validation of the POS construct and OST.

7.5 General Limitations

It is a commonly accepted adage amongst scholars that, despite best efforts, all empirical studies are flawed in some respect with regard to validity (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011; McGrath, 1982; Scandura & Williams, 2000). As such, the empirical studies within this thesis are no exception. Given that each of the three papers discuss the limitations of each study in more specific detail, the aim of this section is not to summarize these limitations, but instead to consider some of the broader limitational themes that emerge when considering the three papers as a collective, and more broadly when looking at POS as a whole. It should be noted that the third chapter considers specific issues in relation to this thesis' reliance on single-

source (self-report) data, common method bias/variance, as well as issues relating to survey response rates; therefore, for the sake of avoiding repetition, these issues will not be considered in this section. However, by taking a broader consideration of limitational themes, this section will consider how future research might develop and extend the research conducted in this thesis.

7.5.1 The over-reliance on data from a single longitudinal sample to test hypotheses

Firstly, one of the main limitations of this research is the fact that the majority of findings are primarily based on a single longitudinal study. Scholars argue that perhaps the most effective means by which to establish the validity of a theoretical/empirical stance is the replication of findings across multiple studies (e.g. Bono & McNamara, 2011; Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). As such, at the outset of this research, numerous organizations were approached as potential field sites in which to collect data. However, as was highlighted in the third chapter, one of the biggest challenges faced by this research has been the relative dearth of opportunities in which to collect data from the field (given that the period in which this research was conducted corresponded with an unprecedented global economic recession). Broadly, research proposals had been discussed with a number of HR directors of various different organizations within various different industries, however, when these proposals were discussed at board level they were rejected with the overriding feedback being that the organization could only focus on core/critical business activity. Indeed, this was despite the fact that the research would have incurred no cost to the organization, an insightful report would have been provided detailing findings relating to staff attitudes and behaviors

as well as making practical recommendations, and that a sizable donation of money would have been made to the organization's designated charity/charities subject to employee response rates. Unfortunately, despite offering an apparent 'win-win' scenario for these organizations and for the purposes of this research, it appeared that the overwhelming majority of organizations were indeed severely affected by the global economic crisis, with there being a palpable sense that employees at all levels feared for the future of their organization, and for their jobs.

As such, whilst the initial aim of this research was to collect data from multiple field studies, the ability to do so was constricted by external events that were beyond any control. Indeed, it has been reported that, by the end of 2009, in the UK alone, 27,000 businesses had been forced to close (the Telegraph – 23rd December 2009); further, the great recession not only affected small to medium organizations, but also forced the closure of large multinational companies which included global banks (e.g. Lehman Brothers) and manufacturers (e.g. Chrysler). Fortunately, at the time of writing (2014), the global financial crisis appears to be coming towards an end for most western economies, and may therefore herald a new period in which organizations are more open and willing to grant access to scholarly research amongst their employees.

Overall, this thesis has been restricted to fully testing hypotheses across the thesis utilizing one dataset (employees from the hospital/healthcare provider), whilst substantiating this with supplementary testing utilizing two other samples (employees on a graduate recruitment scheme within a large logistics company, and a convenience sample of fulltime employees within the US). Thus, in the hope that organizations may now be more receptive to field research, future research may wish

to explore whether the findings housed within the three papers replicate within other field samples.

7.5.2 Data overlap between the three papers

Stemming from the predominant reliance on a single longitudinal sample in order to test hypotheses, it is also possible to argue that the data has been ‘sliced’ too thin, or ‘overlaps’ across the three papers. Indeed, all three papers use the variables of POS and OCB-O, whilst organizational identification and intention to quit are used across two papers (OBSE is used in two papers but the items used differ and thus do not capture the same data). Broadly, concerns in relation to data slicing and/or data overlap stem from the needs of (top) scholarly journals to be seen to publish new and unique research (c.f. Colquitt, 2013); however, what constitutes new and unique research is something of a grey area (c.f. Kirkman & Chen, 2011). Concerning this issue, Kirkman & Chen (2011) proposed a rationale as to whether multiple papers can stem from a single dataset and still be considered to be new and unique. Primarily, they suggest that the overall focus of each paper should be substantively different, and that whilst there may be some overlap with regard to the theories used, these theories should be used to address different research questions. Similarly, they suggest that the same variables could be used in multiple papers, however, as a general rule this should be kept to a minimum. Overall, they suggest the uniqueness of research lies in the extent to which papers that use a single dataset provide differential theoretical and practical implications. Therefore, whilst each of the three papers within this thesis concern POS/OST, each paper has a unique and differential focus providing significantly different theoretical and practical implications. Arguably, therefore, these papers meet Kirkman & Chen’s (2011) criteria.

Indeed whilst attempts were made to limit the overlap of variables across papers, it was also important to ensure that this did not compromise the theoretical approach (i.e. integrity) of each paper. For example, one of the most important tenets within OST is that increased POS relates to greater employee performance, and arguably this may represent the *sine qua non* with regard to the relevance and validity of the construct. Given the concerns discussed in this thesis regarding the measurement of actual task performance (see chapter 3), the measurement of contextual performance in the form of OCB-O arguably represented the only means by which to account for the POS-performance dynamic. Thus, this led to the use of the variable in all three papers.

7.5.3 The inability to account for actual supportive organizational treatment

As suggested in the methodological approach chapter (chapter 3), another broad limitation of this research is the fact that we are unable to account for *actual* supportive organizational treatment within the organizational support phenomenon. In other words, whilst self-report measures may represent the most valid means by which to capture individuals' attitudes and attributions (e.g. Chan, 2009; Spector, 1994, 2006), self-report measures may be less useful when capturing/controlling for situational stimuli that lead to such attributions, and resultant behaviors. Whilst this research was unable to account for this (i.e. situational stimuli), equally this is a limitation that is relevant for all extant research relating to POS, and arguably represents a significant challenge for the demonstrable validity of the construct. In short, the POS/OST literature tends to implicitly assume that POS is tantamount to the receipt of supportive organizational treatment; however, it is important to note that

POS is by definition an attribution, and in turn, that attributions stem from some form of ‘stimulus’. Thus, broadly, if we consider Judge & Larson’s (2001) stimulus-organism-response model as a means in which to interpret social phenomena, we can see that extant POS research has been unable to account for the stimulus. Indeed, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) have called for greater attention to be paid with regard to the causality of relationships involving POS; however, given the likely complexity of examining POS whilst controlling for actual supportive organizational treatment, it may be unsurprising that there have been no attempts (to the author’s knowledge) in which to do so. Arguably therefore, research that is able to measure POS whilst controlling for supportive organizational treatment may address the ultimate challenge in helping to ensure the definitive robustness and validity of the POS construct.

Intriguingly, this might lead to the question as to how supportive organizational treatment may be accounted for in future empirical research. Traditionally, in order to achieve necessary confidence (by eliminating alternative cause and effect variables), the use of laboratory experimentation is seen to provide the highest possible controlled variation. Recently, certain scholars have noted the demise of the use of experimentation in organizational research due to a popular belief that such findings are not generalizable to organizational settings (c.f. Highhouse, 2009; Zelditch, 2007). However, top academic journals such as the *Academy of Management Journal* have called for scholars to utilize experiments, arguing that correctly designed experiments can help establish causality between variables that could indeed be relevant to organizational research (Colquitt, 2008). For example, Bono & McNamara (2011) stated that, “at AMJ we explicitly encourage experimental research because it is an excellent way to address questions of causality,

and we recognize that important questions – especially those that deal with psychological process – can often be answered equally well with university students or organizational employees” (p. 658). Therefore, whilst it would be difficult to simulate the ongoing nature of the EOR, it could conceivably be possible to capture the theoretical antecedents of POS (i.e. supportive organizational treatment - in the form of supportive policies and practices, fair treatment, and support from supervisors) and behavioral outcomes (such as OCB, performance etc.) under experimental conditions. As such, experimentation could look to manipulate these variables (i.e. supportive organizational treatment), whilst measuring individuals’ attributions (i.e. through self-report methods) and actual behaviors (i.e. through such things as actual task performance, and/or, observable demonstrations of prosocial behavior). Thus, theoretically, laboratory experimentation could provide results that offer the highest level of confidence with regards to measurement accuracy.

However, whilst experimental conditions may highlight some incremental insights into the mechanisms and motivations within support dynamics, arguably it is difficult to see how (in such a context) a ‘relationship’ could/would be established between a participant and an ‘organization’. Conversely, field experiments are seen to offer less control over variables than laboratory experiments, however, due to conducting experimental interventions within actual organizational environments, they offer greater external validity due to their ‘real-world’ setting. In many respects given the context of organizational support, such that it concerns the ongoing dynamic of the EOR, field experimentation may offer the ‘best fit’ in terms of real-world validity vis-à-vis experimental control. However, notwithstanding this, field experiments are rare within organizational behavior research for a number of reasons, not least of which are issues relating to the fair and ethical treatment of employees as

well as significant financial, managerial, and logistical challenges faced by researchers and organizations who undertake such experimentation.

Further, it can be seen that supportive organizational treatment is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon comprising of such resources as pay, training, development, benefits (etc.), through to respect, appreciation, and caring (etc.). Thus, in practice, the measurement of organizational support phenomena (i.e. supportive organizational treatment through to POS through to attitudinal and behavioral outcomes) within an organizational setting may present significant measurement error due to the inevitable inability to control and measure all possible variables that may influence such a phenomenon. Tantalizingly however, in hindsight the sample of graduate recruits within the large logistics organization (within this thesis) may offer one of the closest opportunities we might have to having some degree of certainty (i.e. control) with regard to supportive organizational treatment. As discussed in the third chapter, the cohort of graduate recruits possessed similarities in terms of age, pay, training, professional experience, tenure, and work environment (etc.), as well as being subject to a management approach that was broadly uniform to all members of the group. Thus, any controlled variation within this sample (such as a universal increase in supportive organizational treatment – e.g. through the implementation of flexible working hours, an individual allowance to help individuals to pursue self-directed training/learning interests outside of work etc.) could yield compelling insights with regard to POS and prosocial outcomes. Unfortunately, the sample population size meant that, without a near 100% completion rate, longitudinal data collection would unlikely yield enough statistical power to test anything more complex than basic theoretical models/relationships. As such, potential future research might wish to attempt to collect data from even larger graduate recruitment

schemes/programs within major organizations, as they may arguably represent some of the best research conditions in which actual supportive organizational treatment can be accounted (i.e. controlled) for.

7.6 Overall Implications for Practice

In review of extant POS research, Eisenberger & Stinglhamber (2011) provide an excellent and broad analysis regarding how organizations can look to promote POS amongst their employees. Given this, rather than providing an exhaustive overview of practical recommendations per se, this section aims to provide practical recommendations that specifically consider the broad implications stemming from the findings of this research. Chiefly, in practical terms, the findings of this thesis (i.e. each of the three papers) suggests that employees are aware of their receipt of supportive organizational treatment vis-à-vis others, but that an individual's POS may be more greatly influenced by supportive organizational treatment received by employees per se as opposed to their own idiosyncratic receipt. Secondly, it was found that employees can form perceptions that the organization has a negative/malevolent intent towards them, and that this can lead to negative outcomes for both the organization and the employee's wellbeing. And finally, findings suggest that supportive organizational treatment might best be viewed as an emotional resource that has the potential to increase employees' emotional energies/engagement, which in turn results in greater prosocial outcomes.

Taken together, these findings suggest that organizations and managers should look to develop and enhance the social and emotional richness of EORs. Broadly, these findings suggest that rather than being driven by purely rational and calculative processes with the aim of increasing instrumental gains/benefits, employees are highly attuned to the extent to which they receive emotional benefits from the organization, and further, rather than being simply individualistic orientated, employees are focused on how these emotional benefits are divested at a collective/communal level (i.e. among employees in general).

As such, in practical terms, organizations are likely to benefit by adjusting their overall culture to convey notions of value and caring for ‘employees’ per se; or in other words, organizations may benefit by fostering a communal/collective-based approach to viewing and managing itself and its employees. Indeed, findings allude to employees being more motivated by a perception that ‘we’ are valued and cared for, rather than ‘I’ am valued and cared for. Thus, for example, policies and practices that relay a general message that the organization is a meritocracy that looks to reward on the basis of merit, might instead be refocused such that the organization aims to ensure that all employees are helped to achieve their full potential. Therefore, emphasizing group value and caring, and minimizing perceptions that there are winners and losers (with regard to the organization’s valuing and caring). Indeed, findings suggest that those who perceive themselves as winners (with regard to receiving greater supportive organizational treatment than others) may display limited improvements in contextual performance, whereas employees who perceive themselves as losers may in contrast have much more negative attitudes towards the organization. Further, such notions of under-benefit may be deleterious to the psychological wellbeing of individuals. In sum, rather than fostering a quid pro quo

culture of ‘the better you are, the more we like you, and the more we like you, the more favorably we’ll treat you’, organizations might instead look to maximize favorable treatment to all, as uniformly and consistently as possible, and in such a manner that demonstrates genuine emotional valuing and concern for employees as a whole.

7.7 Overall Conclusion

In conclusion to this chapter, and the thesis as a whole, the aim of this thesis has been to develop and extend the POS construct and OST by utilizing differing theoretical and empirical perspectives, providing a different lens through which to critically explore extant assumptions, gaps, and paradoxes. The thesis was structured as three standalone papers that explore different aspects of POS and OST, providing scholarly advancement and practical implications in how we view the EOR.

Specifically, the findings of the first paper suggest that, whilst the relative individualistic receipt of supportive organizational treatment (i.e. POSSC) is important to employees, their perceptions of how employees in general are supported by the organization are perhaps even more important, suggesting that employees are more collectivistically (as opposed to individualistically) orientated than what may commonly be assumed. This could have important implications for how organizations may best approach the distribution of supportive treatment. The findings within the second paper suggest that employees can, and do, form perceptions of organizational malevolence (i.e. POC), and that such a perception can lead to negative outcomes for

both the employee and the organization. Further, rather than representing the converse of POS, POC affects employee attitudes and behaviors in such a way as to be subtly distinct. Finally, findings within the third paper suggest that, rather than representing instrumental utility, supportive organizational treatment and employees' subsequent POS is best seen as being an emotional resource, providing employees with greater emotional energy (emotional engagement) that facilitates emotionally orientated prosocial behaviors. Therefore, organizations might wish to emphasize the emotional (as opposed to the instrumental) aspects of supportive treatment in order to foster greater POS among their employees.

When considered collectively, findings within the three papers suggest that social exchange and reciprocal accounts may not account for the 'full picture' of organizational support phenomena; and that greater focus on motivations and mechanisms relating to socio-emotional needs may yield important and meaningful development. However, notwithstanding this, it should be noted that through the course of this research it has become apparent that, whilst there are important and significant gains to be achieved from the continued theoretical and empirical development and 'fine-tuning' of POS/OST, both the extant construct and theory provide a relatively compelling, robust, and valid tool in which to understand the dynamic relationship between employees and their employing organization.

7.8 References

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8 Appendices

8.1 Large hospital/healthcare provider based in London (UK)

8.1.1 Survey time 1

Thank you for your interest in this survey!

This survey should take **no more than 10 minutes** to complete. Please read each statement carefully. Some of the questions/statements may seem repetitive, but please respond to all questions/statements.

Your responses will be treated in the **strictest confidence**. Your responses will be collated using your anonymous identifier code (provided in the email) and therefore no one will be able to link your responses to you personally.

Once you have completed the questionnaire, you will be emailed a second questionnaire in a approximately 8 weeks time.

Important: In order for your responses to be used within this research (and therefore to be counted towards raising £2,000 for the Children's Sunshine Appeal) you will need to complete both questionnaires.

If you have any questions, please feel free to email me at: s.champion@lse.ac.uk

Thank you for your help in advance, it's greatly appreciated.

Stephen Champion
(PhD Candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science)

Please insert your anonymous identifier code (provided in the invitation email) below.

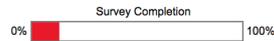
Survey Completion
0% 100%



The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I count around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am taken seriously around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am important around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am trusted around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is faith in me around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can make a difference around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am valuable around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am helpful around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am efficient around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am cooperative around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

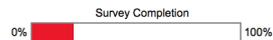


<< >>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself and your work in general.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My opinion about myself isn't tied to how well I do at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Doing well at work gives me a sense of self-respect.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel better about myself when I know I'm doing well at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My self-esteem is influenced by my work performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel bad about myself whenever my work performance is lacking.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The questions below ask what you'd like your relationship to be with any organisation for which you might work.

On each question, *divide* 10 points between the two choices by giving the most points to the choice that is *most* like you and *the fewest* points to the choice that is *least* like you.

You can, if you'd like, give the same number of points to both choices (for example, 5 points to each choice), or you may give 10 points to one answer if you *completely* agree with one statement and 0 points if you completely disagree with the opposite statement.

In any organisation I might work for, it would be more important for me to:

Get from the organisation

Give to the organisation

Total

In any organisation I might work for, it would be more important for me to:

Help others

Watch out for my own good

Total

In any organisation I might work for, I would be more concerned about:

What I received from the organisation

What I contributed to the organisation

Total

In any organisation I might work for, the hard work I would do should:

Benefit the organisation

Benefit me

Total

My personal philosophy in dealing with any organisation would be:

If I don't look out for myself, nobody else will

It's better for me to give than to receive

Total

Survey Completion
0%  100%

<< >>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Chelsea & Westminster Hospital NHS Foundation Trust (abbreviated to "Chelsea & Westminster").

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Chelsea & Westminster values my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Chelsea & Westminster would fail to notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The statements below represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Chelsea & Westminster when you consider yourself in comparison to other employees at the Trust.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Chelsea & Westminster values my contribution to its well-being, <u>more than most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster fails to appreciate any extra effort from me, <u>compared to most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster is more likely to ignore a complaint from me, <u>compared to most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my well-being <u>more than most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Chelsea & Westminster would fail to notice my contribution, <u>but would notice the efforts of most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my general satisfaction at work, <u>more than most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster shows very little concern for me, <u>compared to most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster takes more pride in my accomplishments at work, <u>compared to most other employees</u> .	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The following statements refer to the relationship you have with your supervisor.

(N.B. your supervisor refers to the person that would normally conduct your appraisal)

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required to meet my supervisor's work goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The following statements refer to how you view your supervisor with regard to Chelsea & Westminster.

(N.B. your supervisor refers to the person that would normally conduct your appraisal)

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When my supervisor encourages me, I believe that Chelsea & Westminster is encouraging me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor is pleased with my work, I feel that Chelsea & Westminster is pleased.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor compliments me, it is the same as Chelsea & Westminster complimenting me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor pays attention to my efforts, I believe that Chelsea & Westminster is paying attention to my efforts.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is characteristic of Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor and Chelsea & Westminster have a lot in common.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am evaluated by my supervisor, it is the same as being evaluated by Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is representative of Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is typical of Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The following statements refer to fairness at work within Chelsea & Westminster.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, I'm treated fairly by Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, the way things work at Chelsea & Westminster are not fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I can count on Chelsea & Westminster to be fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the most part, Chelsea & Westminster treats its employees fairly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion
0%  100%

<< >>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Chelsea & Westminster.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Chelsea & Westminster is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster tries to reduce my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster is dismissive of my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion
0%  100%

<< >>

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.

Survey Completion
0%  100%

8.1.2 Survey time 2

Thank you for your continued interest in this research!

IMPORTANT: For your responses to the first questionnaire to be used within this research, and to count towards raising up to £2,000 for the Chelsea & Westminster's Children's Sunshine Appeal, **you need to complete this second questionnaire.**

This questionnaire should take **approximately 10 minutes** to complete. Please read each statement carefully. Some of the questions/statements may seem repetitive, but please respond to all questions/statements.

Some of the questions/statements will be the same as those in the first questionnaire, however, please respond to these questions/statements according to how you currently think and feel.

Your responses will be treated in the **strictest confidence**. Your responses will be collated using your anonymous identifier code (provided in the email) and therefore no one will be able to link your responses to you personally.

If you have any questions, please feel free to email me at: s.champion@lse.ac.uk

Thank you for your help in advance, it's greatly appreciated.

Stephen Champion
(PhD Candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science)

Please insert your anonymous identifier code (provided in the recent email) below.

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself overall as a person.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes I feel depressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I try, I generally succeed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I complete tasks successfully.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am filled with doubts about my competence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I determine what will happen in my life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not feel in control of my success in my career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am capable of coping with most of my problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

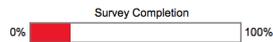
Survey Completion
0% 100%

<< >>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I count around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am taken seriously around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am important around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am trusted around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is faith in me around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can make a difference around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am valuable around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am helpful around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am efficient around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am cooperative around here	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I work with intensity on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert my full effort to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I devote a lot of energy to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try my hardest to perform well on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I strive as hard as I can to complete my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert a lot of energy on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

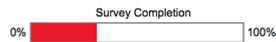


<< >>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Chelsea & Westminster Hospital NHS Foundation Trust (abbreviated to "Chelsea & Westminster").

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

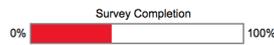
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Chelsea & Westminster values my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Chelsea & Westminster would fail to notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The statements below represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Chelsea & Westminster when you consider yourself in comparison to other employees at the Trust.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Chelsea & Westminster values my contribution to its well-being, <i>more than most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster fails to appreciate any extra effort from me, <i>compared to most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster is more likely to ignore a complaint from me, <i>compared to most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my well-being <i>more than most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Chelsea & Westminster would fail to notice my contribution, <i>but would notice the efforts of most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster cares about my general satisfaction at work, <i>more than most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster shows very little concern for me, <i>compared to most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster takes more pride in my accomplishments at work, <i>compared to most other employees.</i>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am enthusiastic in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel energetic at my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am interested in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel positive about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am excited about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



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The following statements represent how you may think and feel about Chelsea & Westminster.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When someone criticises Chelsea & Westminster, it feels like a personal insult.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very interested in what others think about Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I talk about Chelsea & Westminster, I usually say "we rather than 'they'".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chelsea & Westminster's successes are my successes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone praises Chelsea & Westminster, it feels like a personal compliment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a story in the media criticised Chelsea & Westminster, I would feel embarrassed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At work, my mind is focused on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I am absorbed by my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I concentrate on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



<< >>

The following statements refer to fairness at work within Chelsea & Westminster.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, I'm treated fairly by Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, the way things work at Chelsea & Westminster are not fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I can count on Chelsea & Westminster to be fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the most part, Chelsea & Westminster treats its employees fairly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The following statements refer to the relationship you have with your supervisor.

(N.B. your supervisor refers to the person that would normally conduct your appraisal)

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organisation if I made an honest mistake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required to meet my supervisor's work goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



Please indicate how often you do the following for Chelsea & Westminster.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always
Attend functions that are not required but that help Chelsea & Westminster's image.	<input type="radio"/>				
Keep up with developments at Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>				
Defend Chelsea & Westminster when other employees criticise it.	<input type="radio"/>				
Show pride when representing Chelsea & Westminster in public.	<input type="radio"/>				
Offer ideas to improve the functioning at Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>				
Express loyalty toward Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>				
Take action to protect Chelsea & Westminster from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>				
Demonstrate concern about the image of Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>				

Survey Completion
 0% 100%

<< >>

The statements below represent possible opinions you have of staff (in general) at Chelsea & Westminster.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on at Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People do what's best for them, not what's best for Chelsea & Westminster.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the cake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Many employees are trying to maneuver their way into the "in group".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often think about quitting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will probably look for a new job in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

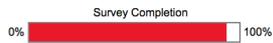
Survey Completion
 0% 100%

<< >>

Please indicate how often you do the following at Chelsea & Westminster.

IMPORTANT: your responses cannot be traced back to you, hence please answer truthfully and accurately.

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
Taken property from work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>						
Spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working.	<input type="radio"/>						
Falsified a claim form to get reimbursed for more money that you never spent on business expenses.	<input type="radio"/>						
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable.	<input type="radio"/>						
Come in late to work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>						
Littered your work environment.	<input type="radio"/>						
Neglected to follow your manager's instructions.	<input type="radio"/>						
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.	<input type="radio"/>						
Discussed confidential work related information with an unauthorised person.	<input type="radio"/>						
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.	<input type="radio"/>						
Put little effort into your work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Dragged out work in order to get overtime.	<input type="radio"/>						



<< >>

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.



8.2 Graduate recruits from within a large UK based logistics company

8.2.1 Survey time 1

Thank you for your interest in this survey!

This questionnaire should take **no more than 10 minutes** to complete. Please read each statement carefully. Some of the questions/statements may seem repetitive, but please respond to all statements.

Your responses will be treated in the **strictest confidence**, therefore **please answer openly and honestly**.

Once you have completed the questionnaire, you will be sent a link to another questionnaire in a approximately 10 weeks time.

Important: In order for your responses to be used within this research you will need to complete both questionnaires.

If you have any questions, please feel free to email me at: s.champion@lse.ac.uk

Thank you for your help in advance, it's greatly appreciated.

Stephen Champion (PhD Candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science)

Please insert your unique identifier code (contained at the bottom of the invitation email) here:

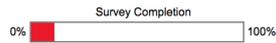
Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself (in general).

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am confident I get the success I deserve in life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes I feel depressed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I try, I generally succeed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes when I fail I feel worthless.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I complete tasks successfully.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes, I do not feel in control of my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Overall, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am filled with doubts about my competence.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I determine what will happen in my life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not feel in control of my success in my career.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am capable of coping with most of my problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are times when things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The questions below ask what you'd like your relationship to be with any organisation for which you might work.

On each question, *divide* 10 points between the two choices by giving the most points to the choice that is *most* like you and *the fewest* points to the choice that is *least* like you.

You can, if you'd like, give the same number of points to both choices (for example, 5 points to each choice), or you may give 10 points to one answer if you *completely* agree with one statement and 0 points if you completely disagree with the opposite statement.

In any organisation I might work for, it would be more important for me to:

Get from the organisation

Give to the organisation

Total

In any organisation I might work for, it would be more important for me to:

Help others

Watch out for my own good

Total

In any organisation I might work for, I would be more concerned about:

What I received from the organisation

What I contributed to the organisation

Total

In any organisation I might work for, the hard work I would do should:

Benefit the organisation

Benefit me

Total

My personal philosophy in dealing with any organisation would be:

If I don't look out for myself, nobody else will

It's better for me to give than to receive

Total



>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Royal Mail values my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Royal Mail would fail to notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The statements below represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail when you consider yourself in comparison to most other employees within the company.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Royal Mail values my contribution to its well-being, <u>more than most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail fails to appreciate any extra effort from me, <u>compared to most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail is more likely to ignore a complaint from me, <u>compared to most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail cares about my well-being <u>more than most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Royal Mail would fail to notice my contribution, <u>but would notice the efforts of most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail cares about my general satisfaction at work, <u>more than most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail shows very little concern for me, <u>compared to most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail takes more pride in my accomplishments at work, <u>compared to most other employees.</u>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I work with intensity on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert my full effort to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I devote a lot of energy to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try my hardest to perform well on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I strive as hard as I can to complete my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert a lot of energy on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The following statements refer to fairness at work within Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, I'm treated fairly by Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, the way things work at Royal Mail are not fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I can count on Royal Mail to be fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the most part, Royal Mail treats its employees fairly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



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The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am enthusiastic in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel energetic at my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am interested in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel positive about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am excited about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The following statements refer to the relationship you have with your supervisor.

(N.B. your supervisor refers to the person that would normally conduct your appraisal)

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like my supervisor very much as a person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required to meet my supervisor's work goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At work, my mind is focused on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I am absorbed by my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I concentrate on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion

0%  100%

>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Royal Mail is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail acknowledges any extra effort from me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail would consider a complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail tries to reduce my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I did the best job possible, Royal Mail would notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail shows very little hostility towards me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail is dismissive of my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion

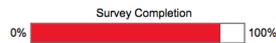
0%  100%

>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I count around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am taken seriously around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am important around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am trusted around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There is faith in me around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can make a difference around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am valuable around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am helpful around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am efficient around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am cooperative around here.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself and your work in general.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My opinion about myself isn't tied to how well I do at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Doing well at work gives me a sense of self-respect.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel better about myself when I know I'm doing well at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My self-esteem is influenced by my work performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel bad about myself whenever my work performance is lacking.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.



8.2.2 Survey time 2

Thank you for your interest in this survey!

This survey should take **no more than 10 minutes** to complete. Please read each statement carefully. Some of the questions/statements may seem repetitive, but please respond to all questions/statements.

Your responses will be treated in the **strictest confidence**, therefore **please answer openly and honestly**.

If you have any questions, please feel free to email me at: s.champion@lse.ac.uk

Thank you for your help in advance, it's greatly appreciated.

Stephen Champion (PhD Candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science)

Please insert your unique identifier code (contained at the bottom of the invitation email) here:

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am enthusiastic in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel energetic at my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am interested in my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel positive about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am excited about my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

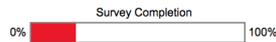
Survey Completion
0% 100%

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Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Royal Mail values my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, Royal Mail would fail to notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I work with intensity on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert my full effort to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I devote a lot of energy to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I try my hardest to perform well on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I strive as hard as I can to complete my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I exert a lot of energy on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

Please indicate how often you do the following for Royal Mail.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always
Attend functions that are not required but that help Royal Mail image.	<input type="radio"/>				
Keep up with developments at Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>				
Defend Royal Mail when other employees criticise it.	<input type="radio"/>				
Show pride when representing Royal Mail in public.	<input type="radio"/>				
Offer ideas to improve the functioning at Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>				
Express loyalty toward Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>				
Take action to protect Royal Mail from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>				
Demonstrate concern about the image of Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>				

Survey Completion

0%  100%

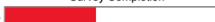
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The statements below represent how you might feel about yourself at work.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At work, my mind is focused on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I am absorbed by my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I concentrate on my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion

0%  100%

>>

The following statements represent how you may think and feel about Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When someone criticises Royal Mail, it feels like a personal insult.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am very interested in what others think about Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I talk about Royal Mail, I usually say "we" rather than "they".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail's successes are my successes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone praises Royal Mail, it feels like a personal compliment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a story in the media criticised Royal Mail, I would feel embarrassed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The following statements refer to how you view your supervisor with regard to Royal Mail.

(N.B. your supervisor refers to the person that would normally conduct your appraisal)

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
When my supervisor encourages me, I believe that Royal Mail is encouraging me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor is pleased with my work, I feel that Royal Mail is pleased.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor compliments me, it is the same as Royal Mail complimenting me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When my supervisor pays attention to my efforts, I believe that Royal Mail is paying attention to my efforts.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is characteristic of Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor and Royal Mail have a lot in common.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I am evaluated by my supervisor, it is the same as being evaluated by Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is representative of Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor is typical of Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I do not feel any obligation to remain with Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave Royal Mail now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel guilty if I left Royal Mail now.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail deserves my loyalty.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would not leave Royal Mail right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I owe a great deal to Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

The statements below represent possible opinions you have of staff (in general) at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is a lot of self-serving behaviour going on at Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People do what's best for them, not what's best for Royal Mail.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the cake.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Many employees are trying to manoeuvre their way into the "in group".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at Royal Mail.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Royal Mail is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail acknowledges any extra effort from me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail would consider a complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail tries to reduce my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I did the best job possible, Royal Mail would notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail shows very little hostility towards me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Royal Mail is dismissive of my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often think about quitting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will probably look for a new job in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

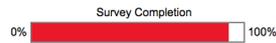


>>

Please indicate how often you do the following at Royal Mail.

IMPORTANT: your responses cannot be traced back to you, hence please answer truthfully and accurately.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always
Taken property from work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>				
Spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working.	<input type="radio"/>				
Falsified a claim form to get reimbursed for more money that you never spent on business expenses.	<input type="radio"/>				
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable.	<input type="radio"/>				
Come in late to work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>				
Littered your work environment.	<input type="radio"/>				
Neglected to follow your manager's instructions.	<input type="radio"/>				
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.	<input type="radio"/>				
Discussed confidential work related information with an unauthorised person.	<input type="radio"/>				
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.	<input type="radio"/>				
Put little effort into your work.	<input type="radio"/>				
Dragged out work in order to get overtime.	<input type="radio"/>				



>>

We thank you for your time spent taking this survey.
Your response has been recorded.



8.3 Convenience survey of employees within the US

Thank you for your interest in this survey!

This questionnaire should take **no more than 15 minutes** to complete. Please read each statement carefully. Some of the questions/statements may seem repetitive, but please respond to all statements.

Your responses will be treated in the **strictest confidence**, therefore **please answer openly and honestly**.

Once you have completed the questionnaire, you will be shown a code that you will need to insert into Mechanical Turk in order to receive your payment.

If you have any questions, please feel free to email me at: s.champion@lse.ac.uk

Many thanks

Stephen Champion (PhD Candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science)

To ascertain your eligibility for this survey, please complete the following questions

	Yes	No
Are you in full-time, salaried employment?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Does the company/organization you work for require you to work at your employer's premises (e.g. office, shop, factory etc)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are there more than approximately 100 employees working for your company/organization?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are you resident in the US?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Are you 18 years old, or older?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

Unfortunately you are not eligible to take this survey.

Thank you for your interest.

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

Thank you! You are eligible to take the survey.

Please insert the following text below to continue the survey.

[Privacy & Terms](#)

>>

Please provide the following information about yourself.

How old are you?

Your sex?

- Male
- Female

How many years have you worked at the company (i.e. organization) in which you currently have a full-time job?

Years

Months

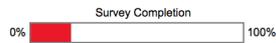
Within which industry is the company?

- Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting
- Mining, Quarrying, and Oil and Gas Extraction
- Utilities
- Construction
- Manufacturing
- Wholesale Trade
- Retail Trade
- Transportation and Warehousing
- Information
- Finance and Insurance
- Real Estate and Rental and Leasing
- Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services
- Management of Companies and Enterprises
- Administrative and Support and Waste Management and Remediation Services

- Educational Services
- Health Care and Social Assistance
- Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation
- Accommodation and Food Services
- Other Services (except Public Administration)
- Public Administration

Approximately, how much do you earn (per year) within your full-time job?

- \$0 - \$10,000
- \$10,001 - \$20,000
- \$20,001 - \$30,000
- \$30,001 - \$40,000
- \$40,001 - \$60,000
- \$60,001 - \$100,000
- \$100,001+



>>

It is important that you read all instructions and answer all questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Therefore, in order to demonstrate that you have read these instructions please answer the question below with the answer Hilary Clinton.

Who is the current president of the United States of America?

Barrack Obama

Hilary Clinton



>>

Sorry, you cannot continue until you correct the following:

- **Issue 1** This is the wrong answer

It is important that you read all instructions and answer all questions as honestly and accurately as you can. Therefore, in order to demonstrate that you have read these instructions please answer the question below with the answer Hilary Clinton.

This is the wrong answer

Who is the current president of the United States of America?

Barrack Obama

Hilary Clinton



>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at your current company (i.e. organization).

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The company values my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Even if I did the best job possible, the company would fail to notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company cares about my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If the company could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company strongly considers my goals and values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company would ignore any complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help is available from the company when I have a problem.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company is willing to help me when I need a special favor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If given the opportunity, the company would take advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The company cares about my opinions.	<input type="radio"/>						
The company tries to make my job as interesting as possible.	<input type="radio"/>						

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

The following statements refer to fairness at work within the company you work for.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall, I'm treated fairly by the company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, the way things work at the company are not fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I can count on the company to be fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, the treatment I receive around here is fair.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
For the most part, the company treats its employees fairly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Most of the people who work here would say they are often treated unfairly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

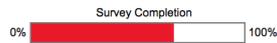
The statements below represent possible opinions you have of staff (in general) at the company you work for.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
There is a lot of self-serving behavior going on at the company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People do what's best for them, not what's best for the company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Many employees are trying to maneuver their way into the "in group".	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often think about quitting	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I will probably look for a new job in the next year	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

Below are a number of statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working at the company you work for.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The company is dismissive of my contribution to its well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company acknowledges any extra effort from me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company would consider a complaint from me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company tries to reduce my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I did the best job possible, the company would notice.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company wishes to reduce my general satisfaction at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company shows very little hostility towards me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company is dismissive of my accomplishments at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company intentionally disregards my goals and values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company intentionally withholds help when I have a problem.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company is unwilling to help me when I need a special favor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company deliberately ignores my opinions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company tries to make my job as unpleasant as possible.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



>>

Please indicate how often you do the following for the company you work for.

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Most of the Time	Always
Attend functions that are not required but that help the company's image.	<input type="radio"/>				
Keep up with developments at the company.	<input type="radio"/>				
Defend the company when other employees criticise it.	<input type="radio"/>				
Show pride when representing the company in public.	<input type="radio"/>				
Offer ideas to improve the functioning at the company.	<input type="radio"/>				
Express loyalty toward the company.	<input type="radio"/>				
Take action to protect the company from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>				
Demonstrate concern about the image of the company.	<input type="radio"/>				

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

Please indicate how often you do the following at the company you work for.

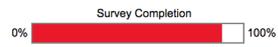
IMPORTANT: your responses cannot be traced back to you, hence please answer truthfully and accurately.

	Never	Once a Year	Twice a Year	Several Times a Year	Monthly	Weekly	Daily
Taken property from work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>						
Spent too much time fantasising or daydreaming instead of working.	<input type="radio"/>						
Falsified a claim form to get reimbursed for more money that you never spent on business expenses.	<input type="radio"/>						
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable.	<input type="radio"/>						
Come in late to work without permission.	<input type="radio"/>						
Littered your work environment.	<input type="radio"/>						
Neglected to follow your manager's instructions.	<input type="radio"/>						
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.	<input type="radio"/>						
Discussed confidential work related information with an unauthorised person.	<input type="radio"/>						
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.	<input type="radio"/>						
Put little effort into your work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Dragged out work in order to get overtime.	<input type="radio"/>						

Survey Completion
0% 100%

>>

In order to receive your survey (payment) code, please enter your Mechanical Turk ID below:



Thank you! You have now completed the survey.

Please insert the following code into Mechanical Turk to receive your payment: **TXMR**

