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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF RELATIONSHIPS AMONG ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE, ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE, and TURNOVER INTENTION

by

Gülce GÜRPINAR

Supervisor
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Y. YAHYAGIL

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Approved by:

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mehmet Y. YAHYAGİL …….
(Supervisor)

Prof. Dr. Ülkü DİCLE …….

Asst. Prof. Dr. Füsun AKDAĞ ……

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

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ABSTRACT

This study examines the nature of relationships between employees' perception of organizational justice, organizational commitment, leader-member exchange, and as well as turnover intention. Data was collected from the sample of 100 employees in a medium-sized public corporation operating in tv-radio broadcasting sector. A questionnaire with 44 questions was used for data collection. Out of the 100 distributed, 65 questionnaires were returned yielding a response rate of 65 %. Responses from the questionnaires were statistically analyzed with correlation and multiple regression analyses. Results of analyses indicated that a significant relationship exists between perception of organizational justice and organizational commitment. Further, perception of organizational justice was found to be significantly and positively related to leader-member exchange. Furthermore, an important outcome of the study is that the variable distributive justice explained a considerable part of variation (57 %) in leader-member exchange. Based on this results, we suggested that fostering perception of organizational justice could promote both organizational commitment and leader-member exchange in the workplace. Top management of any organization should take into consideration of positive outcomes of focusing on fairness in organization.

Key Words: Organizational justice, organizational commitment, leader-member exchange, turnover intention.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma çalışanların örgütsel adalet algıları, örgütsel bağlılıkları, üst-ast ilişkileri ve de işten ayrılma niyetleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektedir. Bu çalışma için veri orta ölçekli, tv-radyo yayını sektöründe faaliyet gösteren devlet kurumunun 100 işgöreninden oluşan örneklemden toplanmıştır. Verilerin toplanmasında 44 sorudan oluşan anket kullanılmış ve dağıtılan toplam 100 adet anket formundan 65 adet anket cevaplanmıştır (geri dönüşüm oranı % 65). Anketlerden elde edilen veri korelasyon ve çoklu regresyon analizleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Uygulanan analiz sonuçları, çalışanların örgütsel adalet algıları ile örgütsel bağlılıkları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğunu göstermiştir. Bundan başka, örgütsel adalet algıları ile üst-ast mübadele ilişkisi arasında anlamlı ve pozitif bir ilişkinin varolduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın en önemli sonucu ise, üst-ast mübadele ilişkisindeki değişimin % 57'nın dağıtılan adalet tarafından açıklandığıdır. Elde edilen sonuçlara dayanarak, örgütsel adalet algılarının artırılması işgörenlerin örgütsel bağlılığını ve üst-ast arasındaki mübadele ilişkisini artırabileceği önerilmiştir. Üst-düzey yöneticiler örgütlerde örgütsel adaleti sağlamanın yaratacağı olumlu sonuçları göz önünde bulundurmalıdırlar.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgütsel adalet, örgütsel bağlılık, üst-ast mübadele ilişkisi, ayrılma niyeti.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

In today's global business world, competition continuously forces organizations to be effective and manage their resources in a way that they obtain competitive advantage. As the most important factor of production, employees with their attitudes and behaviors, play a vital role in effectiveness of organizations.Having loyal and committed employees, with a sense of belonging towards their organization, has been proposed as the key to organizational effectiveness. Committed employees are associated with better organizational performance, have a low turnover rate, and have low absenteeism. In this regard, fostering loyality among employees can be considered a competitive advantage in today's highly competitive environment where organizations are suffering from high employee turnover rates.

Justice has been claimed to be "the first virtue of social institutons" (Rawls, 1971: 3). Social scientists has considered the ideals of justice as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organizations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ (Greenberg, 1990). Organizational justice term, which refers to people's perceptions of fairness in the workplace has been coined to the organizational behaviour literature to explain the role of fairness in the organization. In the past two decades, organizational justice construct has been considered as a significant issue for employee's commitment and loyality to the organization. Individuals are highly sensitive to issues of fairness on the job and expect organizations' decisions to be fair. Organizational reward allocation practices influence employee's justice perceptions through the fairness in distribution of outcomes, the fairness of procedures used by the organization, and as well as the quality of treatment and explanation they receive from organizational authorities. Employees evaluate their experiences at work in terms of whether they are fair and whether organizations show concern for them as an individual (Tyler & Lind, 1992). If they perceive a decison as being fair, they are more likely to reciprocate with higher commitment, greater job satisfaction (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson,Porter, & Ng, 2001). When they believe they have been subjected to unjust decisons or outcomes, they engage in several negative reactions toward

the organization, such as poor performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987 ; Folger & Konovsky, 1989 ; Moorman, 1991 ; Shapiro, 1991) .

Leadership has proposed to have an important role in organizational justice. Numerious investigations has found that the quality of an employee's relationship with the leader (often called leader-member exchange) influence employee's perception of organizational justice. Therefore, it is essential to create positive relationship between leader and subordinates.

In the light of above discussions, it can be concluded that managers should strive to create a fair decision system in order to manage organizational commitment, and provide organizational justice.

This study aims to investigate the nature of relationships between organizational justice, leader-member exchange, organizational commitment, and as well as turnover intentions. The sample for the study included the employees of a public corporation operates in tv-radio broadcasting sector. Research was conducted through questionnaires in August, 2005.

1.1 Purpose of the study

The main purpose of this study is to investigate member exhange, organizational justice (distributive and procedural justice), organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Previous research found that perceptions of both distributive and procedural justice are significantly correlated with work related outcome variables, such as organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Also, it has been proposed that the leader-member exchange influence employee justice perceptions (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987 ; Manogran et al., 1994). It is therefore important to study the relations between lmx, organizational justice, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

The thesis first provides a broad literature concerning the independent variables; organizational justice and leader- member exchange. Then, the dependent variables; organizational commitment and turnover intentions explained in detail. Hypotheses are formed based on the previous studies done which analyzes each variable seperately.

The study will enhance our understanding of organizational justice and the importance of leader- member exchange in order to understand employee's justice perceptions in the organization. In addition, the results may contribute to the literature concerning work-related variables such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions. These variables are important because of their significant relationship with employee turnover.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature relevant to the development of the conceptual model to be tested in this study. First, a review of previous literature on study variables will be discussed. Then, relationships among the variables, and the suggested propositions are presented.

2.1 Organizational Justice

2.1.1 Concept of organizational justice

Organizational justice concept has been studying for more than three decades and has been described as one of the most heavily research topics in the organizational science (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Hundreds of quantitative studies have been conducted on antecedents and consequences of organizational justice perceptions (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Organizational justice refers to people's perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg, 1987). " It is concerned with the ways in which employees determine if they have been treated fairly in their jobs and the ways in which those determinations influence other work-related variables" (Moorman, 1991, p.845).

Generally, research about organizational justice concept has focused on two major issues: employee's responses to the outcomes they receive, and the means by which they obtain these outcomes, that is, the procedures used (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).In other words, theorists in the field of organizational justice have distinguished between conceptualizations of justice that deal with the content of fairness, or what the decisions are, which is termed *distributive justice*, and those that focus on the process of fairness, or how decisions are made, called *procedural justice* (Greenberg, 1990).

2.1.2 Historical overview of organizational justice

Fairness first came to the attention of organizational researchers almost by accident during world war two. In 1949, Stouffer, Suchman, Devinney, Star, and Williams conducted an extensive research program that studied several aspects of soldiers'adjustment to army life (Cropanzano, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). While comparing army air corps with military police regarding satisfaction with promotion, they found that the police officers were more satisfied although they moved up the ranks slower than the officers in the air corps. Stouffer et al.,(1949) reasoned that the difference in satisfaction was likely due to each groups' particular frame of reference. Air corps officers saw their peers promoted radiply, and by comparison judged themselves as treated unfairly. Stouffer and his colleagues had noticed an important point in their study, justice is defined in reference to some standard. Based on this assessment, they coined the term *relative deprivation*. The deprivation is relative in that it is compared to some reference point, and is not an absolute or objective quantity. This idea became the basis for much of the subsequent research (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993)

The earliest theories of social justice that have been applied to organizations (i.e relative deprivation theory, Stouffer et al., 1949 ; distributive justice theory, Homans, 1961; equity theory, Adams, 1965) were derived to test justice principles in general social interactions and not in organizations in particular. In addition, their success was limited in explaining many forms of organizational behavior. But, more recenty more specific research has been conducted and conceptual models have been developed that are more sensitive to variables and issues directly relevant to organizational functioning. These recent attempts to describe and explain the role of fairness in the work-place resulted in a growth of literature of the topic which was labeled - *organizational justice* (Greenberg, 1990).

The significant advance in the organizational justice research was to distinguish the procedural and distributive justice. Theorists have distinguished between conceptualizations of justice that focus on content or outcomes and deal with the fairness of the ends achieved. These are *distributive justice* approaches. And those that focus on

process, and deal with the fairness of the means used to achieve the ends. These are the *procedural justice* approaches (Greenberg, 1990). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes whereas procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness the means used to determine those outcomes (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Organizational justice is basically a combination of procedural and distributive justice (Greenberg , 1990).

2.1.3 Distributive justice

Early research on organizational justice started with distributive justice. It concerns the perceived fairness of outcomes received (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). This perception of fairness is not simply determined by the amount received, but by what is received relative to some referent other (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). In other words, distributive justice involves the receiver's views on how their outcome compare to a referent's outcome, the outcome of another employees. The concept distributive justice has its basis in equity theory (Adams, 1965) and Leventhal's justice judgment model (1976). While equity theory has focused on reactions to pay inequities, Levental studied the conditions under which people proactively employeed various justice norms.

2.1.4 Adam's equity theory

Historically, the equity theory of Adam's (1963, 1965) has been given the greatest attention by organizational scientists interested in issues of justice (Greenberg, 1990). Equity theory incorporated the notion of social comparison into a quasi-mathematical formula outcomes over inputs. The major structural components of equity theory are inputs and outcomes. Inputs are described as what a person perceives as his or her contributions to the exchange, for which he or she expects a just return (e.g education, experience, effort, ability) (Adams, 1965). Outcomes are described as the rewards an individual receives from the exchange, and can include such factors as pay and instrinsic satisfaction (Cohen & Greenberg, 1982). Equity theory claims that people compare the ratios of their own perceived work out-comes (i.e rewards) to their own perceived work inputs (i.e contributions) to the corresponding ratios of a comparison other (e.g a co-worker). If the ratios are unequal, the party whose ratio is higher is theorized to be inequitably overpaid

(and feel guilty) whereas the party whose ratio is lower is theorized to be inequitably underpaid (and feel angry). Equal ratios are postulated to yield equitable states and associated feeling of satisfaction. The presence of inequity will motivate people to achieve equity or to reduce in equity, and Strength of the motivation to do so will vary directly with the magnitude of the inequity experienced. In other words, Adams (1965) contended that when allocation outcomes do not meet this criterion, people would perceive inequity distress and attempt to behaviorally (altering job performance) or psychologically(altering perceptions) restore equity.

Adams (1965) proposed six different models of reducing inequity based on the theory of cognitive dissonance; (1) altering inputs; (2) altering outcomes; (3) cognitively distorting; (4) leaving the field ; (5) acting on the object of comparison by altering or object of comparison. When inequity is sensed, Adams suggests that individuals would go through any of these models to reduce felt inequity.

Adams's (1965) also suggests that underpaid workers should be less productive and less satisfied than equitably paid workers and overpaid workers should be more productive because of motivation resulted from being overpaid, but still less satisfied under overpayment conditions as a result of guilty. Unequal balances, where received outcomes are less the contribution of individual's were assumed to be unpleasant and theorized to cause changes in job satisfacton.

In summary, Adam's equity theory (1965) focused on the reactions of unfair outcomes. If an outcome is believed to be inappropriate relative to some standard, then the individual is likely to experience distributive injustice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). Equity theory employs a unidimensional concept of distributive justice. The theory assumes that individuals continuously compares and judges the fairness of his/her own or other's rewards, solely in terms of a merit principle.

2.1.5 Justice judgement theory

Levental's justice judgement theory (1980) is a proactive countpart to equity theory's reactive approach. This theory tries to explain individual's behavior attempted to create just states. Levental (1980) proposes that individuals attempt to make fair allocations decisions by applying various allocation rules, both distributive and procedural to the situaton they confront. According to Levental, people judge their " deservingness" by using several different justice rules. The distributive justice rules suggested by Levental are: (1) the contribution rule which says the outcomes must be proportional with the inputs and contributions, (2) the needs rule which dictate that individuals with greater need should receive higher outcomes, and (3) the equality rule which says everyone should receive similar outcomes regardless of their needs or contributions. When deciding about their deserved outcomes, individuals assign various weights to these rules and these assigned weights depend on the goals of individual. Leventhal also suggest that individuals basic criteria for evaluating fairness may be change in various situations. Thus, both for distributive and procedural rules, they assigned different weights.

The justice judgement theory also suggests four stages whereby an individual evaluates the justice of outcomes. In the first stage which is the " weighting stage", the individual decides which justice rules to use and how much weight to give them; then in the second stage estimates the amount and types of outcomes that the recipient deserves based on each rule, this is the "preliminary estimation stage", followed by the third stage "rule combination", in which individuals combine the outcomes deserved on the basis of each rule into a final estimate. And finally, the evaluation stage comes where the individual evaluates the fairness of the recipient's actual outcomes by comparing the actual to the deserved outcome. Similar to distributive rules Leventhal (1980) has introduced six procedural justice rules in which the fairness of the procedures depends on . He contended that each rule have a different apperance in any particular procedural situations and unlike the distributive justice rules, all of which were emprically proven to affect allocation preferences and fairness judgments, procedural justice rules of Leventhal are theoretical assumptions about what makes a procedure fair.

1. Consistency: The consistency rule dictates that allocation procedure should be applied consistently across people and across time. When applied across persons, the consistency rule dictates that similar procedures should be applied to all recipients of rewards, and special advantage not be given to anyone. When applied over time, procedure should be kept stable, at least over the short time.

2. Bias suppression: This rule dictates that personal self-interest and blind allegience to narrow preconceptions should be prevented at all points in the allocative process. Leventhal states that if the decision maker has a vested interest in any specific decision or if the decision is made on doctrinaire groups, that is if the decision maker is so influenced by his or her prior beliefs that all points of view do not receive adequate and equal consideration, then the procedure is perceived as unfair in those particular conditions.

3. Accuracy of information: Leventhal (1980) states that the allocative process must be based on accurate information as much as opinion. Information and opinion must be collected and processed with a minimum of error. If the decisions are based on inaccurate information, procedures are perceived to be unfair. Procedural fairness will be enhanced to the extent that the procedure includes provisions that assume the decisions will be based on accurate information and well-informed or expert opinion.

4. Correctability : Opportunities must be exist to enable the allocative process to be modified.

5. Representativeness : This rule suggest that all phases of the allocative process must represent the basic concerns, values, and outlooks of all recipients affected by the allocative process. The decision-makers should include representatives of sub-groups in the total population.

6. Ethicality : Procedures must be compatible with the fundamental moral and ethical values or standards accepted by that individual.

Leventhal(1980) added that individuals apply each of these procedural rules selectively at different times, depending on specific circumstances. In other words, each of these rules will be weighted differently in different situations in an individual's jugdments about procedural fairness. That is, if a certain procedural rule has greater impact than others on judgments of fairness, that rule is said to be have greater weight. Thus, the relative weight of procedural rules may differ from one situation to the next, and from one procedural component to the next. For instance, he assumed that people give more importance to procedural rules that favour their own interests.

2.1.6 Procedural justice

Early research in the area of organizational justice was only concerned with notions of distributive justice. Although this outcome oriented perspective explains how employees react to the nature, and distribution of organizational rewards, it ignores the procedures or means through which ends are established. Because it does not include procedures, it does not allow for clear predictions of individual's responses. Therefore, it provides only a partial understanding of organizational justice. In the early 1970s, theorists have also recognized that procedural justice is important. They began to claim that an individual's evaluations of allocation decisions are affected not only by what the rewards are, but also by how they are made (Deutsch, 1975 ; Thibaut & Walker, 1975 ; Leventhal, 1976, 1980). This idea has been refered to as procedural justice- the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to make decisions in the workplace (Greenberg , 1990). Therefore, the research focus has shifted from distributive to procedural justice (Greenberg , 1990). The concept was first developed in the mid- 1970s when Thibaut and Walker (1975) studied the legal system. They found that it was not simply the verdicts and sentences that lead to perceived fairness, but how the decision are reached, that have an impact on fairness perceptions. They used the term *procedural justice* to refer to social psychological consequences of procedural variations.

Leventhal (1980) offered another approach to procedural justice. This approach focused on the procedural elements rather than on control. Leventhal claim that several procedural elements (e.g the selection of decision-makers, setting ground rules for evaluating

potential rewards, methods of gathering information) are used to evaluate the fairness of outcome distribution procedures. He also asserted that, the fairness of the procedures is evaluated relative to their meeting several criteria; namely the extent to which they suppress bias, create consistent allocations, rely on accurate information, are correctable, represent the concerns of all recipients and are based on prevailing moral and ethical standards (Greenberg , 1990).

Procedural justice was adapted to organizational settings by Greenberg & Folger (1983) what followed was a great deal of empirical work showing that procedural justice has a number of positive consequences for organizations. Procedural justice has been positively related to job performance (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Ball, Trevino,& Sims, 1994) , job satisfaction (Schaubroeck et al, 1994), commitment to organizational decisions (Lind, Kulik, Ambrose, & Park, 1993), organizational citizenship behavior (Ball et al., 1994).

There are two major sets of theoretical ideas in the procedural justice literature that shed light on the importance of procedural justice : (1) The self-interest and group value model suggested by Lind & Tyler which compare explanations of why procedural justice effects occur. (2) Referent cognitions theory suggested by Folger which promises to integrate elements of distributive justice and procedural justice conceptualizations.

2.1.7 The self- interest model

Lind and Tyler (1988) introduced their self-interest model in order to describe why procedural justice effects occur. The researchers represent an effort to expain the effects of procedural justice, rather than just demonstrating the widespread of them. It was suggested in response to the question why is that procedures that provide input into making of decisions are perceived to be fairer than those that do not.

The model (earlier referred to as " instrumental perspective") is based on the assumption that people try to maximize their personal gain when interacting with others. The model also extends this assumption by hypothesizing that people will not only outcomes and procedures in which their interest are favored outright, but also procedures that are

generally fair to themselves with a social group, a political party system or a work organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). Lind and Tyler (1988) also claim that people have egoistic preferences and their only aim to maximize their gains. They also know that sometimes they have to interact with others to obtain desired outcomes, while interacting with others, people can not always maintain complete control over the outcomes. Thus, when in groups sometimes other people's outcomes or priorities must be accepted and one's own desires must be delayed or forgone. The only reason that people remain in groups even though they realize that sometimes their desired outcomes will be foregone is the belief that they will gain in the long-run. In the long run people gain more through cooperation than they can gain alone. So, when procedures by which decisions are made are fair, it is reasonable to expect long-term gains even when people do not gain in the short-run. The theory also claims that people must balance two potentially conflicting objectives: short- term personal gain and long-term relationship maintenance (Lind & Tyler, 1988). This means that while an individual tries to push hard to reach an agreement to get maximum personal gain, he can harm the relationship formed and risk the future relationship within the group. Therefore, people agree to let procedures define how the decisions will be made thus lowering the possibility of conflict.

2.1.8 The group value model

As the self-interest model clarifies the individualistic phase of procedural justice, the group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) tries to form an alternative for understanding the effects of group identification model. Many researchers have shown that people are strongly affected by the identification with groups, even when that identification is based on minimal common circumstances (Brewer & Kramer, 1986; Kramer & Brewer, 1984). Individuals in groups are more likely to put aside their own self-interests and act in a way that helps all group members (Lind & Tyler, 1988). The basic assumption of the model is that group membership is a powerful aspect of social life. Humans by nature are to belong and function in various groups and participate with their group members. Affective relations within and between groups and cognitive constructs concerning those relations are potent factors of attitudes and behavior (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Within this context, the model suggest that people value procedures that promote group-solidarity because they value long-term relationships with groups (Greenberg, 1990). Groups offer more than material rewards. Group affiliation is also a means of their positions within groups and the group's potential for providing them with these valuable social rewards (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Lind & Tyler (1988) also stipulates that people are concerned about their long term social relationship with the authorities or institutions acting as third parties and do not view their relationship with third parties as short-term. Instead, people care about their relationship with these parties. Thus, the group value model proposes three non-control issue that affect procedural justice judgments: the neutrality of the decision-making procedures, trust in third parties(decision-maker) and evidence aboutsocial standing such as expressions of politeness and respect. In a long term relationship, people can not always have what they want. Instead, they must compromise and defer to other's desires and needs (Tyler, 1989). People assume that, over time, all will benefit fairly from the application of fair procedures for decision-making. They focus on whether the authority has created a neutral arena in which to resolve their problem, instead of focusing on whether they receive a favorable outcome in any given decision. In any particular situation, people will be concerned with having an unbiased decision-maker who uses appropriate factual criteria to make decisions.

Tyler (1989) explained the model as follows:

"It suggests that people in organizations focus on their long term association with a group and with its authorities and institutions. People expect an organization to use neutral decision-making procedures enacted by trustworthy authorities, so that, over time, all group members will benefit fairly from being member of the group. They also expect the group and its authorities to treat them in ways that affirm their self- esteem by indicating that they are valued members of the group who deserve treatment with respect, dignity and politeness" (p.837).

2.1.9 Referent cognitions theory

Folger (1986, 1987) offered the referent cognitions theory (RCT) as an approach that promises to integrate the concepts of distributive and procedural justice. Referent cognitions theory expanded upon equity theory's attempts to explain reactions to inequitable work outcomes (Greenberg , 1987). RCT distinguished between two types of reactions: resentment reactions (theorized to result from beliefs about procedures that could be used to attain outcomes, and dissatisfaction reactions (theorized to result from the relative outcomes themselves. RCT explains how dissatisfaction arises when a person compares existing reality to a more favorable alternative (Aquino, Allen, & Hom, 1997). Specially, RCT maintains that in a situation involving outcomes allocated by a decision-maker, resenment is maximized when people believe they would have obtained better outcomes if the decision-maker has used other procedures that should have been implemented (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989).

Folger (1986) states that perceived injustice occurs as a result of two judgments. First, an individual asks himself if he or she would have received the desired outcome under different conditions. This is the distributive justice part of the theory and is based on the referent comparison . Next, the individual also asks oneself if he or she should have gotten the outcome in question. "Would" and "should" therefore become central questions linking procedural and distributive justice (Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). Folger (1986) also claim that people perform three psychological simulations involing referent cognitions, justifications, and the likelihood of amelioration. Referent cognitions are refered to to be the alternative situation that differs from a person's existing situation and is more preferable than the existing one.

People tend to be dissatisfied with the outcomes when the alternative situation is more attractive than the present situation. When people realize that other people are receiving different rewards or outcomes than their own, they are said to be aware of the alternative situations. As referent outcomes are compared to existing outcomes, people might think about what might have been (Aquino, Allen, and Hom, 1997). Regardless of whether the distributive rule being violated is equity, equality, or need, people are apt to feel resentful.

On the other hand, consideration of the way things ought to be done relate to justifications. Comparison between actual procedures and referent procedures generates the question as to which referent procedures are more justifiable than those that produced the existing outcomes. If actual procedures are judged to be morally inferior to referent procedures, then there will be low justification for existing outcomes. Conversely, superior existing procedures will be related to high justification. Thus, if the rationale for an existing procedure is perceived less appropriate than that for the referent procedures, dissatisfaction occurs. Conversely, when the rationale is considered appropriate and hence justifiable, dissatisfaction with present outcomes can diminish (Greenberg, 1987 ; Folger & Martin, 1986).

Sometimes, people may think that the existing situation is temporary and there is a great probability that things will change in the future in favor of them, thus manipulating their satisfaction level. Psychological states about the future conditions are called "likelihood of amelioration" . The point is that the likelihood of amelioration occurs because, when people expect outcomes to improve, they are less dissatisfied than when they see little chance for improvement in their circumstances (Folger, Rosenfield, Rheaume, & Martin, 1983). Martin (1981) found that people's responses to felt deprivation are influenced by their beliefs about whether their organizations are amenable to changes. If they believe that the organizations can change, then inferior outcomes may not produce dissatisfaction. Instead, they may motivate constructive attempts at improvement. However, if employees do not have these beliefs, poor outcomes can produce negative work-related outcomes such as absenteeism, poor peformance, and turnover.

Cropanzano & Folger (1989) suggested that referent cognitions theory offers a potential framework for the interactive effects of distributive and procedural justice in the organization. They also argued that according to the theory, when outcomes are poor, that is distributive justice is low and procedures used by decision-maker is unfair, anger will be maximized in the organizations. Employees will compare this situation to a more favorable one where procedures are fairer. When the procedures are perceived to be fair, anger will be minimal in the organization even though the outcomes are poor-distributive justice is

low. Therefore, under the conditions where procedural justice is high, employees would not wish the use of alternative procedures that would lead to better outcomes.

2.1.10 Taxonomy of organizational justice theories

Greenberg (1987) has derived a taxonomy that categorizes various organizational justice theories by combining two independent dimensions. The first dimension was *reactive-proactive approach* of justice theories. According to the taxonomy, a reactive theory focuses on people's attempts either to escape from or to avoid perceived unfair states. Conversely, proactive theories focus on behaviors designed to promote justice. The distinction between these theories is seeking to redress injustice and striving to attain justice. The second dimension identified as the *process- content approach.* A process approach focuses on how various outcomes are determined (e.g pay and recognition). In other words, this approach focuses on the fairness of the procedures used to make organizational decisions and to implement these decisions. Conversely, content approaches are concerned with the fairness of the resulting distributions of outcomes. These perspectives address the relative fairness of the outcomes received by various organizational units. Greenberg (1987) assumed that the 2 dimensions are independent of each other, therefore, four distinct classes of justice conceptualizations when the two dimensions are combined. Table 2.1 shows the taxonomy of organizational justice theories.

Table 2.1 Taxonomy of organizational justice theories with corresponding predominant exemplars

Reactive-Proactive Dimension	Content- Process Dimension	
	Content	Process
Reactive	Reactive Content Equity theory (Adams, 1965)	Reactive Process Procedural justice theory (Thibaut & Walker,1975)
Proactive	Proactive Content Justice Justice judgement theory (Leventhal, 1976, 1980)	Proactive Process Allocation preference theory (Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry,1980)

Source: Greenberg (1987)

2.1.11 Taxonomy of justice classes

Greenberg (1997) proposed a taxonomy that seeks to clarify the role of social factors in justice conceptualizations. The taxonomy involves classes created by combining categories of justice with focal determinants of justice. The taxonomy is designed to highlight the distinction between the structural and social determinants of justice by noting the place of these determinants in either distributive or procedural justice. Greenberg (1993) proposed that when people make fairness evaluations, they are sensitive to two distinct focal determinants: structural and social. The distinction between is basing on the immediate focus on just action. In the case of structural determinants, justice is sought by focusing on the pattern of resource allocations and procedures perceived as fair under organizational concerns such as performance appraisals (Greenberg, 1986) , employee compensation (Miceli & Lane, 1991) , and managerial dispute-resolution (Karambayya & Brett, 1989). Conversely, the social determinants focus on the treatment of individuals. The act of following a prevailing rule is structurally fair, while the act of treating others in an

open and honest fashion is socially fair (Greenberg, 1986). Table 2.2 shows the typology of the justice classification.

Table 2.2 Taxonomy of justice classes

Focal Determinant	Procedural Justice	Distributive Justice
Structural	Systematic Justice	Configural Justice
Social	Informational Justice	Interpersonal Justice

Source: Greenberg(1993)

Configural justice refers to the type of distributive justice that is accomplished via structural means (Greenberg, 1993). Reward allocation distributions may be structured either by forces To conform to exiating social norms such as equity and equality (Deutsch,1975), or by the desire to achieve some instrumental goal such as minimizing conflict or promoting productivity (Greenberg & Cohen, 1982). These are all ways of structuring the context of reward allocations. On the other hand, interpersonal justice refers to the social aspects of distributive justice. Interpersonal justice is sought by showing concern for individuals regarding the distributive outcomes, they received (Greenberg, 1993)

According to the taxonomy, two types of procedural justice can be classified depending on their context; systematic justice refers to the type of procedural justice that is accomplished via structural means. Structural means include making sure the decisions made; (1) are consistent over people and time, (2) are based on accurate imformation, (3) represent the concerns of all parties, and (4) are compatible with prevailing moral and ethical standards (Munckinsky, 2000). Another class, informational justice refers to social

determinants of procedural justice and it can be sought by providing knowledge about procedures that demnstrate regard for people's concerns.

2.2 Organizational Commitment

2.2.1 The concept of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment concept has received considerable attention over the last three decades by researchers. Conceptual and empirical studies have explored typologies, definitions, antecedents, and consequances of organizational commitment. Although the thirty years of intense research, it is difficult to provide a clear-cut definition of organizational commitment due to the existence of different interpretations.

Organizational Commitment has been defined both by two divergent schools of thoughts: attitudinal and behavioral (Reichers, 1985). The attitudinal school (variously termed rational, organizational behavior) stems from the works of Porter, Steers, Mowday,& Boulian (1974) ; Buchanan (1974) ; Mowday Steers, and Porter (1979). This school views organizational comitment as an attitude which reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and a organization. According to (Sheldon, 1971: 143), attitudinal commitment refers to the "attitude or an orientation to the organization which links or attaches the identity of person to the organization". Thus, the person develops an emotional or psychological attachment to his or her employer. In contrast to the attitudinal school, the behavioral school (variously termed irrational, social, psychological has developed largely out of the work of Becker(1960) , Kiesler, (1971), and Salancik(1977). According to the behaviorists, organizational commitment is demonstrated by " overt manifestations of commitment" (Mowday et al., 1979) to the organization such as extra-role behaviors that link employee to their respective institution. Additionally, by remaining with the organization, employees accumulate " investments or "side-bets" that make leaving the organization very costly (Becker, 1960).

Mowday et al.,(1982) explain the difference between the schools as follows:

"Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. […] Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem." (p. 26).

Porter et al.,(1974) give a widely accepted definition for organizational commitment as; "Commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p.604).

According to Buchanan (1974) : " Commitment is a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, to one's role in relation to the goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake" (p.533).

The definition for organizational commitment presented by Becker (1960) was; "The tendency to engage in consistent lines of activity because of the perceived cost of doing otherwise " (p.33).

Salancik (1977, p.60) defined commitment as; "A state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities and his own involvement".

2.2.2 Historical overview of organizational commitment

Literally hundreds of articles have been published on the concept of organizational commitment since its introduction to organizational behavior research in the early 1950's. The commitment concept emerged from studies exploring employee-organization linkages. The motivation for these studies was provided by a belief that committed employees would be beneficial due to the potential for increased performance, reduced turnover and absenteeism (Mowday, 1998).

Becker's (1960) side-bet theory was the earliest commitment study. This study has been the basis for many exchange based studies in commitment literature. Becker proposes that commitment is built on the principle of consistent behavior. "Commitment come into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (p.32). Commitment is primarily a function of individual behavior; individuals become committed to the organization through their actions and choices over time (Becker, 1960). Side-bets are defined as valuable or that he/she has made an investment such as time, effort, money, work relationship, pension plans and organizational specific skills. When the employee discontinues the employer-employee relationship, these investment are lost. Becker's (1960) theory is a behavior approach that predisposes employees to consistently engage in those behavior as a result of the accumulation of "side-bets" that would be lost if the behaviors were discontinued (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

Following Becker(1960), Etzioni(1961) makes the first attempt to identify and categorize commitment types. He categorized commitment as; moral, calculative, and alienative. He proposed a commitment model focusing on employee compliance with organizational objectives. His model is based on the argument that any actual or power organizations have over indididuals is rooted in the nature of employee commitment. This means that organizations have substantially less authority or power over employees who have lower levels of commitment. Etzioni (1961) concludes when employees have higher levels of commitment to organizational objectives, the organization will have more authority or power over these same employees.

In 1968, Kanter took a different view proposing that different types of commitment result from the different behavioral requirements imposed on employees by the organization. Her model suggested three different forms of commitment: (1) Continuance Commitment; (2) Cohesion Commitment ; (3) Control Commitment. According to Kanter, continuance commitment represents the member's dedication to the survival of the organization. This type of commitment is caused by requiring members to make personal sacrifices to join or remain with an organization. Having members with significant tenure was given as an example to this kind of commitment. On the other hand, cohesion commitment is identified as attachment to social relationships in an organization brought on by such techniques as public renunciation of previous social ties or by engaging in ceremonies that enhance group cohesion. Using uniforms or badges or having an employee recognition program(employee of the year) are examples for cohesion commitment. Control commitment is defined by Kanter(1968) as a member's attachment to the organization's norms that shape behavior in desired directions. Control commitment exists when employee believe their organization's norms and values serve as a model for suitable behavior. Kanter(1968) found that these three commitment approaches are highly interrelated. He claims that organizations can use all of them simultaneously to influence higher levels of commitment to the organization.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested three different types of psychological bonds that provide the foundation for commitment. Namely, compliance, identification, and inter-nalization. Compliance occurs when attitudes and behaviors are adopted not because of shared beliefs but simply to, gain rewards; identification occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship ; that is an individual may feel proud to be part of a group, respecting its values and accomplishments without adopting

them as his or her own . Lastly, internalization occurs when influence is accepted because the induced attitudes and behaviors are congruent with one's own value.

Aven(1988) argues that committed employees are more likely to engage in the following four behaviors more often and more consistently than are non-committed employees: (1) committed employees have higher levels of participation ; (2) committed employees remain with the organization for longer periods and make more contributions for achieving organizational objectives; (3) committed employees are more higly involved their jobs; (4) committed employees exert considerably more effort on behalf of the organization. There is a general agreement that organizational commitment by employees is a highly desirable psychological state (Aven, 1988).

More recently, another view is suggested by Meyer & Allen (1991) which encompasses the previous views. They developed a three component model of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative. Affective commitment is characterized as an emotional or psychological attachment to the organization. On the other hand, continuance commitment is defined as a need to stay with the organization because one has accumulated too many investments and leaving would therefore be very costly. Normative commitment is characterized by the employee's belief that he/she is obligated to stay with a particular organization because loyalty and/or allegiance.

2.2.3 Multidimensional models of organizational commitment

Early commitment studies viewed organizational commitment from a unidimensional perspective (Ritzer & Trice, 1969 ; Buchanan, 1974). More recently, there is a growing consensus that organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct (O'Reilly

& Chatman, 1986 ; Meyer & Allen, 1991). The following section will explain the two significant multidimensional models of commitment.

2.2.3.1 O' Reilly's and Chatman three component model

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) proposed a three-dimensional model based on the assumption that organizational commitment represents an attitude toward the organization, and that there are various mechanisms through which attitudes can develop. Based on Kelman's(1958) taxonomy regarding attitude and behavioral change, they propose that commitment takes three forms:

- Compliance. This ocurs when attitudes and corresponding behaviors are adopted in order to gain specific rewards.

- Identification. This occurs when an individual accepts influence to establish or maintain a satisfying relationship.

- Internalization. This occurs when the influence is accepted because the attitudes and behaviors one is being encouraged to adopt are congruent with existing values.

The one's psychological attachment to an organization can reflect varying combinations of these three psychological foundations (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). The Kelman's typology of compliance, identification, and internalization can be used to understand the motives underlying behaviore in work settings (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). Within this framework, they demonstrate that non-instrumental motives influence both extra-role behavior and turnover intentions. Commitment based on identification and commitment based on internalization were found to be positively related to extra-role behaviors and

negatively related to turnover, but compliance- based commitment, with the exception of a significant association with intent to leave, was found to be unrelated to both extra-role behavior, and actual turnover.

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) model has been weakened by the fact that it has been difficult to distinguish between identification and internalization. Further studies indicated that measures tend to correlate highly with one another and showed similar patterns of correlation with measures of other variables (O'Reilly et al., 1992 ; Vandenbergh et al., 1994). O'Reilly and Chatman then decided to combine these two, namely, identification and internalization and called it normative commitment.

2.2.3.2 Meyer and Allen's three-component model

In an attempt to integrate the varying perspectives of the organizational commitment construct, Meyer and Allen (1991) conducted comprehensive and critical reviews of organizational commitment literature. Based on research findings, they developed a multi-dimensional model which conceptualized commitment in terms of three distinct themes. Specially, they view organizational commitment as affective orientation toward the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Meyer and Allen (1991) argued that the psychological state reflected in these different definitions of organizational commitment are not mutually exclusive. They refered to these states as components of organizational commirtment. These components are; affective commitment (emotional) ,continuance commitment (cost-based), and normative commitment (obligation). They characterized affective commitment as an emotional or psychological attachment to the organization. On the other hand, continuance is defined as a need to stay with the organization. Normative commitment is characterized by the belief that he or she is obligated to stay with a particular organization because of personal loyalty and/or allegiance. In other words, " employees with a strong affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they need to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to do so (Meyer & Allen, 1993, p.539). " The net sum of a person's commitment to the organization, reflects each of these separable psychological states (affective attachment, perceived costs, and obligation) " (Allen & Meyer, 1990: 4). Due to distinction, they propose that each component should develop from causes. Affective component is expected to develop on the basis of work experiences that increases the employee's feeling of challenge and comfort in the organization. Continuance component develops as a function of the number and magnitude of investments employee's make in their organization (e.g pension contributions and the degree to which they feel they have employment alternatives). Finally, they argued that the antecedents of normative commitment include early socialization experiences (e.g parental emphasis on the loyalty to an employer) as well as those that occur after organizational entry.

2.2.4 Antecedents of organizational commitment

The extensive literature on commitment has explored different types or bases of commitment to an organization, as well as a wide variety of antecedent conditions hypothesized to influence commitment levels. For instance, Meyer and Allen (1992) distinguished between continuance, affective, and normative type of commitment ; and Balfour and Wechster (1994) identified the three dimension of exchange, affiliation and identification commitment. Research investigating the validity of these conceptual distinctions has suggested that, instead of three general types of commitment, two broad categories are more consistently verified empirically. Morrow (1993) indicates that organizational commitment can be differentiated between calculative / continuance and attitudinal / affective bases of commitment.

The antecedents literature has two major perspectives namely; the organizational behavior (OB) perspective and the rational choice (RC) perspective. Literature from the OB perspective tends to support the notion that higher levels of comitment are generated by organizational practises that are congruent with employee's personal values (Balfour & Wechster, 1994). On the other hand, the RC perspective tends to emphasize the importance of organizational practises that are credibly reward performance with tangible benefits (Miller, 1992). Calculative / Continuance is generally compatible with rational perspective. From this perspective, employees are engaged in an exchange relationship with the organization, and they make a rational evaluation of the inducements they receive in exchange for the contributions to the organization.

On the other hand, Attitudinal / Affactive commitment is generally compatible with the dominant orientation in the organizational bahavior literature that views commitment as reflecting an employee's psychological attachment to an organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Porter et al., 1974). These two categories of commitment imply a focus on different types of antecedents to commitment. The RC orientation toward afective commitment suggest that the most important antecedents are the benefits an employee accurues from the participation in the organization. These would include most obviously the various extrinsic rewards that are received by the employeee in the present, as well as the possibility of increased rewards (e.g through promotion) in the literature. It also includes organizational

specific knowledge and skills that would lose their value if the employee left the organization. Thus, demographic characteristics such as age , and tenure in the organization are also likely to antecedents of this type of commitment.

A wide range of personal characteristics has been linked to organizational commitment. The most frequently studied are age, gender, tenure, and education (Mathieu, & Zajac, 1990). Age has been shown to be positively related to commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Lee (1971); Sheldon (1971). It is generally throught that the link between age and tenure causes this relationship(Buchanan, 1974; Morris & Sherman, 1981). That is, as age increases so does tenure, and tenure is argued to result in the link between age and commitment (Williams & Hazer, 1986).

There are competing theories regarding the relationship between gender and commitment. Several researchers report that women are consistently more committed to organizations than are men (Angle & Perry, 1981; Mowday et al, 1982). Others have argued that no gender relationship will be found when age, education, and organizational levels are statistically controlled (Brief & Aldag, 1975; Branins & Snyder, 1983).

Tenure has been shown to be positively related to commitment (Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971). Allen and Meyer (1999) examined change in organizational commitment across career stages. They found that affective commitment declines in the first year of employment. A reasonable explanation for this is that newcomers enter the organization with unrealistically high expectations, but as they learn more about their work, they experience reality shock and affective reactions alter accordingly. There is a little evidence for continuation of this downward trend.

Mixed results are reported regarding education as an antecedent. Koch and Steers (1978) report a positive relationship between education and commitment. Education or the desire for education may also inversely related to commitment(Steers, 1977). Angle & Perry (1981) reasoned that decreasing level of education may restrict the individual to the present job. Mowday et al., (1982) pointed out that higher educated individuals may also have

higher expectation than the organization is able to met. This would likely to lower commitment.

2.2.5 Measurement of organizational commitment

Various questionnaires have been developed to measure the organizational justice construct. Mowday, Porter, and Steer's (1979) measure, commonly known as OCQ (Organizational Commitment Scale) , is the most popular measure in the literature. This instrument has been used extensively throughout the past two decades, and its' validity and reliability for measuring organizational commitment has proven by researchers (Mowday, Steers, & Porter,1982; Lee & Johnson , 1991).

Working with sample of 2563 employees in nine divergent organizations, Mowday et al., (1979) identifies fifteen items that appear to tap an employee's belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals, their willingness to expand effort and their desire to maintain membership of the organization. They proposed that these three aspects are related to organizational commitment. In the study, they used two samples to compute the reliability of their measure. The first sample yields a reliability of .53, .63 , and .75 over a two, three, and four month period , while the second sample yield a relability of .72, and .62 over two and three month period respectively.

In 1986, O' Reilly and Chatman developed an instrument for their threee component model of organizational commitment. In two studies they conducted, factor analyses of the responses to the instrument resulted in three factors as predicted. But, some researchers claim that further study is needed. For instance, Sutton & Harrison (1993) examined the factorial validity and reliability of the O'Reilly and Chatman's instrument. The results did not support O ' Reilly and Chatman's findings. They found that the instrument taps two components; one containing both the internalization and identification, and a second component that may be related to compliance. Their finding supported the Meyer and Allen's (1984) two factors ; affective and continuance. In 1993, Meyer, Allen, and Smith developed a scale in which the three components in their conception of commitment can be

assessed. Research with the scale has found support for the idea that the three types of commitment are seperate variables (Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda, 1994).

2.3 Leader- Member Exchange (LMX)

2.3.1 Concept of leader – member exchange

Numerous studies have suggested and empirically demonstrated that the relationships subordinates have with their supervisors are one of the most determinant of subordinates's behaviours and attitudes (e.g Manzoni & Barsoux, 2002) which in turn lead to a number of individual and organizational outcomes. The quality of the relationship between superiors and subordinates often has been studied with leader – member exchange (lmx) theory. Lmx theory generally refers to the relationship-based approach of leadership which focuses on the quality of interactions between leaders and members. The theory contends that leaders do not treat or evaluate their members in the same way, rather develop seperate relationships with each of their members through a series of work-related exchanges (Graen, 1976).

2.3.2 Historical Overview of Leader – Member Exchange

In the past 30 years, lmx theory has passed through four stages with each stage building on the stages preceding it in terms of theoretical clarificaton of lmx process (Graen & Uhl – Bien, 1995). The first stage research found that leaders developed differentiated relationships with their subordinates, a contradict finding to the prevailing research to leadership which assumed that leaders displayed consistent behavior toward all subordinates in their work units. The second stage focused on these differentiated relationships that the leader had within work unit. The majority of lmx research has been conducted in stage two. In the stage three, the emphasis moved from the leader's differentiation of subordinates to "how they may work with each person on a one- on one basis to develop a partnership with each of them"(Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999, p.64). The final stage broadens the scope from the dyad to larger collectives. Thus, they explore how dyadic relationships are organized within and beyond the organizational system.

Early leadership theories has explained leadership as a function of the personal characteristics of the leader, the features of the situation , or an interaction between the leader and the group (Gerstner & Day, 1997). They treated leadership as something leaders did towards all of their followers. This assumption implied that leaders treated followers in a collective way, as a group, using an average leadership style (Northouse, 1997). These early leadership theories have not been completely satisfactory. They failed to recognize that the relationsip between a leader and a subordinate may have an impact upon the attitudes and behavior of the subordinate.

LMX theory was first described twenty-five years ago in the work of Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). Dansereau et al., (1975) proposed that leader-member relationships are heterogeneous, that is, the relationship between a leader and a member contained within a work unit are diffrent, and that each leader-member relationship is a unique interpersonal relationship within an organizational structure. They coined the term vertical dyad linkage (VDL) to describe the dyadic relationship between a leader and a subordinate. VDL theory focuses on reciprocal influence processes within dyads. Folowing Dansereau and his colleaques, Graen (1976) claims that research should focus on the behavior of the leader and the subordinate within the supervisor-subordinate dyad rather than the supervisor and his or her work group. He developed the theoretical base of the LMX model of leadership by building on role theory.

The concept of a developed or negotiated role form the theoretical basis of LMX theory. Dansereau et al. (1975) initially, conceptualized and tested the construct of negotiating latitude in an investigation. They defined the negotiating latitude as the extent to which a leader allows a member to identify his or her role development; and hypothesized as being central to the evolution of the quality of the leader-member exchange.

The social exchange theory provide the theoretical basis for LMX as well (Sparrowe &Liden, 1997). LMW depends almost entirely on the theoretical framework of the social exchange theory which postulated by Blau (1964). The social exchange theory is established in the context of Gouldner's (1960) "norm of reciprocity". Blau (1964)

propose that social exhanges entail unspecified obligations; when one person does another a favor, there is an expectation of some future return, though exactly when it will occur and in what form is often unclear (Gouldner, 1960). Employees tend to take a long-term approach to social exchange relationship at work, with the pattern of reciprocity overtime determining the perceived balance in exchanges (Rousseau, 1989).

2.3.3 Theories underlying leader-member exhange theory

2.3.3.1 Social exchange theory

Researchers have been increasingly interested in the role of exchange processes in organizations (Rousseau, 1990 ; Wayne et al., 1997), and social exchange theory has been a underlying framework for a large portion of this research. Blau's(1964) social exchange theory proposes that any social exchange between two people entails obligations. Thus, when one person does something (i.e a favor) for another person, there is a expectation of a future return, through exactly when it will occur and in what form is often unclear(Gouldner, 1960). Gouldner(1960) refered to this concept of returning favors as the "norm of reciprocity". The norm prescribes that one should help those who have helped his/her in the past and retaliate against those who have been to his/her interests.

In addition, Gouldner (1960) stated that individuals feel bound to help those who have helped them. In applying this rule to lmx relationship quality, leaders give certain advantages or benefits to individuals with whom they have higher quality lmx relationship. In return for these advantages, leaders expect members to help them with work tasks that are beyond the scope of the formal job description (Liden & Graen, 1980). Thus, the rewards provided by the supervisor often create feelings of obligation on the part of the subordinate. To relieve these feelings of obligation, the subordinate works harder and longer, providing the supervisor with benefits (i.e looking good, having subordinates with higher performance) in return. In leader-member relationships, there are numerous exchanges with high quality lmx relationships being characterized by exchanges that are mutual and balanced (Liden et al., 1997).

2.3.3.2 Role theory

Role theory was first identified by the social scientists in the mid-1930's, but it was not until years later (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Kahn et al.,1964) that role theory became more widely accepted and readily used in organizational research. In attempting to explain the theory, Biddle(1986, p.67) wrote that "role theory is a science concerned with the study of behaviour that are characteristic of persons within contexts and with various processes that presumably produce, explain, or are affected by those behaviours". In addition, role theory explains roles by presuming that individuals have social positions, and hold expectations for the behaviours of themselves and others.

Applying the role theory to lmx relationship quality, supervisors and subordinates engage in social interactions during which work assignments are made by the supervisor. Generally, more important organizational roles are given to subordinates whom the supervisors like and/or view as strong performers. In contrast, lesser roles are given to those whom are viewed as less capable or less liked. From these high quality relationships, subordinates receive several advantages including formal and informal rewards, favor doing, ample access to supervisors, and increased communication (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

2.3.4 Development of lmx

LMX has been proposed as a result of role-taking, role- making, and role routinization behaviors showed by both supervisor and subordinate (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, 1976). The role-taking is the first stage at which the leader initiates an assignment of tasks and begins to evaluate the behavior of the member and then makes a decision regarding responses to the member. In addition, the leader also gathers important information regarding the member's potential for tasks in this stage. Dyadic exchange in this stage is based on ecenomic transactions (Graen& Scandura, 1987). When the role-taking phase is complete , the second phase , the role-making phase begins. Graen and Uhl- Bien (1995) called this stage " acquaintance stage". In this stage, the leader and member develop how each will behave in various situations and start to define the nature of their dyadic relationship (Graen & Scandura, 1987). If the dyad is developing into a

high quality exchange relationship, the exchange becomes more social, and less economic (Graen, Uhl-Bien, 1995). Conversely, if the relationship is not evolving to the next level, the relationship will remain based on the employment contract (Bauer & Green, 1996) . When this process operates, the leader and member negotiate, because collaoration on tasks is exchanged for a dyadic social structure. After the role-making stage, in the role routinization stage, the behaviors of a leader and a member becomes much more predictable. The exchage is carried on over time through the collaborating process on different tasks. The dyadic relationship that develops interlocked behaviors includes the relational dimensions of trust, respect, loyalty, liking, support and quality. The exchange of resources of the leader for collaboration on tasks by the member is controlled by mutual expectations (Graen & Scandura, 1987) . Nevertheless, due to the limited resource available to leaders for exchange and the investment of time necessary a high quality of exchange tends to be developed and carried on in a limited number of leader-member dyads (Dienesch & Linden, 1986).

2.3.5 Members characteristic

Much of the research on LMX divides the subordinate's roles and the quality of the LMX into two basic categories based on the leader's and member's perceptions of the negotiating latitude; the in-group and the out-group (Dansereau, Graen & Haga , 1975 ; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Liden & Graen , 1980; Scandura & Graen, 1984) .Leaders treat subordinates differently at varying degrees and levels contingent on whether the latter are part of the in-group (high quality relationship) or out-group (low relationship) (Graen & Scandura , 1987). The theory asserts that leaders do not interact with subordinates uniformly because supervisors have limited time and resources (Graen and Cashman, 1975) .

In- group members : According to LMX theory, those employees who are considered part of a manager's in group have a high quality exchange(Dansereau, et al. 1975). In-group or high quality LMX is associated with high trust, interaction, support, and formal/ informal rewards. In- group subordinates perform their jobs in accordance with the employment contract and can be counted on by the supervisor to perform unstructured

tasks , to volunter for extrawork, and to make on additional responsibilities. They receive attention, sensitivity, and support from their leader in exchanges that are characterized by mutual trust, respect, liking, and a high level of interaction (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Superiors treat their in-group members as "trusted assistants" or "cadre" who perform their jobs beyond their job description (Dansereau et al., 1975).

Out- group members: Krone (1991) state that the out-group member develops more formal and restrictive relationships with the supervisors and performs only routine tasks. Out- group members are confined to relatively mundane tasks, and experience a more formal relationship with their leaders working largely in accordance with their job description (Liden & Graen, 1980). Dansereau et al., (1975) use the term " hired-hand" to describe the subordinates in this category. " Low quality " exchange is the classification of this relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate (dyad). Northouse (2001) propose that mutual trust, respect, liking, and reciprocal influence mark relationships within the in-group. On the other hand, relationships within the out-group are marked formal communication based on job descriptions.

2.3.6 Multidimensionality of lmx

Lmx traditionally has been treated as a unidimensional construct that represents a measure of general quality of the exchange relationship between superior and subordinate. However, more recently, several theorists have argued that treating lmx as a multidimensional construct more appropriately characterizes the leader- member relationship (Linden & Maslyn, 1998; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997; Dienesch & Liden, 1986). According to Dienesch & Liden(1986), there is no clear theoretical or empirical justification for the traditional conceptualization of lmx. In addition, they proposed that the theoretical underpinnings (role theory and social exchange theory) are more consistent with a multidimensional perspective. Liden & Maslyn (1998: 44) explain the multidimensionality of LMX as;

"Role theory, which is has provided the theoretical foundation for LMX research (e.g Graen, 1976) stresses that roles are multidimensional (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Jacobs, 1971). For example, some subordinates may focus on their tasks, while neglecting social interation and not tasks, and others may be weak or strong on both dimensions (Bales , 1958). Leaders' roles are also comprised of multiple factors, including such activities as supervision, allocating resources, and serving as a liaison (Kim & Yukl, 1995).

The social exchange theory also provide theoretical support for multidimensionality of lmx. From the literature of Krackhardt (1990) and Sparrowe, Liden & Wayne (1997), there is a suggestion that exchange relationships between individuals appear to characterized by multiple dimensions (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Dienesch and Liden (1986) suggest that LMXs may be based on varing amounts of three currencies of exchange: task related (labeled contribution), loyalty to each other(labeled loyalty) , and simply liking one another (labeled affect). They propose that an exchange might be based on one, two, or all three of these dimensions. Thus, they rejected the view that lmx is a unidimensional construct in favor of a multidimensional conceptualization of the construct.

2.3.7 Consequences of lmx

In organizational settings, it is important to understand employees' relationship with their leaders. The quality of the exchange relationship between them can impact many of job-related outcomes. Therefore, most of the research on LMX focus on the prediction of salient outcomes. It has been proposed that LMX is related with performance- related and attitudinal variables, especially for members. Generally, LMX is found to be positively associated with performance ratings (Linden & Graen, 1980; Linden, Wayne, Feldman, 1986), overall job satisfaction (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982; Scandura & Graen,1984), satisfaction with supervisor (Duchon, Graen, & Taber, 1986) , organizational commitment (Nystrom, 1990). On the other hand, LMX is negatively related to turnover (Graen, Linden, & Hoel, 1982) and intention to quit (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984). For example, Felman (1986) propose that subordinates with high quality

of LMX relationships may actually perform better because of the added support , feedback, resources, and opportunities provided to them. Linden and Graen (1980) found that out- group members who reported spending less time on decision-making were less likely to volunter for special assignments and for extra work, and were rated by the leader as being lower on overall performance than in-group members.

Scandura and Graen (1984) concluded that training interventions designed to improve supervisor's understanding and helpfulness in dyadic relations significantly improved the job satisfaction of members who initially had low-quality exchanges with their leader Nystrom (1990) examined the quality of vertical exchanges between managers and their bosses, and found that members who experience low-quality exchanges with their bosses tend to feel little organizational commitment, whereas managers with high-quality exchanges express strong organizational commitment.

Concerning studies of lmx and actual turnover, some have found a significant negative relation (Dansereau et al., 1975 ; Graen et al., 1982), while others have found a nonsignificant correlation (Vecchio, 1985 ; Vecchio et al., 1986). Because of obtaining measures on actual employee turnover are difficult, therefore, a number of turnover studies measured turnover intentions. Results from these studies all found a significant negative correlations (Liden & Maslyn, 1998 ; Sparrowe, 1994).

2.3.7 Measurement of leader-member exchange

Although the lmx construct is the most researched leadership theory, there is limited consensus as to the appropriate measurement of construct (Goertzen, 2004). Due to controversy over the measurement, various lmx scales ranged from two to 25 items has been developed over the years. According to Graen et al.,(1995), this controversy comes from the continual redefining of lmx scales in the studies, as well as the uses of measures althogether different from the original formation of the measure.

In Table 2.3, a summary of measures used and analytic methodology employed in empirical lmx studies is given. This table is taken from Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser (1999, p.8). As shown in the table, the initial studies of lmx scale by Graen, Dansereau, & Minami(1972a, 1972b) ; Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen (1973) , and Graen, Dansereau,Minami,& Cashman(1973a) used 40 items from Ohio State studies's Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Later, Graen et al., (1972b, 1973a) used the Role Orientation Index (ROI) along with the LBDQ as supplementary leadership measure. Further, Lmx was measured with the Supervisory Attention Scale by Haga,Graen,& Dansereau(1974).This measure also refer to as Supervisor Treatment, Leadership Attention, Leadership Attention, and Support by other researches. Expect Haga et al.(1974), other studies did not support a complete list of items and response categories. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether the other studies reporting use of this measure actually used the same instrument.

A two-item measure, Negotiating Latitude, was first used by Dansereau et al.,(1975) to assess lmx along with the measure of Leadership Attention, and Leadership Support. In the same year, Graen& Cashman(1975) added 2 new items to the orijinal Negotiating Latitude scale. No information was given by the authors regarding the two new item's development or why they were added. The 1980s did not create any clearer consensus in lmx measurement, although the development of Scandura& Graen's(1984) LMX-7 scale which has became the most commonly-used measure for lmx (Gerstner & Day, 1997). In addition, most of lmx research throughout the 1980s continued to employ many different lmx scales. Schreimheim et al.,(1999) reported that 16 different measures (ranging from

two to 25 items) were employed to assess the quality of lmx. The majority of these studies did not indicate the source or origin of the measure, and did not report even if the measure was new or modified.

In the 1990s, researchers continued to use different scales without providing adequate psychonometric testing. Due to this great deal of variation in the studies, it is difficult to determine whether the measures used were identical to previous scales or to what extent they were altered.

Addressing the multidimensionality of the lmx construct, numerious different measures have been developed to assess the subdimensions; mutual affect, contribution, and loyalty that were sugggested as being the key subdimensions of lmx by Dienesch& Liden(1986). Dienesch(1987) used two scales developed by Diensch& Liden(1986) to measure the three dimensions. Further, Schriemheim et al.,(1992b) validated a six-item scale with two items for each subdimension. More recently, Liden & Maslyn(1998) developed a 13- item scale, LMX-MDM, to assess leader-member exchange as a multi-dimensional construct.The measure includes four dimensions; affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect. While limited research has assessed lmx with LMX-MDM, the measure holds promise for further understanding the complex phenomena of quality of leader-member exchange(Goertzen & Fritz, 2004).

Table 2.3 Summary of measures used and analytic methodology employed in empirical lmx studies, 1972-1998.

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
1. Graen, Dansereau, & Minami (1972a)	LBDQ (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscales) (40 items) (Stogdill & Coons, 1957)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Correlations; *t*-tests.
2. Graen, Dansereau, & Minami (1972b)	LBDQ (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscales) (40 items) (Stogdill & Coons, 1957); Role Orientation Index (Dominance and Competence subscales) (11 items) (Graen, Dansereau, & Minami, 1972a); 2 Leader-member influence scales (number of items not reported) (new scale; Tannenbaum, 1968)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Correlations; MANOVA.
3. Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen (1973)	LBDQ (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscales) (40 items) (Stogdill & Coons, 1957)	Raw Scores; ANOVA.
4. Graen, Dansereau, Minami, & Cashman (1973a)	LBDQ (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscales) (40 items) (Fleishman, 1957; Fleishman, Harris, & Burtt, 1955) plus 20 other new items	Raw Scores; Correlations.
5. Graen, Orris, & Johnson (1973b)	8-facet Supervisory Attention scale (source of scale and number of items not reported; content areas appear similar to Supervisory Treatment Scale [Haga, Graen, & Dansereau, 1974])	Raw Scores; Correlations.
6. Haga, Graen, & Dansereau (1974)	Supervisory Treatment (8 items) (new scale; item content similar to Leadership Attention scale [Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975])	Raw Scores; MANOVA.
7. Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975)	Negotiating Latitude (2 items); Leadership Attention (8 facets) and Leadership Support (12 facets) to measure leader and member contribution (new scales but content of Leadership Attention is similar to Supervisory Treatment scale [Haga, Graen, & Dansereau, 1974])	Raw Scores; Means; *t*-tests.
8. Graen & Cashman (1975)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (source of scale not reported, but referenced Haga, Graen, & Dansereau [1974], Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1975], and Graen [1976] for details; items not listed)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); Correlations.
10. Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1976)	Superior Negotiating Latitude (2 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975); Superior Vertical Exchange (3 items) (items and source of scale not reported)	Raw Scores; ANOVA.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
11. Graen & Ginsburgh (1977)	Leader attention to needs, Leader's divulging job information, Leader's support (content of these 3 is similar to Supervisory Treatment scale [Haga, Graen, & Dansereau, 1974]), Leader's personal sensitivity, Leader's allowance for self determination (number of items and source of scales not reported); Leader acceptance (2 items) (new scale; similar to Negotiating Latitude scale of Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1975])	Raw Scores (dichotomized); MANOVA.
12. Graen, Cashman, Ginsburgh, & Schiemann (1977)	Leader–boss Linking Pin Quality (4 items) (source of scale not reported); Leader- and member-reported Latitude and Support (number of items and source of scales not reported)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); ANOVA.
13. Schiemann (1977)	Leader Behavior Index (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975); Dyadic Exchange scale (Graen & Cashman, 1975)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; MANOVAs (dyadic exchange scores trichotomized).
14. Graen & Schiemann (1978)	LMX (4 items) (new scale; referenced Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1975] and Graen & Cashman [1975])	Raw Scores; Profile Similarity; Pattern Agreement.
15. James, Gent, Hater, & Coray (1979)	3 items based on discussion in House & Mitchell (1974) and Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975)	Raw Scores; Standard Dev.; Correlations; Subgroup Moderator Analysis.
16. Liden & Graen (1980)	Vertical Exchange/Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (same items as in Graen & Schiemann [1978])	Raw Scores (trichotomized); MANOVA.
17. Schriesheim (1980)	Initiating Structure and Consideration (10 items each) modified from the LBDQ-XII (Stogdill, 1963)	Raw Scores; Subgroup Moderator Analysis; Mult. Regression.
18. James, Hater, & Jones (1981)	Influence Opportunity (3 items) and Control (5 items) based on Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975)	Raw Scores; Parallelism of Regression; Planned Comparisons.
19. Katerberg & Hom (1981)	LBDQ (Consideration and Initiating Structure subscales) (Stogdill, 1963)	LMX scores partitioned into within and between variance using regression; raw scores used for other variables.
20. Wakabayashi, Minami, Hashimoto, Sano, Graen, & Novak (1981)	Vertical Exchange (12 items) (new scale; referenced Graen & Cashman [1975])	Raw Scores (trichotomized); ANOVA.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
21. Dansereau, Alutto, Markham, & Dumas (1982)	Leadership Attention (11 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975)	Within and Between Analysis (WABA).
22. Graen, Liden, & Hoel (1982a)	LMX (5 items) (4 items similar to Graen & Schiemann [1978]; 1 new item)	Deviation Scores correlated with turnover.
23. Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp (1982b)	LMX-7 (new scale; referenced Graen & Cashman [1975] and Liden & Graen [1980]; items not provided)	Raw Scores; ANOVA.
24. Kim & Organ (1982)	Non-Contractual Social Exchange (15 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores; ANOVA.
25. Green, Blank, & Liden (1983)	LMX (10 items), some of which were adapted from Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975); Dyadic Contribution (4 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Canonical Correlations; Part-canonical analysis.
26. Nachman, Dansereau, & Naughton (1983)	Negotiating Latitude (2 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975)	Raw Scores and between and within scores for Negotiating Latitude; WABA.
27. Rosse & Kraut (1983)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores; Correlations.
28. Chassie (1984)	LMX (4 items) (Graen & Schiemann, 1978)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Correlations; Logistic Regression; *t*-tests; Path Analysis.
29. Fukami & Larson (1984)	LMX (3 items) adapted from Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
30. Novak (1984)	LMX-7[b] (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
31. Scandura & Graen (1984)	LMX-7 (new scale, 7-item scale also reported to be used in Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp [1982b])	Raw Scores (trichotomized); MANOVA.
32. Seers & Graen (1984)	Leadership Exchange measures reportedly from Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975), Graen & Cashman (1975), and Graen (1976) (number of items not reported)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
33. Snyder, Williams, & Cashman (1984)	VDL (4 items) (Cashman, 1976)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
34. Vecchio & Gobdel (1984)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (source of scale not reported); In/out status (1 item) (new scale)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Also variance partitioned as in Katerberg & Hom (1981).
35. Wakabayashi & Graen (1984)	Vertical Exchange (12 items) (new scale based on Graen & Cashman [1975] and Cashman, Dansereau, Graen & Haga [1976])	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.

(continued)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
36. Ferris (1985)	LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Deviation Scores for LMX; Raw Scores for other variables; WABA.
37. Liden (1985)	LMX and Leadership Interpersonal Sensitivity (7 items) adapted from Graen & Cashman (1975), and Liden & Graen (1980)	Raw Scores; *t*-tests.
38. Snyder & Bruning (1985)	VDL (4 items) (Cashman, 1976)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
39. Vecchio (1985)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (source of scale not reported)	Average and Deviation Scores used for LMX; Raw Scores for other variables; Correlations; Hit Rate Analysis.
41. Duchon, Green, & Taber (1986)	5-item scale adapted from 4-item Negotiating Latitude scale (used in Graen & Cashman [1975]); also used nominations of best and worst working relationships	Raw Scores; Correlations.
42. Scandura, Graen, & Novak (1986)	LMX 7 (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b; Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
43. Vecchio, Griffeth, & Hom (1986)	LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Partial Correlations.
44. Dienesch (1987)	4-item LMX scale (described as typical of previous LMX measures); Attribution/Expectation (15 items)(Dienesch, 1986); Behavioral Incident scale (9 items)(Dienesch, 1986); a single item to assess the relationship between self and other dyad member; 3 behavioral indicators of LMX	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression; Hierarchical Regression (aggregated values for step 1, individual values for step 2).
45. Fairhurst, Rogers, & Saar (1987)	7 items adapted from Negotiating Latitude scale (Graen & Cashman, 1975 and Liden & Graen, 1980); Relational coding scheme (Rogers & Farace, 1975)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
46. Gast (1987)	LMX assessed with 5 scales from Novak & Graen's (1982) Manager–Employee Questionnaire: 8-item LMX (Novak, 1985); Trust (3 items; Roberts & O'Reilly [1974] and Novak [1982]); Availability (Novak, 1982); Assistance with uncertainty (Novak, 1982); Participation (Novak, 1982)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Structural Equations Modeling (SEM).
47. Lagace (1987)	7 items developed by Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982b)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
49. Novak & Graen (1987)	LMX-7 (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b; Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
50. Vecchio (1987)	LMX (4 items) (Liden & Graen, 1980)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; ANOVA.
51. Blau (1988)	Quality of Relationship (3 items) (new scale; based on Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1975])	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
52. K'Obonyo (1988)	15 items from the 17-item LMX scale of Graen (1985)	Raw Scores; ANOVA; Hierarchical Regression.
53. Leana (1988)	LMX (9 items) based on discussion in Liden & Graen (1980)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
54. Peck (1988)	7-item LMX scale (Graen cited as author on questionnaire in appendix; items are identical to those reported in Scandura & Graen [1984], with minor word changes)	LMX scores trichotomized for visual inspection; Raw Scores used for Correlations and ANOVAs.
55. Scandura (1988)	LMX-7 (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw scores; Simple and Hierarchical Regression.
56. Sidhu (1988)	17-item scale (referenced Graen and associates)	Raw scores; Hierarchical Regression; Correlations; Canonical Correlation; SEM.
57. Steiner (1988)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; ANOVA.
58. Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen (1988)	Vertical Exchange (12 items) (new scale based on Graen & Cashman [1975] and Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1976]; item content appears similar to Wakabayashi & Graen [1984])	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
59. Fairhurst & Chandler (1989)	7 items adapted from Negotiating Latitude scale (Graen & Cashman, 1975 and Liden & Graen, 1980); Conversational analysis of conflict situation	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Conversation analysis.
60. Heneman, Greenberger, & Anonyuo (1989)	Nominations of best and worst relationships	Raw Scores; ANOVA

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
61. Kozlowski & Doherty (1989)	2 measures of negotiating latitude: 7-item LMX scale (Scandura & Graen, 1984) and Measure of Information Exchange (13 items developed for study)	Correlations; Mult. Regression; Dichotomized LMX and Box M test for homogeneity of variance; MANOVA and ANOVA.
62. Seers (1989)	Team Member Exchange (10 items) (new scale); some items adapted from Seers & Graen (1984); LMX (7 items) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; ANCOVA.
63. Wakabayashi & Graen (1989)	Vertical Exchange (number of items not reported in study 1; 14 items used in study 2) (new scale; based on Dansereau, Graen, & Haga [1976]; content areas similar to Wakabayashi & Graen [1984])	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
64. Weitzel & Graen (1989)	Quality of the Working Relationship (25 items from Graen & Scandura [1985], including LMX-7 items [Graen & Scandura, 1984])	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
65. Zalesny & Kirsch (1989)	LMX (6 items) developed by Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) and Graen & Schiemann (1978)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Similarity Indices.
66. Dobbins, Cardy, & Platz-Vieno (1990)	Negotiating Latitude (2 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
67. Dockery & Steiner (1990)	LMX (16 items) adapted from 17-item LMX scale (Graen & Scandura, 1985) for supervisors; LMX (12 items) adapted from 17-item LMX scale (Graen & Scandura, 1985) for subordinates	Deviation scores for LMX; Raw scores for other variables; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
68. Graen, Wakabayashi, Graen, & Graen (1990)	LMX (12 items) based on Graen & Cashman (1975) and Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1976)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
69. Lagace (1990)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); MANOVA
70. Nystrom (1990)	Vertical Exchange Quality (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
71. Tanner & Castleberry (1990)	LMX (17 items) (Graen, 1985); LMX (4 items) (Graen & Schiemann, 1978); LMX (4 items) (Rosse & Kraut, 1983); LMX (1 item) (Vecchio & Gobdel, 1984)	Raw Scores (dichotomized in study 1 and trichotomized in study 2); Correlations; ANOVA.
72. Turban, Jones, & Rozelle (1990)	LMX (4 items) adapted from LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; MANOVA.
73. Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen, & Wakabayashi (1990)	LMX (14 items) (Graen & Scandura [1987] referenced as source)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
74. Wakabayashi, Graen, & Uhl-Bien (1990)	Vertical Exchange (14 items) (Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen, 1988)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; Path Analysis.
75. Wayne & Ferris (1990)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; SEM.
76. Yammarino & Dubinsky (1990)	Supervisor Attention (9 dim.); Latitude (4 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975)	WABA.
77. Basu (1991)	LMX (5 items) modified from Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp (1982b) and Seers & Graen (1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression; Logistic Regression.
78. Deluga & Perry (1991)	6 items of 17-item LMX scale (Graen & Scandura, 1985)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
80. Krone (1991)	LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); ANOVA.
81. McClane (1991a)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) adapted fron Liden & Graen (1980)	Raw Scores[c]; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
82. McClane (1991b)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) adapted from Liden & Graen (1980)	Raw Scores[d]; Mult. Regression.
83. Salzmann & Grasha (1991)	LMX scale (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
84. Stepina, Perrewe, Hassell, Harris, & Mayfield (1991)	LMX (4 items) (Graen & Cashman, 1975)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
85. Uhl-Bien (1991)	LMX (14 items) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b and Wakabayashi, Graen, Graen, & Graen, 1988)	Raw Scores; Correlations; MANOVA.
86. Waldron (1991)	LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); Correlations; MANOVA.
87. Baugh (1992)	LMX (14 items) (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; WABA.
88. Carnevale & Wechsler (1992)	LMX (5 items) adapted from Dansereau, Cashman, & Graen (1973)	Raw Scores; Factor Analysis; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
89. Day & Crain (1992)	LMX-7 for subordinates (Scandura & Graen, 1984); LMX (3 items) for supervisors (new scale)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
90. Deluga (1992)	LMX (17 items) (Graen & Scandura, 1985)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
91. Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Bien (1992)	5-item scale adapted from 4-item Negotiating Latitude (used in Graen & Cashman [1975]); also used nominations of best and worst working relationships	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
92. Dunegan, Tierney, & Duchon (1992)	6-item scale (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations; MANOVA; Hierarchical Regression.
93. Gerras (1992)	24 items developed, designed to measure Dienesch & Liden's (1986) dimensions	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression; Hierarchical Regression.
94. Gessner (1992)	7-item LMX (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b; Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Regression; Dichotomized LMX scores, *t*-tests.
96. Markham, Murry, & Scott (1992)	4-item scale adapted from 11-item Leadership Attention scale (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984)	WABA; Raw score ANOVA.
97. Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper (1992a)	LMX (6 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores; SEM; Correlations.
98 Schriesheim, Scandura, Eisenbach, & Neider (1992b)	LMX (6 items) (Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992a)	Raw Scores; SEM; Correlations.
99. Tierney (1992)	LMX (14 items) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Deviation Scores for LMX; Raw Scores for other variables; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
101. Yammarino & Dubinsky (1992)	Leadership Attention, Job Latitude (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975) (number of items not reported); Satisfaction with Performance (1 item) (Dansereau, Alutto, Markham, & Dumas, 1982); Job Congruence (1 item) (Dansereau, Alutto, Markham, & Dumas, 1982)	WABA.
102. Baugh, Graen, & Page (1993)	Centroid item from 14-item LMX scale (discussed in Graen & Cashman, 1975)	Raw Scores; MANCOVA; ANCOVA.
103. Duarte, Goodson, & Klich (1993)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
104. Fairhurst (1993)	7 items adapted from Negotiating Latitude scale (Graen & Cashman, 1975 and Liden & Graen, 1980)	Raw LMX scores used to classify subjects as in-, middle-, or out-group; Conversational Analysis.
105. Jones, Glaman, & Johnson (1993)	LMX (8 items) adapted from Scandura & Graen (1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations.
106. Judge & Ferris (1993)	LMX (5 items) adapted from Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) and Graen & Schiemann (1978)	Raw Scores; SEM.

(continued)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
107. Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell (1993)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
108. Murry (1993)	LMX (5 items) adapted from Scandura & Graen (1984) and Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp (1982b)	WABA.
109. Phillips, Duran, & Howell (1993)	18-item Attribution/Expectation scale (Dienesch, 1985)	Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA).
110. Scott (1993)	LMX (14 items) (reported as developed by Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp [1982b])	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; SEM.
111. Tanner, Dunn, & Chonko (1993)	Exchange Relationship Quality (6 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores (trichotomized); MANOVA.
112. Tansky (1993)	LMX (7 items) (Graen & Cashman, 1975; this is a 4-item scale)	Raw Scores; *t*-tests; Correlations; Mult. Regression.
113. Vansudevan (1993)	LMX (modified version of 14-item scale) (source of scale not reported)	Raw Scores; Cluster Analysis; Correlations; Mult. Regression; SEM.
114. Vecchio (1993)	LMX (4 items) (Liden & Graen, 1980)	Raw Scores for LMX (trichotomized); Intraclass Correlation Coefficient for one variable; Correlations; ANOVA; Subgroup Analysis.
115. Wayne & Green (1993)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations; ANOVA.
116. Wilhelm, Herd, & Steiner (1993)	7-item LMX scale adapted from Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) and Graen & Cashman (1975)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
117. Ashkanasy & O'Connor (1994)	Negotiating Latitude (4 items) (Liden & Graen, 1980)	Raw Scores (both continuous and categorical); Mult. Regression; Multidimensional Scaling.
118. Bauer & Green (1994)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
119. Borchgrevink & Boster (1994)	14-item scale (obtained from Graen, personal communication, 1990)	Raw Scores; CFA.
120. Deluga & Perry (1994)	LMX (17 items) (Graen & Scandura, 1985)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
121. Duarte, Goodson, & Klich (1994)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.

(*continued*)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
122. Kinicki & Vecchio (1994)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
123. Phillips & Bedeian (1994)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Deviation Scores for LMX correlated with Raw Scores of other variables.
124. Scandura & Schriesheim (1994)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression; SEM.
125. Scott & Bruce (1994)	LMX (14 items) (reported as developed by Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp [1982b])	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; SEM.
126. Basu & Green (1995)	8-item scale adapted from Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp (1982b) and Seers & Graen (1984).	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
129. Keller & Dansereau (1995)	LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a) for supervisors; Modified version of same scale for subordinates.	WABA.
130. Kramer (1995)	3-level nominal LMX scale (1 item) (new)	Raw Scores; Correlations; ANOVA; MANOVA.
131. Major, Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner (1995)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
132. Sias & Jablin (1995)	7 items (Graen & Cashman, 1975)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); *t*-tests; Chi-square.
133. Bauer & Green (1996)	LMX (8 items) (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Mult. Regression.
134. Bhal & Ansari (1996)	Sample 1: 24 new items, and LMX (5 items) (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982a)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Factor Analysis.
	Sample 2: 10 items (reduced from Sample 1 results), and items of Attention and Latitude (Dansereau, Alutto, & Yammarino, 1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations; E and F ratios of WABA I.
135. Maslyn, Farmer, & Fedor (1996)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Correlations; SEM.
136. Green, Anderson, & Shivers (1996)	7 items (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw Scores; SEM.
138. Settoon, Bennett, & Liden (1996)	LMX-MDM (Liden & Maslyn, 1998)	Raw Scores; SEM.
139. Thibodeaux & Lowe (1996)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores (dichotomized); Correlations; Chi-square; MANOVA.

(continued)

Table 2.3 (Continued)

Study	*Reported Measure Used*[a]	*Analytic Method*
140. Williams, Gavin, & Williams (1996)	LMX (8 items) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw Scores; Partial Correlations; Variance Reduction Rate; SEM.
141. Basu & Green (1997)	5 items (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b; Seers & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; Regression; MANOVA.
142. Engle & Lord (1997)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Hierarchical Regression.
144. Wayne, Shore & Liden (1997)	LMX-7 (Scandura & Graen, 1984)	Raw Scores; CFA; SEM.
145. Klein & Kim (1998)	LMX (7 items) (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982b)	Raw Scores; ANOVA; Mult. Regression.
146. Liden & Maslyn (1998)	LMX-MDM (13 items) (new scale)	Raw Scores; Correlations; Mult. Regression; SEM.
147. Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura (1998)	LMX-6 (Schriesheim, Neider, Scandura, & Tepper, 1992a)	Raw Scores; WABA; Mult. Regression.

Note. Modified versions of previously-used instruments are labeled "new" above if items were changed, added, or deleted.

[a] References for scale source(s) reported in this column are those made by the author(s) of the respective articles. The items used in studies in some instances did not correspond with the citation given by the author(s) as the source of the measure.

[b] The LMX-7 scale refers to the 7-item LMX scale reported in Scandura and Graen (1984) and developed by Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982b).

[c] One variable, Role Differentiation, was obtained by summing the absolute value of differences between each member's Negotiating Latitude score and the mean Negotiating Latitude of the work unit.

[d] Member scores on Negotiating Latitude were adjusted to the group's average.

2.4 Turnover Intention

Employee turnover in organizations has long been a central focus among researchers(Lee & Mitchell, 1994). Employee turnover can be defined as " the cessation of membership in an organization by an individual who received monetary compensation from the organization" (Mobley, 1982, p.10).

The causes of employee turnover in organizations are generally attributed to four classes of determinants (Mobley, 1982). The first determinant is comprised of external factors, such as the availability of jobs and unemployment levels. Organizational factors like supervisory style, pay, job content, reward system, and work environment comprise the second determinant. Individual factors make up the last two classes of determinants, they are related to turnover in two ways; first, individual non-work-related factors such as another person's career move or family considerations and individual work-related factors, such as a lack of job autonomy or unchallenging or uninteresting work (Mobley, 1982). Vandenberg & Nelson (1999) suggested that turnover is motivated by the dissatisfaction of : (1) the individual with some aspects of work environment including the job, co-workers, or organization , or (2) the organization with some aspects of individual, such as poor performance, or attendance. " A conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organization " (Tett & Meyer , 1993, p. 262). It is the immediate precursor of to actual turnover behavior, and has been empirically proven to be the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Mobley ,1982).

Many studies have been conducted to understand turnover intentions of the employees, reasons behind and their consequences. Mobley (1977) pioneered a comprehensive explanation of the psychological process underlying withdrawal. According to his formulation of the withdrawal decision process(see Figure 2.1) , individuals first evaluate their existing jobs and experience satisfaction or dissatisfaction based on their jobs. If dissatisfaction is felt, it leads to thoughts about quitting. There are a number of possible mediating steps between dissatisfaction and actual quitting. First, one of the consequences of dissatisfaction is to inspire thoughts of leaving . These thoughts, in turn, stimulate consideration of the expected utility of a job search and the costs of quitting. The next step would be the behavioral intent to search for an alternative. The intention to search is

followed by an actual search. If alternatives are available, an evaluation of these alternatives is initiated. The evaluation of alternatives is followed by an comparison of the present job to the alternatives. If the comparison favors the alternatives, it will inspire a behavioral intention to quit, followed by actual withdrawal.

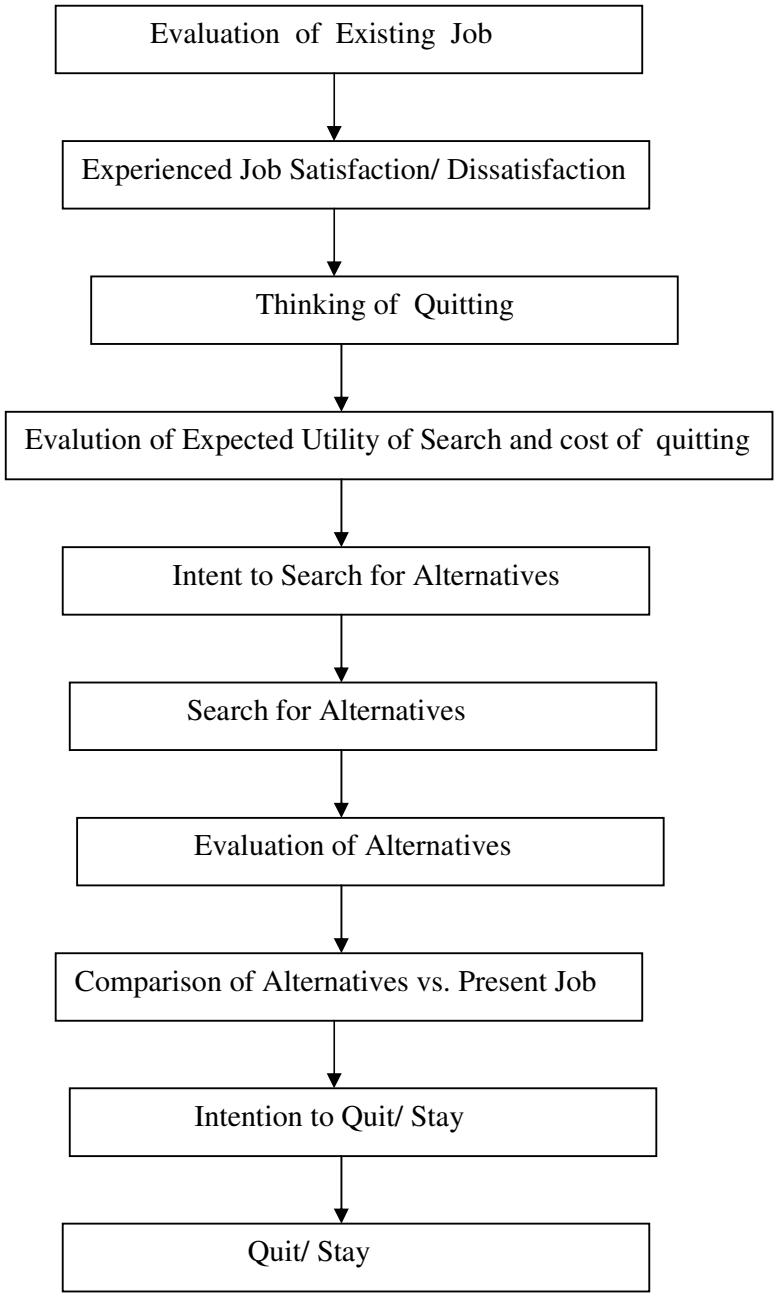

Figure 2.1: A model of the employee turnover decision process
Source: Mobley (1977)

2.5 Relationships among the concepts in question

2.5.1 Leader-member exchange and organizational justice

Several studies have examined the possibility that the behaviours of supervisors have an impact on the fairness perceptions of subordinates. Manogran et al.,(1994) found that lmx was significantly and positively related to employee's perceptions of fairness. Similary,Tansky (1993) noted that the perception of the quality of the lmx was positively related to subordinate's organizational justice. According to Kozlowski & Doherty[1989], the nature of interactions between leaders and subordinates mediates and structures subordinate's interpretations of organizational practices and events. Also, Padsakoff, Mac Kenzie, Moorman, and Fetter [1990] propose that the nature of the dyadic relationship between leaders and their subordinates may have effects on subordinate's perceptions of fairness and trust. Specially, they noted that subordinates that are members of a leader's in-group will perceive their leaders as treating them more fairly, and will be more trusting of their leaders than members of the out-group because the leader gives them greater job latitude, support of the subordinate's actions, and confidence in and consideration of the subordinate's persptions of organizational justice and citizenship behaviours situation and justice perceptions.Greenberg (1990) and Tayler& Bies (1990) argue that subordinates determine whether the supervisor is acting fairly in terms of the behaviours and communicators of the supervisior. Scandura (1999) suggest that distributive justice may also an important outcome of lmx. Distributive justice and relationship quality (lmx) combine to make an individual feel that the team values his/her contributions.

Folger's [1986] referent cognitions theory (RCT), provide a theoretical rationale for leader-member exchange and the formation of subordinate's justice perceptions. In explicitly taking into account the procedural justice practices followed by a RCT decision-maker, RCT indicates how outcome and procedural concerns can combine to influence the reaction of a person in a specific situation (Cropanzano & Folger,[1989]. RCT also suggest that an individual's reactions tu unfair teratment result not only from receiving poor outcomes, but also from associating unfavorable outcomes with someone else's actions, such as supervisor. In other words, RCT suggests the role that decision-making procedures play in shaping perceptions of unfair treatment.Thus, RCT predicts

resentment of unfair treatment when procedures are unjustified and those procedures produce unfavorable outcomes (Cropanzano ob satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perception of organizational Thus, it appears that interperson relationship should have an impact on the attitudes and behaviours of employees in organizational settings.

Proposition 1 : The quality of an employee's interpersonal relationship will influence his/her perceptions of organizational justice.

2.5.2 Organizational justice, organizational commitment, and turnover intention

Researchers have suggested that both types of justice perceptions are important determinants of organizational outcomes (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1987; Mc Farlin & Sweeney, 1992). Many studies has demonstrated a positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment. A recent study developed by Lemon and Jones (2001) has indicated that procedural justice in promotional decisions would have a significant effect on the organizational commitment of employees. Thus, employees who felt that procedures were fair tended to have higher levels of organizational commitment than those who felt procedures were unfair. Cropanzano & Folger (1991) have also suggested that if employees can be guaranteed fair procedural treatment, they are more likely to become loyal as a sign of organizational commitment. Further, Martin and Bennett (1996) found that procedural justice is positively related to organizational commitment. In other words, organizational commitment is determined by the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to arrive at outcomes. Tang and Sarsfield- Baldwin's (1996) finding also support the notion that employee's perception of procedural justice is related to organizational commitment.

In addition to above findings, specially a number of studies suggested that procedural justice would account for more of the variance in organizational commitment than distributive justice would (Dailey & Kirk,1992). In other words, procedural justice has stronger effects on attitudes about institutions or authorities, as opposed distributive justice

which has a stronger effect on attitude about specific personal outcomes. That is, procedural justice has a larger impact on employees'attitudes toward the organization as a whole such as commitment.

Procedural and distributive justice are proposed to be negatively related to turnover intentions. In one of the first studies in this area, Finn and Lee(1972) divided the sample of their study into an equity subsample and an inequity subsample based on perceived fairness of salary, and found that the inequity subsample displayed higher turnover intentions than did the equity subsample. Telly et al.(1971) attempted to determine if perceptions of inequity are associated with turnover among hourly employees in a branch of a large aerospace company. The results showed that perceptions of inequity are related to turnover. In addition, Alexander and Ruderman(1987) found that distributive justice has important effects on organizational outcome variables such as trust in management, and turnover intentions. They also reported that perception of distributive justice is a direct cause of turnover intentions. Konovsky & Cropanzano (1991) studied fairness in the context of employees drug testing, and found that procedural justice predicted turnover intentions and management trust. More recently, Dailey& Kirk (1992) contends that procedural justice is a direct cause of turnover intentions.

Organizational commitment has been reported to be negatively related to turnover and tunover intentions (O'Reily&Caldwell , 1980; Bashaw& Grant, 1994) . Bashaw & Grant (1994) examined the relationships between organizational commitment and key sales outcomes such as performance and turnover intentions. They found a negative association between commitment and turnover intentions. Lee & Mowday (1987) and O'Reilly&Caldwell (1981) have demonstrated that turnover intention is the strongest cognitive precursor of turnover. De Cotiis& Summers (1987) developed a causal model that predicted employee motivation,performance, and turnover. They conclude that organizational commitment has direct negative influences on turnover intentions and actual turnover. Similarly, Lance(1991) proposed that organizational commitment implies direct effects on turnover intentions.

In the light of above findings, our propositions are as follows:

Proposition 2*:* Perception of procedural and distributive justice will influence organizational commitment

Proposition 3: Procedural and distributive justice perceptions will influence turnover intentions.

Proposition 4: Organizational commitment will influence turnover intentions.

2.5.3 The mediating effect of procedural and distributive justice

Several studies have examined the relationships among leader-member exchange (lmx) and work related outcome variables.It has been found that leader-member exchange is positively correlated with subordinate's satisfaction, satisfaction with the supervisor, and organizational commitment (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1990; Duchon, Graen, & Taber, 1986; Nystrom, 1990) , and is negatively to turnover (Graen, Linden, & Hoel, 1982). In addition, Lmx is also associated with subordinate's perceptions of organizational fairness (Podsakoff& Mac Kenzie, 1993; Tansky, 1993). From the previous discussion, the finding can be drawn that lmx affects employee's perceptions of organizational fairness. This perception of fairness influences employee's work-related outcome variables. Therefore, organizational fairness perception will mediate the effects of lmx on outcome variables such as commitment, and turnover intentions. In order to determine whether the relationships among Lmx and work-related outcome variables are mediated by perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, the following proposition is formed:

Proposition 5: Perception of organizational justice will mediate the relationships among lmx, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents information concerning the sample, research questions, and the measures. In addition, a conceptual model , and research hypotheses of the study are given based on the literature review.

3.1 Sample

The sample of this study was drawn from the employees of a public corporation operating in tv-radio broadcasting sector in Nicosia, North Cyprus. Questionnaires were used to collect data from the employees about their perception of organizational justice, organizational commitment, the quality of leader-member exchange, and as well as intention of turnover. The questionnaires were personally distributed to the respondents inside closed envelopes during the work time. All participants were informed that participation was voluntary , and assured for confidentality of responses. Two days were given to each respondent to complete the questionnaire. The completed questionnaires were collected in sealed envelopes. This was done in order to ensure that respondents feel secure about completing it without any stress about confidentality. A total of 100 questionnaires were distributed in the corporation. Of the 100, 65 questionnaires were returned, yielding a return rate of 65 %, while only 66 of them were suitable for data analysis. 3 questionnaires had to be discarded because too many questions were left blank.

The questionnaire consisted of 44 items aiming to measure distributive and procedural justice, organizational commitment, leader-member exchange, and turnover intention. In addition to 44 items, some demographic data was also collected , such as age, gender, education level, job category, and tenure in the corporation. Respondents were asked to give their answers on a five- point likert scale with 1 being “Strongly disagree”, 2 being “Disagree”, 3 being “Neutral”, 4 being “Agree” , and 5 being “Strongly agree”.

3.2 Research questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

(1) How does the t quality of the leader-member exchange influence the perceptions of organizational justice?

(2) How do perceptions of organizational justice relate to the organizational commitment and turnover intentions?

(3) Do organizational justice perceptions mediate the relationships among leader-member exchange , organizational commitment and turnover intentions?

3.3 Conceptual model

The main purpose of this study is to present and test a model that identifies the association between leader-member exchange (lmx), organizational justice (distributive and procedural justice), organizational commitment, and turnover intention. . To address this purpose, a conceptual model was developed to test the relationships empirically among the research variables. Figure 3.1 shows the hypothesized conceptual model.

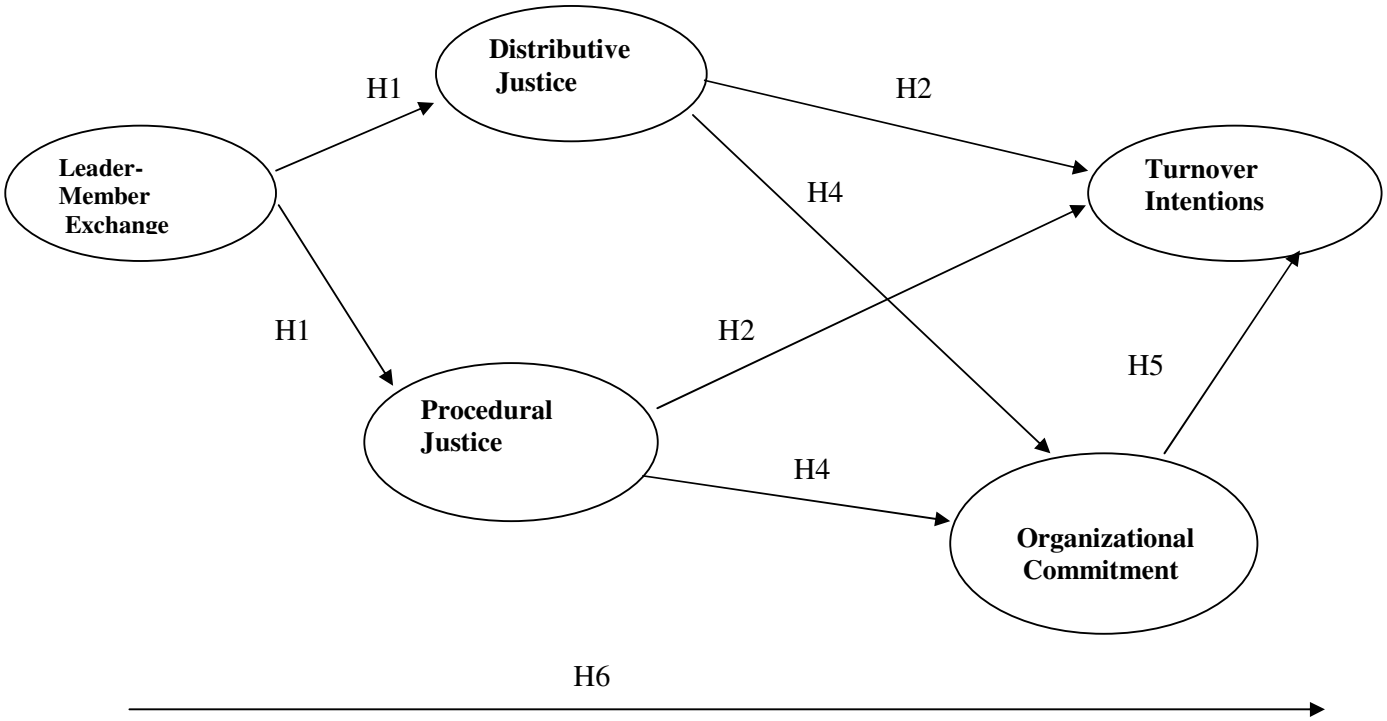

Fig 3.1 The hypothesized conceptual model.

3.4 Hypotheses

In terms of the relevant theoretical framework, the quality of leader-member exchange has been proposed to have a positive correlation both with distributive and procedural justice perceptions (Alexander & Ruderman, 1987; Folger & Konovsky, 1989). In addition, it has been found that both distributive and procedural justice perceptions was positively correlated with organizational commitment (Mc. Farlin & Sweeney, 1992), and negatively correlated with turnover intention (Finn & Lee, 1972). Furthermore, a negative association has been reported between organizational commitment and turnover intention(Lance, 1991). Consequently, the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 1: The higher the level of quality in the supervisor-subordinate relationship by the employee (lmx), the higher the level of perceived distributive and procedural justice.

Hypothesis 2: Perception of distributive and procedural justice will be negatively related with turnover intentions

Hypothesis 3: **:** Distributive justice perceptions will account for more of the variance on organizational commitment compared to the variance accounted by procedural justice.

Hypothesis 4: : Perception of distributive and procedural justice will be positively related to organizational commitment

Hypothesis 5: Organizational Commitment will have a negative relationship with turnover intentions

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of organizational justice will mediate the relationships among lmx, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

3.5 Measures

Five scales were used in the study to measure the constructs of interest. They included measures of the quality of leader-member exchange, employee's perceptions of distributive and procedural justice, , employee's organizational commitment, and employee's turnover intenions. In addition, several demographic questions was included in the final section of the questionnaire.

3.5.1 Measurement of lmx

The exchange relationship between manager / supervisor- subordinate were measured by using the Liden and Maslyn (1998) LMX-MDM questionnaire. This instrument is based upon the multidimensional approach to measure LMX. It has twelve questions to be answered on a Likert like scale. There are four categories comprising each three questions. These categories are: Affect, Loyalty, Contribution, and Professional Respect. Internal consistencies were . 90, . 78, .60 and . 92 respectively for affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect categories.

3.5.2 Measurement of distributive Justice

This construct was measured with the Distributive Justice Index developed by Price & Mueller(1986). This 5-item scale measures the degree to which rewards received by employees are perceived to be related to performance inputs. Five items assess the degree to which each respondent believes that he or she is fairly rewarded on the basis of their responsibilities, experience, effort, job stress and education. Respondents were asked to give their answers on a 5- point Likert scale. This scale has shown discriminant validity in relation to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Moorman, 1991).

3.5.3 Measurement of procedural Justice

Perceptions of procedural justice were measured with a 15- item scale developed by Niehoff & Moorman (1993). This scale contains items indicating judgements about decisions made about the respondent's job in general by the manager or representatives of the company. All items refer to both fair procedures in the workplace and the degree to which procedures are applied fairly by organizational representatives. Among the 15 items, first six items (1,2,3,4,5,6) measured systematic justice whereas the last nine items (7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15) measured informational procedural justice. In other words, six items used to measure the fairness of formal procedures (i.e systematic justice) in the organization as revealed by procedures which promote consistency, bias-suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality. 9 items were designed to measure supervisor consideration of employee rights, treatment of employees with respect and kindness, and provision of explanation and justification for decisions (i.e informational justice). Items that measured informational justice focus on the interpersonal behavior of the supervisor. Each item required respondents to state the level of kindness and respect,honesty, submission of explanations and respect to employee rights their supervisor has shown. This scale is based on one used by Moorman (1991). Reliabilities ranging from 0.85 to 0.98 have been reported by Moorman, (1991) ; Niehoff & Moorman ,(1993).

3.5.4 Measurement of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment was assessed using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Meyer and Allen (1990). Nine items were adopted from the original fifteen- itemed scale based on the factor anlaysis results conducted by Wasti (2001) when translating the instrument to Turkish. A total of 9 questions, 3 questions for measuring each dimensions of commitment (affective, normative, and continuance) were asked to the respondents with two 2 negatively scored items. A 5- point Likert type scale was used as response format.

3.5.5 Measurement of turnover intention

This variable was assessed using a 3-item scale developed by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1979). This scale has been extensively used in the organizational behaviour literature to assess intention to quit. Each item asked the respondent to indicate the degree of occurance of the thought of quiting, searching for another job, and actually intending to quit. Cammann et al., (1979) reported an internal consistency for the scale of 0.83 and supported construct validity with correlations of – 0.58 with overall job satisfaction. The response format was a 5- point scale ranging from " strongly disagree" (1) to " strongly agree" (5).

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CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter presents the conducted statistical analyses to test the hypothesized relationships among the variables in question.

4.1 Reliability Analyses

Scale reliability analyses were performed to assess the reliability of study's scales. As Table 4.1 shows, all calculated reliability coefficients exceed the Nunnally's (1978) generally accepted criterion of .70, except the Organizational Commitment scale, which has a reliability of .6043 .Due to lack of a translated scale, we tranlated this scale into turkish, and this may cause this result. Since the .60 is minimum acceptable value for translated scales, this measure can be accepted as a reliable measure. Therefore, we can concluded that all scales have adequate reliability.

Table 4.1 Reliability alphas of the measures

Measure	No of items	Cronbach's Alfa
Leader-Member Exchange	12	0.9244
Organizational Commitment	9	0.6043
Organizational Justice	20	0.9622
Intent to Leave	3	0.8523

4.2 Demographic profile of the respondents

Table 4.2 Demographic profile of the respondents (n =62)

		N	%
Gender	Female	38	61.3
	Male	24	38.7
Age	20-25	5	8.1
	25-30	12	19.4
	30-35	18	29.0
	35-40	14	22.6
	40-45	7	11.3
	45-50	4	6.5
	50-55	2	3.2
	High	25	40.3
	Vocational	1	1.6
	University	32	51.6
	Master	4	6.5
Job Category	Reporter	7	11.3
	Tv Announcer	4	6,5
	Cameraman	7	11.3
	Broadcast Staff	7	11.3
	Tv Programmer	15	24.2
	Accountant	7	11.3
	Archive Staff	4	6.5
	Secretary	7	11.3
	Technician	4	6.5
Tenure	< 1 year	3	4.8
	1- 3	8	12.9
	3- 5	4	6.5
	5-10	19	30.6
	10-20	21	33.9
	20 >	7	11.3

As demonstrated in Table 4.2, the majority of the respondents (61.3 %) were male. Most of them (51.6 %) are between the age of 30-40, and 19.4 % were between 25 and 30 years old. In case of education level, most of the respondents were well-educated. 58.1 % of all respondents' education is above high school. 45 % of them had worked for the corporation for over 10 years, and about 31 % had worked 5 to 10 years.

4.3 Hypothesis testing

The research hypotheses were tested using pearson correlation and regression analyses. Additionally, independent sample t- tests and One-way anova tests were performed to determine whether significant differences between the dependent and socio-demographic characteristics of the participants.

Hypothesis 1: The higher the level of quality perceived in the supervisor-subordinate relationship by the employee (lmx), the higher the level of perceived distributive justice.

Pearson correlation test results indicated that leader-member exchange has positive and high significant relationship both with distributive and procedural justice (r = 0.763 , r = 0.786, respectively , p< 0.01). Therefore, hypothesis 1 was strongly supported by the findings.

Table 4.3 Correlations of distributive justice, procedural justice, and lmx.

		TOTLMX	TOTDJUST
TOTLMX	Pearson Correlation	1	,763(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000
	N	62	62
TOTDJUST	Pearson Correlation	,763(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
	N	62	62
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

		TOTLMX	TOTPJUST
TOTLMX	Pearson Correlation	1	,786(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,000
	N	62	62
TOTPJUST	Pearson Correlation	,786(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	.
	N	62	62
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Hypothesis 2: Perception of distributive and procedural justice will be negatively related to turnover intentions.

Pearson correlation test results showed that distributive and procedural justice has a negative non-significant relationship with turnover intentions. (r = -0. 078 , r = -0.036 , respectively , p= .549 > 0.05). Therefore, hypothesis 2 was not confirmed by the findings.

Table 4.4 Correlations of distributive justice, procedural justice,and turnover intentions.

Correlations			
		TOTINTEN	TOTDJUST
TOTINTEN	Pearson Correlation	1	-,078
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,549
	N	62	62
TOTDJUST	Pearson Correlation	-,078	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,549	.
	N	62	62

Correlations			
		TOTINTEN	TOTPJUST
TOTINTEN	Pearson Correlation	1	-,036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,781
	N	62	62
TOTPJUST	Pearson Correlation	-,036	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,781	.
	N	62	62

Hypothesis 3: Distributive justice will account for more of the variance on organizational commitment compared to procedural justice.

Firstly, it is important to note that there is contradictory empirical evidence in the literature concerning the relationship distributive and procedural justice have with personal and organizational outcomes (e.g Mc. Farlin & Sweeney, 1992). Mc Farlin & Sweeney (1992) proposed that procedural justice predict organizational commitment better than distributive justice.

In order to test this hypothesis, a regression analysis was conducted, and the result showed that distributive justice was the most explaining variable for organizational commitment, while accounted for only 10 % of variance in organizational commitment. Also, the regression analysis was conducted for each of the 3 conceptual element of organizational commitment, but a significant result had been found only for affective commitment. Thus, procedural justice item, "providing extra information" explained most of the variance (15.2%) in affective commitment. Durbin – Watson test value confirmed that these results were not found by mere chance. F value also indicated the significance of regression model at a very high significance level ($p < 0.01$) . Therefore, hypothesis 3 was minimially supported by research data.

Table 4.5 Regression analyses of distributive justice,procedural justice, and organizational commitment.

Model Summary(b)										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,277(a)	,077	,061	6,924	,077	4,979	1	60	,029	2,010
a Predictors: (Constant), TOTDJUST										
b Dependent Variable: TOTORCOM										

Model Summary(b)										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,389(a)	,152	,136	2,864	,152	9,656	1	54	,003	1,957
a Predictors: (Constant), providing extra info										
b Dependent Variable: TOTACOM										

Hypothesis 4: Perceptions of distributive and procedural justice will be positively related to organizational commitment.

The correlation results revealed that distributive and procedural justice has a significant positive relationship with organizational commitment. (r = 0.277, r = 0.267, respectively, p<0.01). Therefore, hypothesis 4 was confirmed by the findings.

Table 4.6 Correlations of distributive justice, procedural justice, and organizational commitment

Correlations			
		TOTORCOM	**TOTDJUST**
TOTORCOM	**Pearson Correlation**	1	,277(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,029
	N	62	62
TOTDJUST	**Pearson Correlation**	,277(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,029	.
	N	62	62
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

Correlations			
		TOTPJUST	**TOTORCOM**
TOTPJUST	**Pearson Correlation**	1	,267(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,036
	N	62	62
TOTORCOM	**Pearson Correlation**	,267(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,036	.
	N	62	62
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

Hypothesis 5: Organizational commitment will have a negative relationship with turnover intentions.

The correlation between organizational commitment and turnover intentions came out be, $r = -0.266$, $p < 0.01$, stating a negative significant relationship. Therefore, hypothesis 5 was supported by the finding.

Table 4.7 Correlations of organizational commitment, and turnover intentions

Correlations			
		TOTORCOM	**TOTINTEN**
TOTORCOM	**Pearson Correlation**	1	-,266(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	,036
	N	62	62
TOTINTEN	**Pearson Correlation**	-,266(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,036	.
	N	62	62
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

Hypothesis 6: Perceptions of organizational justice will mediate the relationships among, lmx, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions.

Due to lack of necessary statistical analysis software and also the difficulity in its application, a multiple regression analysis was conducted instead of SEM analysis to test the mediating effect of perception of organizational justice between leader-member, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions. Regression results are statistically significant at a high level, and provide empirical support for the model. First, 77 % of the variance in the dependent variable of lmx explained with five variables; one from organizational commitment, and four from distributive and procedural justice variables. Further, the distributive justice variable, rewarded fairly if consider effort, is able to explain 3/ 4 of the total variation in lmx.

Durbin Watson test confirms that this result does not occur by chance. F value also indicates the significance of regression model at a very high significance level ($p<0.01$).
The result of regression analysis indicates that the contribution of the distributive justice variable is very high ($\beta = 0.57$). Moreover, t value also state this result is correct at a very high ($p< 0.01$) significance level.

Table 4. 8 Regression analysis for leader-member exchange.

Model Summary(f)										
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1	,753(a)	,567	,558	6,987	,567	65,355	1	50	,000	
2	,809(b)	,654	,640	6,303	,088	12,433	1	49	,001	
3	,835(c)	,697	,678	5,966	,042	6,688	1	48	,013	
4	,855(d)	,730	,707	5,684	,034	5,879	1	47	,019	
5	,875(e)	,766	,741	5,348	,036	7,108	1	46	,011	2,378
a Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort										
b Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased										
c Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect										
d Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect, not feeling obligation to remain with employer										
e Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect, not feeling obligation to remain with employer, providing extra info										
f Dependent Variable: TOTLMX										

Table 4. 9 Anova analysis for leader-member exchange.

ANOVA(f)						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	**Regression**	3190,175	1	3190,175	65,355	,000(a)
	Residual	2440,652	50	48,813		
	Total	5630,827	51			
2	**Regression**	3684,118	2	1842,059	46,366	,000(b)
	Residual	1946,709	49	39,729		
	Total	5630,827	51			
3	**Regression**	3922,191	3	1307,397	36,728	,000(c)
	Residual	1708,635	48	35,597		
	Total	5630,827	51			
4	**Regression**	4112,157	4	1028,039	31,816	,000(d)
	Residual	1518,669	47	32,312		
	Total	5630,827	51			
5	**Regression**	4315,417	5	863,083	30,182	,000(e)
	Residual	1315,410	46	28,596		
	Total	5630,827	51			
a Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort						
b Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased						
c Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect						
d Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect, not feeling obligation to remain with employer						
e Predictors: (Constant), rewarded fairly if consider effort, Being unbiased, treating with respect, not feeling obligation to remain with employer, providing extra info						
f Dependent Variable: TOTLMX						

4.3.1 T-test results

Independent –samples t-tests were performed to determine whether significant difference between independent variables and demographics variables.

Table 4.10 Comparison of lmx variable for gender variable

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TOTLMX	woman	38	41,53	11,142	1,807
	man	24	46,08	9,155	1,869

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TOTLMX	Equal variances assumed	1,22	0,274	-1,676	60	0,099	-4,56	2,718	-9,994	0,88
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,753	55,803	0,085	-4,56	2,6	-9,766	0,652

As Table 4.10 shows, Levene's Test for Equality variances yield a p-value of . 274, which is greater than 0.05.This means that the two varinces are not significantly different.In other words, we can assume that the variances are approximately equal. Based on this result, "Equal variances assumed" has a p-value .099 more than 0.05. Therefore, we can say that there is not a significant difference for the quality of leader-member exchange for gender variable.

Table 4.11 Comparison of organizational justice for gender variable.

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TOTOJUST	woman	38	66,37	18,713	3,036
	man	24	77,38	19,635	4,008

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TOTOJUST	Equal variances assumed	0,017	0,897	-2,213	60	0,031	-11,01	4,973	-20,954	-1,06
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,189	47,284	0,034	-11,01	5,028	-21,12	-0,893

As can be seen in Table 4.11, Levene's Test for Equality of variances yields a p-value of .897, which is greater than 0.05. this means that the two variances are not significantly different. That is, we can assume that they are approximately equal. "Equal variances assumed" yields a p-value . 031., which is less than 0.05. therefore, we can conclude that there is a significant difference for the perception of organizational justice for gender variable.

Table 4.12 Comparison of organizational commitment for gender variable.

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TOTORCOM	woman	38	29,03	6,537	1,06
	man	24	32,63	7,643	1,56

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TOTORCOM	Equal variances assumed	0,29	0,592	-1,977	60	0,053	-3,6	1,82	-7,24	0,043
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,908	43,401	0,063	-3,6	1,886	-7,402	0,205

Table 4.12 shows that Levene's Test for Equality of Variances yields a p-value of .592 > 0.050. This means that the two variances are approximately equal. "Equal variances assumed" has a p- value of .053 > .05.Therefore, we can say that there isn't a significant difference for organizational commitment between men and women.

Table 4.13 Comparison of turnover intention variable for gender variable.

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
TOTINTEN	women	38	4,95	2,671	0,433
	man	24	5	2,226	0,454

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
TOTINTEN	Equal variances assumed	0,284	0,596	-0,08	60	0,936	-0,05	0,654	-1,362	1,256
	Equal variances not assumed			-0,084	55,373	0,933	-0,05	0,628	-1,311	1,205

As may be seen in Table 4.13 Levene's Test for Equality of variances yields a p-value of .596, which is greater than 0.05. This result means that the two variances are not significantly different. So, we can assume the variances are approximately equal. The "Equal variances assumed" has a p-value .936. > 0.05. Therefore, we can say that there isn't a significant difference for turnover intention variable for gender variable.

4.3.2 One-Way ANOVA Results

Table 4. 14 Analysis of variance for dependent and age variables

Age	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Leader-Member Exchange					
Between groups	1074.225	6	179.037	1.712	.136
Within groups	5752.549	55	104.592		
Total	6826.774	61			
Organizational Justice					
Between groups	3776.101	6	629.350	1.746	.128
Within groups	19830.367	55	360.552		
Total	2360.468	61			
Organizational Commitment					
Between groups	218.079	6	36.346	.690	. 658
Within groups	2897.018	55	52.673		
Total	3115.097	61			
Intention to Leave					
Between groups	34.989	6	5.831	.935	.477
Within groups	342.947	55	6.235		
Total	377.933	61			

In Table 4.14 , the result of one-way anova indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the gender means and the dependent means. ($p > 0.05$)

Table 4.15 Analysis of variance for dependent and education level variables

Education Level	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Leader-Member Exchange					
Between groups	46.445	3	15.482	.132	.940
Within groups	6780. 329	58	116.902		
Total	6826.774	61			
Organizational Justice					
Between groups	13.999	3	4.666	.011	.998
Within groups	23592.469	58	406.767		
Total	23606.469	61			
Organizational Commitment					
Between groups	626.318	8	78.290	1.667	.128
Within groups	2488.779	53	46.958		
Total	3115.097	61			
Intention to Leave					
Between groups	. 257	3	.086	.013	. 998
Within groups	377.679	58	6.512		
Total	377.935	61			

In Table 4.15, the result of the one-way anova indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the education level means and the dependent means. ($p > 0.05$)

Table 4. 16 Analysis of variance for dependent and tenure variables

Tenure	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Leader-Member Exchange					
Between groups	1114.653	5	222.931	2.186	.069
Within groups	5712.122	56	102.002		
Total	6826.774	61			
Organizational Justice					
Between groups	13.999	3	4.666	.011	998
Within groups	23592.469	58	406.767		
Total	23606.469	61			
Organizational Commitment					
Between groups	287.358	5	57.472	1.138	.351
Within groups	2827.739	56	50.495		
Total	3115.097	61			
Intention to Leave					
Between groups	13.446	5	2.689	.413	838
Within groups	364.489	56	6.509		
Total	377.935	61			

In Table 4.16 , the result of one-way anova indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the tenure and the dependent variables.

Table 4. 17 Analysis of variance for dependent and job category variables

Job Category	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Squares	F	p
Leader-Member Exchange					
Between groups	675.362	8	84.420	.727	. 667
Within groups	6151.412	53	116.064		
Total	6826.774	61			
Organizational Justice					
Between groups	1423.699	8	177.962	.425	. 901
Within groups	22182.769	53	418.543		
Total	23606.468	61			
Organizational Commitment					
Between groups	626.318	8	78.290	1.667	. 128
Within groups	2488.739	53	46.958		
Total	3115.097	61			
Intention to Leave					
Between groups	.257	3	0.086	.013	. 998
Within groups	377.679	58	6.512		
Total	377.935	61			

In Table 4.17 , the result of one-way anova indicates that there were no statistically significant differences between the job category and the dependent variables.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This current study aimed to the nature of relationships between organizational organizational justice perceptions (distributive and procedural justice), leader-member exchange, and fundamental work-related outcome variables such as organizational comitment, and turnover intention. The study was conducted with the expectation to find that perceptions of both distributive and procedural justice will influence employee's commitment toward their organization, and intentions to quit their jobs. In addition, the quality of leader-member exchange between employee and superior was expected to influence employee's organizational justice perceptions.

In general, our hypotheses were confirmed. First, the results demonstrate that leader-member exchange appears to be significantly and positively related to both distributive and procedural justice. This positive and significant relationship implies that the quality of interpersonal relationship between leader and member (lmx) exert an effect on member's justice perceptions. Thus, when members discern differences in the leader behaviors that are procedurally related, these differences influence both evalutions of fairness and of leader. The findings of previous work by Alexander & Ruderman (1987) and Padsakoff & Mc. Kenzie(1993) is supported by the findings of the current work, confirming a positive and significant relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational justice.

Second, organizational justice was found to be significant predictor of organizational commitment. Correlation results provided support for the significant positive relationship between both forms of organizational justice(distributive and procedural justice) , and organizational commitment. When employees feel that they are treated fairly, they will exhibit more commitment to their organization. This outcome is consistent with those of Mc. Farlin & Sweeney (1992) and Folger & Konovsky (1989). Furthermore, the hypothesis stating distributive justice would assign more varince to organizational commitment was minimially supported by findings. But, consistent with the literature, specially the result of the second analysis indicated that the effect of ditributive and procedural justice on organizational commitment is not very clear, and there is supporting empirical evidence both their effect on organizational commitment.

In line with the previous findings, organizational commitment was found to be a significant predictor of turnover intentions. Results indicated that organizational commitment portrays a significant negative relationship with turnover intentions. In organizations, where organizational justice is perceived to be high, employees have a diminished will to leave the organization.

Finally, in accordance with the results of regression analyses, distributive and procedural justice perceptions were found to be important predictors of leader-member exchange. Specially, an important finding is that the distributive justice variable, rewarded fairly if consider effort, was the most significant predictor of leader-member exchange. This is consistent with the Wayne et al.(2002) finding that distributive justice was an important antecedent for leader-member exchange.

Our findings provides important guidelines for managerial action. Since the allocation of rewards is central to life in organizations, venue in which working people spend about half their waking hours, individuals tend to highly sensitive to issues of fairness on the job (Greenberg & Lind, 2000). Employees are concerned with the rewards they receive in return for their contribution and expect fair treatment from the organization. When they believe they have been subjected to unjust decisions or outcomes, they engage in several negative reactions toward the organization, such as poor performance, absenteeism, and turnover (Moorman, 1991 ; Shapiro, 1991). In this regard, if managers do not want to suffer from a loss of their qualified employees or have dissatisfied employees with no commitment to their organizations, they should focus on employees'perceptions of distributive and procedural justice. Fairness should be one of the foremost thoughts of top management to maintain and increase organizational commitment. Additionally, since individuals might perceive managerial fairness differently based on their own personal experiences, managers must convince employees that the distribution of rewards is realized fairly.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION

In any organization, the attitudes of employees are of interest because attitudes influence intentions to behave in certain ways, and those intentions, in turn influence actual behavior (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). The notion of organizatinal justice or fairness in an organizational context, is one of the organizational attitude that has received a great deal of attention in the management literature (Colquitt et al., 2000). Previous research has stressed the importance of organizational justice and its influences on various work-related variables.

Leaders and supervisors are considered as key representatives of organizational justice. They are the people who represent or deliver the justice on a daily basis. The quality of interpersonal relationship between the leader and member (lmx) influence member's justice perceptions.

The results of this study indicate that organizational justice has significant relationships with employee's work-related attitudes and behavior such as organizational commitment and turnover intentions. The results also indicate that the quality of interpersonal relationship between the leader and subordinate (lmx) has significant association with perceptions of organizational justice.

APPENDIX

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Sayın Katılımcı, bu anket hazırlamakta olduğum master tezi için kullanılacaktır. Sorular sadece veri toplamak için hazırlanmıştır. Cevaplar hiçbir şekilde özel olarak kullanılmayıp, gizli tutulacaktır. Bu nedenle ankete güvenip samimi cevaplandırmanızı rica ediyorum. **GÜLCE GÜRPINAR**.

Aşağıdaki soruları çalışmakta olduğunuz **üstünüze (amir, şef) göre** cevaplandırınız.
Size **en uygun** cevabı işaretleyiniz.

1) Onu kişi olarak çok severim.
Kesinlikle katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

2) Her insanın arkadaş olmayı isteyeceği bir kişidir.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

3) Onunla çalışmak zevklidir.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

4) Yaptığım işler veya verdiğim kararlar söz konusu olursa, konuyu tam bilmese bile beni diğer üstüme karşı savunur.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

5) İşyerinde, herhangi bir konuda diğerleri bana yüklenir veya zorlarlarsa beni onlara karşı savunur.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

6) Eğer istemeden bir hata yaparsam, beni diğerlerine karşı beni savunur.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

7) Amirim için, görevimin dışındaki ekstra görevleri yapmaya hazırım.
Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

8) Belirlediği hedeflere ulaşmak için, normalde benden beklenenden daha fazla çaba göstermeye gönüllüyüm.

Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

9) Amirim için yapabileceğimin en fazlasını yapmaktan kaçınmam.

Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım( )

10) İş konusundaki bilgisi bende hayranlık uyandırır.

Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

11) İşine olan hakimiyetine ve iş bilgisine saygı duyarım.

Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

12) Profesyonel yeteneklerini çok beğenirim.

Kesinlikle Katılmam ( ) Katılmam ( ) Kararsızım ( ) Katılırım ( ) Kesinlikle Katılırım ( )

1= Kesinlikle Katılmam 2= Katılmam 3=Kararsızım 4=Katılırım 5=Kesinlikle katılırım

1-	Sahip olduğum sorumluluklar dikkate alındığında Amirimin beni adilce değerlendirdiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2-	Eğitim derecem dikkate alındığında, amirimin beni Adilce değerlendirdiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3-	Gösterdiğim çaba dikkate alındığında beni adilce Değerlendirdiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
4-	İşimin yarattığı stres ve gerilim dikkate alındığında Amrimin beni adilce değerelendirdiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5-	Başarılı bir şekilde tamamlanığım işler dikkate alındığınd Amrimin beni adilce değerelendirdiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6-	Amirim, işimle ilgili kararları verirken tarafsızdır.	1	2	3	4	5
7-	İşle ilgili kararları vermeden önce tüm çalışanların Tereddütlerini dinler.	1	2	3	4	5
8-	İşle ilgili kararları vermek için konuyla ilgili tüm Bilgileri toplar.	1	2	3	4	5
9-	Amirim, verilen kaararları açıklamak için gerektiğinde Ek bilgi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
10-	İşle ilgili verilen kararlar tutarlı bir şekilde etkilenen Tüm çalışanlara uygulanır.	1	2	3	4	5
11-	Çalışanların, amirleri tarafından verilen kararları itiraz Etme ya da onaylama hakları vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
12-	İşle ilgili kararları verirken bana karşı ilgili ve naziktir.	1	2	3	4	5
13-	İşimle ilgili bir karar verirken bana karşı saygılı ve Özenlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
14-	Amirim işimle ilgili kararları verirken benim kişisel İhtiyaçlarıma duyarlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
15-	İşimle ilgili kararları verirken bana samimi bir şekilde Yaklaşır.	1	2	3	4	5
16-	İşimle ilgili konularda bir çalışan olarak benim Haklarıma önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
17-	İşimle ilgili kararların uygulamalarını benimle konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5
18-	İşimle ilgili kararların verilme sebeplerini açıklar.	1	2	3	4	5
19-	İşimle ilgili kararlar verirken mantıklı izahatlar yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
20-	İşimle ilgili verilen kararları açıkça anlatır.	1	2	3	4	5

21-	Kurumuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok.	1	2	3	4	5
22-	Bu kuruma kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
23-	Bu kurumun benim için çok özel bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
24-	İstesem de şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak benim için Çok zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
25-	Şu anda kurumumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, Hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
26-	Eğer bu kuruma kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş Olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
27-	Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kurumumdan ayrılmak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
28-	Benim için çok avantajlı olsa da, kurumumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
29-	Kurumumdan şimdi ayrılırsam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
30-	İşimi bırakmayı çok sık düşünmekteyim.	1	2	3	4	5
31-	Büyük bir ihtimalle gelecek sene yeni bir iş aramaya Başlayacağım.	1	2	3	4	5
32-	Gelecek yıl bu iş yerinden ayrılacağım.	1	2	3	4	5

YAŞINIZ: ..... **CİNSİYETİNİZ:** ( ) KADIN ( ) ERKEK

EĞİTİM SEVİYENİZ: ( ) İLKOKUL ( ) ORTAOKUL ( ) LİSE

( ) 2 YILLIK MESLEK OKULU ( ) ÜNİVERSİTE MASTER ( )

( ) DOKTORA

KURUMDAKİ GÖREVİNİZ:.....

KAÇ YILDIR BURDA ÇALIŞIYORSUNUZ?..... .....

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ÖZGEÇMİŞ
GÜLCE GÜRPINAR

Kişisel Bilgiler :

Doğum Tarihi	08.02.1982
Doğum Yeri	KKTC
Medeni Durumu	Bekar

Eğitim :

Lise	1996- 1999	Lefkoşa Türk Maarif Koleji
Lisans	1999- 2003	Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi, İşletme Yönetimi Bölümü

Çalıştığı Kurumlar:

Mayıs 2006- Devam ediyor	Devlet Planlama Örgütü Planlama Memuru
Eylül 2005- Nisan 2006	ODTÜ Kuzey Kıbrıs Kampusu Öğrenci İşleri Görevlisi