

**PERCEIVED EXPLOITATIVE EMPLOYEE-  
ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIPS:**

**A MULTI-STUDY INVESTIGATION OF A  
NEW CONSTRUCT**

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A thesis submitted to the Employment Relations and Organisational Behaviour Group in the Department of Management, at the London School of Economics and Political Science, for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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In memory of Prof. Zvi Livne  
A renaissance man, a scholar  
and my beloved father

## **Declaration**

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## **Abstract**

The employee-organisation relationship (EOR) has received considerable attention in the organisational behaviour literature. This line of research has heavily emphasised positive relationships, or has examined negative events within an overall positive or neutral relationship. Influenced by the tenets of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), this strand of research assumes that positive and negative relationships are mirror opposites, rather than discrete forms of interaction. In an attempt to expand negative EOR research, this thesis focuses on exploitation, which has been under-researched in the organisational behaviour literature.

This thesis presents a multi-study investigation of a new construct termed perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships (PERs), employing five independent samples. First, a new measure was developed and evaluated using four samples. PERs were found to be distinct from related constructs, explaining additional variance in negative emotions above and beyond other established constructs. The new scale was then used to examine a hypothesised model of the antecedents and outcomes of such exploitative relationships in a longitudinal study of medical doctors in training. Findings indicate that an effort-reward imbalance which favours the organisation is a pre-condition for the development of PERs, supporting the distributive nature of this phenomenon. Contrary to expectations, however, abusive supervision was not found to predict exploitation perceptions among employees. PERs predicted several attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, and this relationship was partially mediated by the emotions of anger, hostility, shame and guilt. The findings appear to support a thesis of negative asymmetric relationships viewing negative and positive relationships as discrete phenomena that develop differently and have divergent impact on outcomes. The contributions and implications of this thesis as well as suggestions for future research are discussed.

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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

“The individual mirrors in his individuation the preordained social laws of exploitation, however mediated”.

—Theodor Adorno, *Minima Moralia: Reflections from Damaged Life* (1951/1999: 148)

Employee-Organisation Relationships (EORs) are an umbrella term used by researchers to capture the range of interactions and interpersonal dynamics between the employee on the one hand, and the organisation on the other (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Challenges in this relationship can arise when the organisation’s expectations about employees’ contributions and the inducements offered in return are mismatched with the expectations and desires of employees (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Tripoli, 1997; Shore, Porter & Zahra, 2004). Such an incongruity can cause friction in the relationship and have a negative impact on outcomes both for the employee and the organisation (Shore et al., 2004), resulting in a negative EOR. Negative events and relationships are a particularly important subject of investigation, as they have an even stronger effect on consequences than positive relationships (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001). As Taylor (1991) states, “negative events appear to mobilize physiological, affective, cognitive, and certain types of social resources to a greater degree than do positive or neutral events” (p. 72). As negative relationships are characterised by a *recurring* and *enduring* set of negative feelings, judgements, intentions and behaviours (Labianca & Brass, 2006) they also have more lasting consequences.

Yet despite calls by researchers to investigate more extreme negative relationships within the EOR, especially ones where the organisation itself is at fault (Gibney, Zagenczyk & Masters, 2009), most research has heavily emphasised positive or neutral

relationships, and at best, has relegated the role of negative events to secondary importance within an overall positive relationship (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson & Wayne, 2008).

The emphasis on positive EORs is evidenced by the vast amount of research on organisational support (a recent meta-analytic review is provided by Kurtessis et al., 2015) and the growing literature on positive organisational behaviour (e.g. Nelson & Cooper, 2007; Wright, 2003; Luthans, 2002a; 2002b; 2003).

A likely reason for this focus on positive phenomena is that, up until recently, social exchange theory has been the dominant theoretical basis for EOR research (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004), which “assumes that neutral (or unsupportive) and negative relationships are the same” (Gibney et al., 2009: 666). In broad terms, social exchange theory posits that individuals strive to balance their relationships by controlling the value and quantity of exchanged resources (Homans, 1958). March and Simon (1958) describe this balancing mechanism in terms of inducements and contributions, and, in an organisational context, this would mean that employees themselves strive for a balance between the inducements offered by the organisation and the contributions they provide in return. The reciprocal exchange between the organisation and the employee is guided by the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), or the obligation to reciprocate due to feelings of indebtedness (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). A negative norm of reciprocity, “where the emphasis is placed not on the return of benefits but on the return of injuries” (Gouldner, 1960: 172), has also been described. However, the literature that attempts to address this, such as research on psychological contract breach (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1995), low perceived organisational support (e.g. Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003) and injustice (e.g. Greenberg & Colquitt, 2013), tends to capture an isolated event or events in an overall positive relationship (e.g. Dulac et al., 2008). There has been, as a result, not only an

overemphasis on the positive but a genuine neglect of negative relationships in the EOR literature, and our understanding of more extreme forms of negative EORs is thereby impoverished.

The central goal of this thesis is thus to expand ways of understanding the EOR by opening up research into more negative dimensions. Primary among the topics calling for investigation is the controversial, emotive, but ever-relevant one of exploitation (in the workplace). Exploitation is under-researched in the EOR literature, and it would seem that most research is concentrated on reciprocation wariness, or one's fear of being exploited in a relationship (Cotterell, Eisenberger & Speicher, 1992; Shore, Bommer, Rao, & Seo, 2009). Yet exploitation itself is not defined or operationalised, neither in the OB literature in general, nor in the EOR literature in particular, although it deserves thorough investigation for both practical and theoretical reasons. Practically, workplace exploitation is in need of research, as it is a deeply-rooted phenomenon, seemingly engrained within the social order, as expressed by Adorno, cited at the beginning of this thesis. Indeed there is evidence that workplace exploitation can be found at present across a diversity of industries and jobs, not only in the developing world, where the workforce is often unprotected by laws and regulations, but also in developed countries (Amnesty International USA, 2012; 2013). From a theoretical standpoint, we need to account not only for positive or neutral EORs, but also for negative ones, in order to have a more comprehensive view of the EOR.

Exploitation in the work context has been defined as "the action or fact of treating someone unfairly in order to benefit from their work" (the Oxford Dictionary Online, 2015). The unilateral benefit to the exploiting party consequent on mistreating the exploited party is what sets exploitative relationships apart from other types of potentially negative EORs and renders them more extreme. Exploitation of labour can be manifested

in different ways, such as slavery, forced labour, human trafficking, and child labour (Skrivankova, 2010). It can also occur on different levels, ranging from a macro-structural level, such as the exploitation of a whole class of people (Marx & Engels, 1848/1967; Weber, 1978), to the interpersonal level, such as sexual harassment in the workplace (e.g. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964).

The focus of this thesis will be on a dyadic form of exploitative behaviours—an exploitative relationship between an employer and an employee. Therefore, in viewing this subject through the lens of the EOR literature, a macro-level analysis is beyond the scope of this thesis. In order to investigate such problematic dyadic dynamics in the workplace, the concept of Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships (PERs) is proposed. I define PERs as *an employee's perception that they have been purposefully and repeatedly taken advantage of by the organisation, to the benefit of the organisation itself, with the anticipation of continued harm in the future*. PERs are viewed here primarily as a distributive phenomenon which relates to an organisation's failure to provide employees with expected and/or agreed upon rewards. Examples of such rewards are numerous. Consistent with resource theory (Foa & Foa, 1980) such rewards can be both tangible and intangible. Compensation is the classic example of a tangible reward; exploitation would mean withholding it completely (no compensation) or reducing it (under-compensation). Exploitation can take on less tangible forms also, such as an organisation's demand that employees prioritise the needs of the organisation over their own needs, lack of care for the employee's wellbeing, and making employees feel like commodities. Manifestations of an exploitative relationship can also vary in terms of their severity. For instance, late payment is less severe than an unpaid wage, as evidenced by the penalties enacted in countries like the U.S. and U.K., which include monetary penalties for late payment, versus the possibility of a jail sentence for unpaid wages (e.g. Workers'

Action Centre, 2013). Therefore PERs, as I have described them, exist along a continuum ranging from less to more severe forms of exploitation.

Given the dearth of extreme forms of negative relationships in the EOR literature, there were many possible angles from which to tackle this topic. As a preliminary investigation resting on a limited amount of past research, the task of exploring all of these potential research routes was not practical. Consequently, many choices had to be made regarding which areas to encompass and which topics to exclude. These decisions were heavily guided by the selection of research questions.

This thesis works toward the goal of deepening our understanding of negative EORs by introducing the new construct of PERs, by developing a scale to measure such relationships, and by exploring their antecedents and consequences. The research questions guiding this thesis correspond to these goals. First, I ask, what are PERs? Specifically, how are PERs defined and measured? Second, are PERs different from other constructs in the OB literature? Third, what are some of the antecedents that lead to the development of PERs? Last, I set out to assess some of the consequences for employees and organisations of such a relationship.

In answering these questions, this thesis aims to make both theoretical and practical contributions to the field. From a theoretical standpoint, integrating exploitation within OB research provides a novel addition to the literature. Aside from bridging this important gap, the thesis will deepen and extend our understanding of more severe forms of negative employee-organisation relationships, and help correct the skewed emphasis in the literature on more positive relationships. Learning more about the causes and consequences of PERs may, from a practical standpoint, benefit organisations' understanding of how to improve the quality of their relationships with employees, or to mitigate the effects of negative EORs.

The general structure of this thesis is as follows:

Chapter 2 presents a review of the general literature relevant to exploitation in order to clarify the theoretical foundation for the current formulation and definition. This chapter will consider the EOR and OB literatures in particular, so as to better integrate the concept of PERs within those fields, assessing how it resembles but also differs from existing frameworks and conceptualisations.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the methodology used in this thesis. Whilst a detailed description of the research design, research setting, data collection procedures and analytical methods is provided in each of the empirical results chapters (chapters 4, 5 and 6), chapter 3 explains the broad rationale behind the methodological choices.

Chapter 4 is the first empirical chapter and it describes the PERs scale development procedures, which are presented in two stages: the scale development stage, and the scale evaluation stage. Alongside these stages, issues pertaining to factor structure, reliability and different types of validity are addressed across four samples.

Chapters 5 and 6 are dedicated to presenting the results of a longitudinal study. Chapter 5 includes the test and results of the hypothesised antecedents of PERs. The model is tested using a sample comprised predominantly of medical doctors in their residency phase. The chapter concludes by discussing the main findings, pointing both to certain limitations of the study and to the potential avenues for future research. Chapter 6 includes the test and results of the hypothesised consequences of PERs. The model is tested using the same doctors' sample. This is followed by a discussion, which describes the findings and insights of the study, as well as the limitations of the work and directions for future research.

Chapter 7 provides a synthesis and overall evaluation of the key findings of the studies presented in the previous chapters. The contribution this research can make to the academic literature and to the practicum will be discussed, as well as possibilities for future research into this domain.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **EXTENDING THE EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIP LITERATURE TO THE PERCEIVED EXPLOITATION DOMAIN**

## 2.1 Introduction

Since the 1990s organisational behaviour researchers have been paying greater attention to the EOR. As “an overarching term to describe the relationship between the employee and the organization” (Shore et al., 2004: 292), the employee-organisation relationship encompasses the employment relationship itself (Tsui et al., 1997), social and economic exchange (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006), perceived organisational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986), and the psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995). Concepts which further refine our understanding of the relationship between employees and their supervisors, such as leader-member exchange (Graen & Scandura, 1987; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), perceived supervisor support (Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002) and abusive supervision (Hornstein, 1996; Tepper, 2000; 2007) have also been incorporated into the literature as they can play a role in shaping the EOR, as Eisenberger et al. (2002) discuss.

The EOR literature tends to draw on two principal theoretical frameworks, namely social exchange theory (SET: Homans, 1958; Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) and the inducements-contributions model (March & Simon, 1958). Although both of these theoretical frameworks have conducted research on employment relationships from the employees’ perspective, their focus is different and consequently, they have furnished different perspectives on the EOR. In the inducements-contributions model, the emphasis is on the balance between organisational inducements and employee contributions, an emphasis which is classically presented by Tsui and her colleagues (1997) who categorise relationships into balanced (reflected in the ‘quasi-spot contract’ and the ‘mutual

investment' approaches) or imbalanced (typified by the 'underinvestment' or 'overinvestment' approach), either in favour of the employee or of the organisation. This model adopts an organisational-level perspective (Shore, Coyle-Shapiro & Chang, 2016, forthcoming). Social exchange theory, on the other hand, stresses reciprocal exchange and the disparity between economic and social exchange relationships (Blau, 1964), based on differences in each party's obligations. While social exchanges involve unspecified and open-ended obligations, economic exchanges have specified formal obligations which are expected to be fulfilled (Blau, 1964). Consequently, researchers drawing on social exchange theory have conducted more individual-level analyses of the EOR (Shore et al., 2015), as manifested in the studies of psychological contracts and perceived organisational support.

With regard to SET, although early theorists such as Homans (1961) and Thibaut and Kelley (1959) considered both the positive and negative features of relationships, this theory has evolved to focus mostly on the positive aspects of relationships in order to better understand how to achieve desirable outcomes for both employees and the organisations that employ them (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Conceptualisations based on SET explain the EOR in one of two ways. First, they read the relationship along a continuum (e.g. high versus low POS), with the bulk of research being on supportive organisations and perceived organisational support (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch & Rhoades, 2001). Second, they view negative events or perceptions as a disruption of an overall positive or neutral relationship, as in the case of psychological contract breach (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005). Consequently, an individual-level analysis of discrete negative relationships, which treats negative

relationships themselves as ranging along a continuum from low to high, is under-researched.

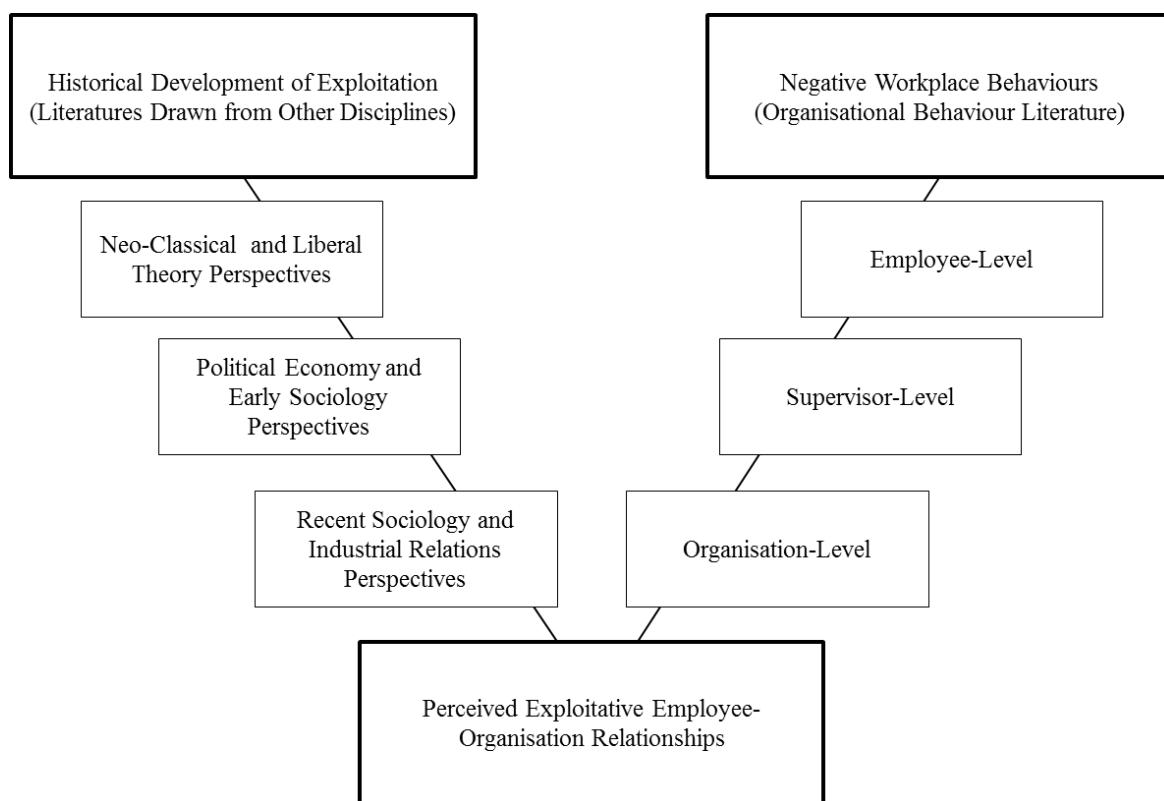
The notion of perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships is conceived against this backdrop. As in Tsui and colleague's (1997) categorisation of the EOR into discrete relationships which are either balanced or imbalanced, PERs are characterised as an emphatically negative relationship. Yet, PERs take the idea of an overall relationship evaluation to the individual level. Like social exchange theory models, PERs offer an individual-level perspective of the EOR. However, in focusing uniquely on the negative quality of a relationship between the employee and the organisation, PERs differ from these other individual-level constructs.

In order to gain insight into the phenomenon of exploitative employee-organisation relationships, it is crucial to describe the historical development of the concept of exploitation and to draw on other disciplines in so doing. This is especially necessary due to the dearth of research on exploitation in the OB, and particularly the EOR literature. A review of relevant organisational research on negative behaviours of employees, supervisors and organisations is also pertinent to the positioning of PERs in context and to highlighting the contribution of the concept to the wider field.

Consequently, this chapter draws on two strands of literature. As shown in Figure 2.1, the first strand is a historical view of exploitation ranging from a neo-classical and liberal theory perspective, to both early and recent political economy and sociology perspectives, as well as industrial relations. Taken together these bodies of literature provide the foundation for the current formulation of PERs. The second perspective is OB-based research. Particularly relevant in the review of this line of research is the existing scholarship on negative workplace phenomena, which has examined the issue from the points of view of the employee, supervisor and indeed the whole organisation.

The review is followed by the presentation of a conceptual model of hypothesised antecedents and outcomes of PERs: this model will provide the basis for the empirical testing later in this thesis.

*Figure 2.1. The Bodies of Literature Contributing to the Current Formulation of Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*



## 2.2 Historical Development of Perspectives on Exploitation

This section focuses on historical perspectives of exploitation that provide the basis for the conceptualisation of exploitation as presented in this thesis. It begins by describing the approach of neo-classical and liberal theories (e.g. Capitalism) to exploitation, and continues by outlining the political economy (e.g. Marxism) and sociology perspectives.

More current sociology and industrial relations research is also reviewed. Finally, it will be shown how these theories inform the definition of PERs as proposed here.

### *2.2.1 Economic, Political and Sociological Theories Revisited*

#### Shunning exploitation: Neo-classical and liberal theories

A good starting point for delving into the topic of workplace exploitation is asking, why has the research into the concept of exploitation been under-developed in the OB literature? One explanation is that the influences of neo-classical and liberal theories on our current understanding of exploitation have led to the stifling of its investigation. Two factors have contributed to this. First, this tradition, launched by the eighteenth-century work of Adam Smith (1759/2010; 1776/1991) stresses several main principles, including free market economics, decentralisation of capital and public ownership, a laissez-faire approach to both management and government, supply and demand and competition as motivating the distribution of income, and self-interest as driving economic growth. Although this perspective embraces self-interest, and accepts that social and economic forces are driven by hedonistic gratifications of individual actors (Parsons, 1967: 115), it overlooks exploitation as an extreme manifestation of self-interest, in which selfishness overrides the rights of others through a unilateral, unjust, and often illegal appropriation of benefits. Instead, these principles lead to a specific view of exploitation as a market failure or deviation from perfect competition to which markets should aspire. Raico (1977) explains that exploitation of and parasitism upon society are considered attributes of the non-market classes, “of the classes that stood outside of the production process” (p. 180), and that they are therefore irrelevant to theories based on the idea of economic production and markets. Additionally, exploitation is often tightly associated with extreme cases of

mistreatment of labour, such as slavery, human trafficking and debt bondage (e.g. Belser, 2005; Bales, 2004), especially in our own day. However, progressive capitalist societies consider themselves greatly distanced from such forms of exploitation not only because they base their economies on the wage labour unit, but because in such societies, work for both rich and poor is increasingly elective, especially as alternative sources of income often exist, such as government programs, unemployment benefits, welfare, or earnings of other family members (Mead, 1986). Consequently, while extreme labour abuses in the shape of exploitation and slavery may exist in capitalist societies, they are illegal, and are thus not considered an ailment of the general employment system or of organisations. Instead, they are regarded as isolated events, rather than a macro-level societal illness.

A second factor which has contributed to the stifling of investigation of exploitation is that it is perceived in many capitalist societies as an emotive term (Moore, 1972). This might be due to the governing perception in these societies that the individual's behaviour is rational and fully self-directed (Camerer & Fehr, 2006)<sup>1</sup>. Classically encapsulated by the American dream (Adams, 1931/2012), this belief dictates that if individuals apply themselves and work hard, the prospect of betterment is within reach for all. In this prevalent socio-cultural ambience, if individuals are subject to exploitation, then it must be an outcome of their own wrong-doing, their own failure to take charge. If exploitation is deemed as an outcome of the actions of individuals themselves rather than an underlying ailment on a wider structural level, then it is entirely understandable that even some researchers have been reluctant to approach the topic. They too are affected by the climate of the times.

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<sup>1</sup> This perception of rational behaviour of the individual has not evaded criticism. For example, the idea of bounded rationality (e.g. Simon, 1982), by which individuals are limited by factors such as availability of information, their cognitive abilities, and time constraints, critiques and revises this assumption of rationality.

One must therefore draw on literature from the political economy as well as sociology fields such as Marxism, which forcefully tackle the issue of macro-structural exploitation, that is, the exploitation by large sections of society of other large parts of society. These traditions have greatly influenced both past and present understandings of exploitation. For instance, the mainstream Marxist tradition is echoed in the Frankfurt school of thought, and existentialist Marxism in the Della Volpe School, as well as in many British and American streams of thought.

#### Exploitation from the perspectives of political economy and early sociology theories

Marxism, often used synonymously with political economy, is a good point of departure in the investigation of the literature on exploitation, because it regards exploitation as pivotal to explaining social systems. As opposed to neo-classical thinking, Marx did not emphasise how competition keeps prices low and benefits consumers, but rather how it forces capitalists to exploit workers (Parsons, 1967). According to this view, capitalism is a system entirely based on exploitation as it attends solely to the advantage of the 'bourgeoisie', or the wealthy middle and upper classes, and works consistently against the working class, the so-called 'proletariat'. In this dual class structure, the bourgeoisie are the owners of the means of production and are the employers of wage labourers who make a living through "the appropriation of surplus value" (Raico, 1977), whilst the proletariat are those who do not own the means of production and have to sell their wage-labour in order to make a living (McClellan, 1980). Giddens (1981) explains that according to Marx the idea of economic exploitation is linked to political domination (as the role of the state is to act as an instrument of class domination) and oppression by the ruling capital class. Thus, although the different classes are dependent upon each other for production and for jobs, their interests are not aligned, which creates an imbalanced situation leading to class

struggle. Furthermore, there is asymmetric dependency between the classes in favour of the bourgeoisie, the non-producers, who use their position of control of the means of production to extract from the majority of ‘producers’ (the proletariat) the surplus product (Giddens, 1981). This idea of asymmetric dependency elucidates why exploitation is integral to class relations despite the mutual dependency of the classes upon each other.

Another relevant notion in Marx’s theory is that of economic alienation (Marx, 1970), which refers to the idea that the worker is no longer “in control of his own activities” (McLellan, 1980: 118) and lacks opportunities to attain his will and wants. In the economic context, this means that the individual cannot enjoy work *per se*. Instead, the individual views work as a means to an end, and is alienated from the product of his or her labour due to increased specialisation of occupational activity. This trend subordinates man to the machine as he accepts the state of alienation in return for rewards, and leads to increased poverty as it indicates normative adoption of the state of affairs (Giddens, 1981). Whilst both the proletariat and the propertied classes feel this alienation, for the latter class, this alienation is a reassurance of their own power, whereas for the former class, alienation is a constant reminder of their own powerlessness in the system. Alienation is tightly linked to exploitation because if the worker feels a stranger in his job, if it becomes merely a means to satisfy external needs and lacks inherent enjoyment, then it cannot be regarded as voluntary, but rather compulsory (McClellan, 1980): clear evidence, according to Marx, that work for the proletariat is a classic act of exploitation by the ruling class.

The early French sociologist, Durkheim, was another theorist, whose writings contribute to contemporary understanding of exploitation. However, Durkheim departs from Marx’s conceptualisation of exploitation in that he does not see the state as a medium for class domination, but as a vehicle for social reform “through furthering equality of opportunity” (Giddens, 1986: 17). Class would lose its innate meaning in such a society in

favour of a meritocracy in which inequality stems not from class but from “the differential distribution of talent and capacity” (Giddens, 1986: 32). Furthermore, Durkheim sees organic solidarity<sup>2</sup> in modern society not as the outcome of self-interest but a new moral perception of social solidarity or cooperation. In this context, exploitation is seen as an exchange relationship between isolated individuals seeking to maximise personal returns. As such, exploitation is an outcome of individual self-interest and not of systems, a societal development brought about by individual dynamics, rather than an institutional one. Exploitation, therefore, is not the ‘fault’ of government or corporations. Instead, the state’s role is to actualise ideals of moral individualism and the role of corporations is to act as a buffer between the state and the individual (Giddens, 1986).

While this approach has points of tangency with classical liberalism, in other respects, Durkheim’s thinking resembles that of Marx. Like Marx, Durkheim believed that in modern society there is a growing dependence of individuals on one another and of the classes on one another due to increased specialisation and the division of labour, which are intended to maximise productivity. A by-product of such relations is what Durkheim sees as a direct correlation between the increasing economic gap of the wealthy and the poor, and the distrust between these groups. Consequently, the wealthy increasingly view the poor as a security threat, which leads them to adopt more stringent rules and laws, or adopt new technologies that further broaden the economic gap.

Weber yet furthers our understanding of exploitation, as he distances it from the notion of relations based on class to that of relations based on status. Weber critiqued Marx’s assumption that social development is driven by class struggles as well as his

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<sup>2</sup>Durkheim believed in a societal transition from mechanical solidarity, which he associated with older social forms comprised of small homogenous and religious societies, to organic solidarity, which is based on mutual need and the division of labor in increasingly secular heterogeneous and larger societal forms.

overemphasis of economic influences and the underplaying of political ones (Giddens, 1981). Weber argued that Marx failed to recognise the importance of status affiliations that are not directly based on class relations (Giddens, 1981). According to Weber, status, which is a subjective evaluation, is not necessarily linked to economic class. Instead, it resonates more closely the idea of social class, a concept underemphasised by Marx. The notion of social class makes way for a more generalised perception of exploitation, perhaps more relevant in many modern countries today, in that exploitation need not necessarily take place in societies with dual class structures as portrayed by Marx, but it can also occur in any society in which status plays a role.

Despite these differences, Weber agreed with Marx that all class situations are based on property relations (Weber, 1968), and that status groups tend to be linked through property. Weber also shared Marx's approach that "the operation of the capitalist...acts to favour the material fortunes of capital" (Giddens, 1981: 52). Although Weber differentiated between social and economic class, he saw the two as linked. Additionally, Weber viewed the work organisation as a bureaucratic entity, which operates on the rationality of its players and is instrumental to the state and to its economy through its functioning as the base unit that enables large scale planning and coordination (Weber, 1968). Weber saw the bureaucratisation of organisations as the cause of the depersonalisation of modern society. This notion of depersonalisation is similar to Marx's notion of alienation. Both theorists view this trend towards rationalisation and bureaucratisation as an inescapable fact in modern society, which would inevitably lead to dehumanisation of its members. However, while Marx sees this process as an evolutionary phase, Weber sees it as an end state, or inescapable realm (Weber, 1968).

Table 2.1 summarises these influential treatments of exploitation and highlights the differences between them along several dimensions: (a) the parties to the exploitative

relationship, (b) the purpose of exploitative practices, or in other words, the benefit to the exploiting party, and (c) the view of the work organisation. The table also includes exploitation as it could be viewed from an EOR perspective, based on the construct of PERs. It can be seen that an EOR view of exploitation can extend that of liberal theories to take in the organisational context, by pointing out the usefulness of exploitation to the organisation itself as opposed to a class of people, to a bureaucracy, or to the individual.

*Table 2.1. Comparison between Past Treatments of Exploitation and Exploitation from an Employee-Organisation Relationship Perspective*

	Marx	Weber	Durkheim	PERs
<b>Who are the parties to the relationship?</b>	Exchange between the classes based on a dual-structure (bourgeois and proletariat).	Relationship between the bureaucracy & social class (based on status affiliation).	Exchange between individuals.	Relationship between individual employees and their organisations.
<b>What is the role of exploitation?</b>	Economic exploitation is a reflection of political domination. It allows the bourgeois to enjoy more production surplus.	Exploitation as a product of bureaucratisation and status differentials. The more access to capital of a certain social class, the more that class has the capacity to exploit others.	Exploitation is an outcome of self-interest of individuals who seek to maximise personal returns in an organic structure and not embedded in government or organisations.	Exploitation as a product of organisational interest. Organisations exploit employees in order to receive maximum returns for minimal investment of resources.
<b>How are work organisations viewed?</b>	The work organisation is identified with the exploiting ruling class.	The organisation as a rational bureaucratic entity which enables large scale planning for the state and the economy.	Organisations act as buffers between the state and the individual.	Organisations are independent entities that seek their own self-interest.

*Note. PERs = perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.*

More recent sociology and industrial relations-based interpretations have also contributed to our understanding of exploitation and it is to this research that I now turn.

#### Extensions of perspectives on exploitation drawn from recent sociology and industrial relations theories

Several other sociologists also contribute to the present understanding of exploitation. While these theorists share a macro-structural outlook, they all make independent relevant contributions to theory and inform the conceptualisation of exploitation adopted in this thesis.

An important axiome among many sociologists highlighted by Parsons (1967) is that capital leads to power and social control. He explains that money is the direct means to secure control over resources and the ability to mobilise instrumental resources. These occur through “the promotion of binding obligations” (p. 287), which can mean negative sanctions of varying levels (the use of force being an extreme case). Parsons adds that the ability to use power in this way cannot exist without institutionalisation of authority. Therefore, exploitation based on such power differentials is nested within broader systems and organisations rather than individuals.

Kelly (1998) follows a theme similar to that of Parsons and draws on Marx’s ideas of conflicting interests of the classes and the domination of the ruling class, as well as on Tilly’s (1978) mobilisation theory, to maintain that exploitation requires some degree of organisation behind it. The reason for this is the need for production of surplus. This production must be organised. As the employment contract is not specific enough in detailing quantity or quality of work and as the working class is disorganised in the sense that there are no agreed interests and no resources to draw upon, they are likely to be exploited by the ruling class who possess, and indeed control, this organisational element.

Etzioni (1961) looks at the use of power from the perspective of the actors and maintains that compliance is an outcome of a control-based relationship between the ‘superiors’ and their ‘subordinates’. However, Etzioni highlights the subtleties of control mechanisms. These are not necessarily reduced to the use of force. Instead, Etzioni points to the ability of the powerful to manipulate the means which they command in order to insure conformity to the organisational norms, such that the powerless find that following the directives is rewarding, while not following them would incur deprivations. These rewards and deprivations are varied and include physical, material and symbolic ones, such as a pay increase, training opportunities for a better job, promotion, more responsibility, praise, more interesting work, privileges, and so forth (Mann & Dent, 1954).

However, if conformity, and the acceptance of such norms, is the means of control, is there room for perceptions of exploitation? Etzioni goes on to explain that alienation is generated by illegitimate exercise of power. Therefore, while some ‘subordinates’ have a positive orientation towards their ‘superiors’, which is manifested in free commitment (exemplified in the case of parishioners in a church community), others experience a negative commitment which denotes alienation, exemplified by the case of slavery. In more mainstream cases, such as entrepreneurs in rational capitalism, Etzioni claims that ‘subordinates’ will experience a calculative orientation, which can be either positive or negative, denoting either commitment or alienation of lower intensities. Individuals’ responses, Etzioni maintains, will depend on the individual situation of the participants. ‘Lower participants’, or less powerful ones, are likely to have fewer performance obligations and thus to receive fewer rewards. Fewer rewards may lead to reduced commitment on part of the ‘lower participants’, and thus to reduced control of the powerful over them. These ideas are tightly linked to the concept of exploitation, as the more institutions have the need for control over ‘subordinates’, the more likely institutions will

use coercion of the both explicit (e.g. prisons, concentration camps, in a political context) and the implicit (e.g. remuneration and manipulation of wages, working conditions, etc.) kinds.

Like Etzioni, Moore (1972) sees coercion as made possible today through normative control. For example, in many industries and companies in Europe and in the U.S. it is normative to work long hours, often much longer than those contracted (Sparks, Cooper, Fried & Shirom, 1997). However, Moore (1972) points out that not all relations where there are power differentials automatically infer exploitative relations as well. For instance, the writer maintains that taxes imposed by a state do not constitute exploitation if the state in return provides justice, protection, public services, etc. Another example that Moore provides is when a wealthy country buys raw materials in a poorer country; this doesn't constitute exploitation if those raw materials are more abundant and if it is more labour effective to make them available.

Moore (1972) asserts that there are three elements that determine whether a system is legitimate in its exercise of authority. The first is reciprocity; the second is “judgment of competence that followers make about the ways those in authority carry out their obligations” and “acceptance by those who obey the goals for which the group exists” (p. 55). The first element, reciprocity, can help explain why exploitation need not necessarily be a purely emotive term (Moore, 1972). Exploitation occurs in non-reciprocal relations, such that the goods and services exchanged are not of equivalent value and one party to the exchange uses some form of coercion (Moore, 1972). The writer also stresses that to claim that exploitation exists “it is necessary to take into account a whole range or set of exchanges, not a single transaction” (p. 53). It is also necessary to show that “the other services it provides, such as coordinating the various economic and non-economic activities of the society, rendering justice, providing defence against common enemies, are

services that it fails to provide adequately, or that the social functions themselves have for some reason become less valuable than they were" (pp. 455-456). In order to ascertain legitimacy there must also be objective criteria for assessing these judgments of exploitation, because, as Moore points out, exploitation is more a subjective state - "the presence or absence of exploitation as determined by some supposedly impartial observer by itself makes very little difference in human feelings and human behaviour. It is always necessary to find out how people themselves judge their situation [...] there are too many potential social and psychological mechanisms that can prevent human beings not only from expressing moral outrage at their situation but sometimes also from feeling it" (p. 457).

To conclude, these more recent extensions of perspectives on exploitation provide us with a further understanding of the concept's historical evolution. Nonetheless, the main criticism of these approaches with regard to exploitation is that their focus on class or social strata can be obsolete in many cases. For example, as economies shift away from manufacturing industries in which a more clear distinction can be drawn between an employer-owner who has access to resources, and a disadvantaged employee-worker, we increasingly find organisations in which power relations between individuals of similar 'classes' or 'social status' exist. This is bolstered by the growing middle class in the last century, which now constitutes over half of the world's population in both developing and developed countries (*The Economist*, 2009). Therefore, in many work environments the surplus of production can sometimes be enjoyed not just by owners, but by workers as well. Additionally, many workplaces offer development opportunities for employees and the prospect of future advancement and success, and so some workers can enjoy work *per se* and not feel alienated in their jobs. Thus, the idea of alienation as envisaged by Marx and his contemporaries is surely less applicable in many work settings today.

This is not to say that exploitation is less present today. At best it can be argued that the nature of the beast has changed rather than diminished. Siegrist and his colleagues (2004) provide several examples of this: many employees work longer hours than those contracted, often for no additional pay, and many employees are forced to take early retirement. Additionally, organisations sometimes unilaterally cut benefits or compensation packages that were previously agreed upon, thereby changing the employment contract without the consent of employees. All these prevalent behaviours benefit organisations at the employees' expense. With such current-day workplace practices in mind, it becomes evident that an employee-organisation based analysis of exploitation is missing.

### *2.2.2 Defining Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*

In this section I offer a definition and description of a construct which, as previously mentioned, I term perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships (PERs) that can be applied in an organisational context. The definition of this concept is grounded in the previous conceptualisations of exploitation that were described previously. Below I provide the proposed definition, the elements that it can be broken down into, and a recapitulation of the literature on which each element draws. A perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationship is defined here as:

*An employee's perception that they have been purposefully and repeatedly taken advantage of by the organisation to the benefit of the organisation itself, with the anticipation of continued harm in the future.*

This definition can be broken down into five elements: (a) intent to take advantage of others for personal self-interest, (b) exploitation as an organisation-based phenomenon, (c) exploitation as a subjective perception, (d) exploitation as an accumulation of events which requires repetition of unfair treatment and (e) anticipation of continued harm in the future.

While the combination of these elements in one definition is new, and the conceptualisation differs from liberal theories in that it separates the notion of exploitation from class or social strata, it also draws on these past ideas. For instance, the first element which points to intentionality has points in common with Marxist, Weberian and Durkheimian approaches. In Marx's case, the classes need each other – owners need the labour of the workers in order to enjoy the surplus, while workers rely on the owners for their livelihood. However, Marx argues that such relations are asymmetric in terms of power. It is the bourgeoisie, the property owners, who hold more power and are therefore situated in a position to *intentionally* exploit the workers in order to benefit from more surplus.

This argument is also echoed by Weber who stresses that it is capital (i.e. the group with access to resources) that is on the winning side of the power equilibrium. Durkheim appends to this the idea of exploitation as an exchange relationship between individuals that seek to maximise personal returns. According to this view, the benefit of one individual must be linked to the detriment of the other. In the core of these arguments is the assumption that exploitation involves a purposeful intent to take advantage of others for personal benefit. The above explains the source from which the first element of exploitation, the intent to take advantage of others for personal self-interest, is adopted.

The second element of the current definition also differs from the Marxist class-view of exploitation and Durkheim's thesis that exploitation can be an individual

phenomenon (Giddens, 1986), and agrees with Kelly's (1998) perception of exploitation as an organisational issue. Kelly (1998) offers two factors required for exploitation to occur: organisation and resources. That is, individuals have less access to resources than wider groups. Thus organised groups maintain more access to resources. In this context, the organisation can be viewed as the group that holds access to resources, whereas individual workers who do not share the same access are automatically the more disadvantaged in this relationship. Thus, exploitation is here seen as primarily an organisational phenomenon rather than a class-based or individual-based phenomenon.

Further support for this argument is provided by Etzioni (1988) who contends that normative control is a prime means of coercion within organisations. It is plausible to argue that an organisation itself, with all the significant resources at its disposal, can act as a unit, so as to skew the balance of power in its own favour when dealing with employees. Therefore, in the EOR context, exploitation is indeed an organisational phenomenon, because it is the organisation which has the capacity to exploit employees due to its access to and control over resources.

The third element of the current definition is subjectivity. Moore (1972) warns against oversimplification of the term exploitation and adds that it is not sufficient to make a claim of exploitation based on the fact that some people get more and others less. As mentioned previously, Moore exemplifies that while the state claims taxes from individuals, it does not necessarily exploit them if it offers benefits in return, such as protection, social services, and so on. However, if the state fails to offer services that reciprocally match the levels of taxes claimed, or if those services are no longer suitable for changing conditions then this constitutes exploitation. Thus, Moore (1972) stresses the need to show relative value.

In the EOR context, a classic example of exploitation would be when the organisation does not provide employees with the benefits deserved for the quality or quantity of work which they provide. However, the idea of relative value is problematic as it can vary between different contexts and even between individuals. How, then, can one claim to be the subject of exploitation? Moore resolves this issue through floating the idea of subjectivity and concludes that exploitation must be conceptualised as an individually experienced phenomenon. Thus, the third element of exploitation, that it is a subjective state, characterised by perceptions, is adopted here. This is also consistent with other EOR frameworks, such as psychological contracts (PCs: Rousseau, 1995) and perceived organisational support (POS: Eisenberger et al., 1986), which are described in terms of employees' perceptions.

To recapitulate, Moore (1972) argues that for a relationship to be deemed exploitative, one must consider all the relevant exchanges, as a single transaction is not enough to conclude that exploitation has occurred. This idea implies an ongoing negative quality in a relationship between an employee and the organisation so that the employee anticipates continued harm in the future, a rational perception based on his or her consistent past experiences. The idea of a negative future expectancy is further strengthened by Moore's (1978) discussion about helplessness of the powerless, and the belief that the future will not lead to more positive prospects. Thus, the fourth and fifth elements of exploitation surrounding the repetition of unfair treatment by the organisation, and the anticipation of continued harm in the future, are adopted here.

Our conventional definitions of what constitutes exploitation as offered in dictionaries, for example, are imprecise and unclear, and crucially not wide enough. For instance, as mentioned in chapter 1, the Oxford English Dictionary (2015) defines exploitation as “the action or fact of treating someone unfairly in order to benefit from

their work". Similarly, Friedman (1994) defines exploitation as taking advantage of an individual or situation for one's full benefit. Such descriptions are blunt tools for a coherent analysis. While they recognise that there are agents and victims, they tend to define exploitation in absolute terms, as an objective and quantifiable phenomenon, and they do not tackle the thorny question of perceptions of exploitation.

The benefits of having a more specific term, namely PERs, as opposed to just talking about general exploitation, are real. As Moore (1972) contends, exploitation may be more easily measured as a subjective perception rather than objective judgment due to the relative value assigned to benefits and detriments by different individuals. Therefore, instead of attempting to define an absolute or objective state of exploitation, this dissertation focuses on the construct of perceived exploitation. Based on Moore's suggestion that exploitation is a product of an ongoing exchange relationship, the concept of PERs also specifies in its definition the idea of expectation of further harm in the future, an element which is absent from the dictionary definitions of exploitation. This idea implies a state of lock-in, which is embedded in structure and thus is not easily changed; in that sense indeed it resembles Marxist thinking. This insistence on structural exploitation, with all that means for future replication is visibly absent from capitalist treatments of the topic, for, as we have seen, in the capitalist tradition, individual behaviours and outcomes are often assumed to derive from independent volition.

In short, the construct of PERs is both historically-informed and contemporary, drawing fully on old ideas but also very much tailored to modern organisational contexts. I shall now turn to making the case for PERs by exploring how they relate to existing frameworks in the OB domain, and in so doing I shall compare and contrast this construct with other established constructs.

### 2.3 Negative Behaviours in the OB Literature

In shifting the focus from the work that has been done on exploitation and its historical development to the work that has been done on negative workplace behaviours (as outlined in Figure 2.1), the main goal of this section is to demonstrate how PERs are different from other forms of negative workplace behaviours captured in the OB literature, and how such exploitation perceptions can potentially enhance our understanding of negative workplace phenomena.

It is necessary first to outline of the tenets of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the related notion of the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964), which have been characterised as the dominant frame of reference used to examine the employment relationship (Emerson, 1976; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004) and which underlie some of the constructs addressed in this chapter. I shall then turn to describing research on negative behaviours within the organisational context and explore how PERs diverge from such behaviours. It is important to note that although negative behaviours have received a substantial amount of attention, the work on negative EORs has been more limited. Therefore, the discussion on negative behaviours is followed by a critical examination of EOR-based constructs, where differences are highlighted between PERs and the existing conceptualisations of perceived organisational obstruction (Gibney et al., 2009) and perceived organisational cruelty (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012).

### 2.3.1 *Social Exchange Theory and the Norm of Reciprocity*

Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity have been widely used in organisational research and have improved our understanding of the employment relationship (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2003). Although the founding fathers of social exchange, Homans (1958), March and Simon (1958), Gouldner (1960) and Blau (1964), tackled social exchange from the viewpoints of different disciplines, ranging from psychology to economics, they all shared several basic notions that contributed to a unified theory.

One central underlying idea of social exchange is that social behaviour can be seen as an exchange of tangible as well as non-tangible goods or resources (Homans, 1958). Another precept of the theory is that individuals strive to balance their relationships by controlling the value and quantity of the exchanged resources (Homans, 1958). March and Simon (1958) describe this balancing mechanism in terms of inducements and contributions, which in the organisational context would translate into a balance between the inducements offered by the organisation and the contributions provided by an employee. Gouldner (1960) addresses the need to balance exchanges, by stressing that behaviour is guided by the obligation to reciprocate due to feelings of indebtedness (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). This reciprocation among exchange partners has been termed the norm of reciprocity. Such reciprocal exchange highlights the trust required in a social exchange relationship, as the risk always exists that the exchange of a benefit will remain unreturned and unreciprocated (Cotterell et al., 1992). Therefore social exchange is characterised by “obligations, trust, interpersonal attachment, or commitment to specific exchange partners” (Emerson, 1981: 35).

Blau (1964) differentiates social exchange from economic exchange and maintains that whereas in social exchange the obligations between exchange partners are unspecified, and the reciprocation of such obligations is “left to the discretion of the one who makes it” (Blau, 1964: 93), in economic exchange, obligations are specified and formalised by contract. As a result, economic exchanges are more short-term oriented and tend to be more financial and impersonal by nature. In economic exchanges there is simply less of a need to invest in a long-term relationship, and thus elements such as trust and mutual obligations do not play a major role (Shore et al., 2006). Conversely, as continuity is a key feature in social exchange, and because there is no specification as to when a benefit is to be reciprocated, the donor is perceived by the receiver to have more concern and consideration for his or her welfare and well-being (Tsui et al., 1997; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004) than in economic exchange.

Researchers have empirically corroborated Blau’s differentiation between social and economic exchange (e.g. Shore et al., 2006), and have maintained that social-type exchanges foster better employment relations than do economic-type ones. For example, in their research on employee responses to different work environments (in terms of investment discrepancy between employee and employer), Tsui et al. (1997) found that employees “respond favourably in terms of both performance and attitudes when employers are willing to commit to fairly long-term relationships with them” (Tsui et al., 1997: 1117). Such long-term relationships may point to more social-type exchanges, inferring that social-type exchanges foster more favourable outcomes for employment relations.

Similarly, in their research on the degree of balance and level of obligation in the employment relationship, Shore and Barksdale (1998) found that in exchange relationships where the mutual obligations of the employee and employer were high, higher levels of

perceived organisational support and affective commitment, and lower levels of turnover, were found. Because “the greater the degree of mutual obligation, the stronger the social exchange relationship” (Shore & Barksdale, 1998: 733), it can be deduced that social exchanges entail such positive outcomes to a greater degree than economic exchanges. Moreover, Shore et al. (2006) found that affective commitment and perceived organisational support are positively related to social exchanges, whereas perceived organisational support is negatively related to economic exchanges. As a result of these works and others, there has been a wide consensus among academics that social exchanges are better for the employment relationship than are economic exchanges, as they provide for the exchange partners’ socio-emotional needs beyond tangible benefits (Eisenberger, et al., 1986).

However, SET has underplayed more negative forms of exchange, which are characterised by negative reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) sees the two central demands of the norm of reciprocity as universal and as including (a) the returning of help to those that have helped us and (b) the withholding of harm from those who have helped us. Yet Gouldner also mentions negative norms of reciprocity and sees them as retaliatory forms of behaviour “where the emphasis is placed not on the return of benefits but on the return of injuries” (Gouldner, 1960: 172).

Sahlins (1972) further expands upon the concept of negative reciprocity and views reciprocity as existing along a continuum. On one end of the spectrum is generalised reciprocity, which, like social-type exchange, involves “altruistic exchange, in which the focus on material gain is suppressed by the focus on social relations, and in which the return of the benefit is not instructed by time, quantity or quality” (p.194). On the mid-point of the continuum is balanced reciprocity, which, like economic-type exchange involves more impersonal relations in which material benefits are of at least equal

importance to immaterial benefits exchanged, and whereby transactions of benefits of equal quantity and/or quality occur simultaneously. On the extreme end of the continuum is negative reciprocity, which is “characterized by a taking orientation in which exchange partners [...] attempt to maximize their own utility at the expense of the other” (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004: 15).

As elaborated throughout this thesis, the social exchange literature, and research which builds upon the theory, has had and continues to have a truly seminal role in contributing to our understanding of how certain exchanges promote better employment relationships than others, but unfortunately, such research has consistently overemphasised positive relationships, as evidenced by the literature which has amassed on organisational support theory (e.g. Kurtessis et al., 2015). Nonetheless, in the last few years researchers have called for a new research emphasis on negative relationships (e.g. Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012), which, according to the negative asymmetry argument, have greater explanatory power than positive or neutral relationships (Labianca & Brass, 2006). The integration of exploitative EORs into the OB literature might help extend the social exchange framework into more negative forms of relationships.

Having said that, negative behaviours in the organisational context *have* received attention and it is important to review this stream of literature in order to have a more comprehensive view of the research that has been done, and in order to understand how PERs might differ from previous constructs. These behaviours can be categorised into those undertaken by employees, by supervisors, and by organisations, and are the focus of the next sections.

### 2.3.2 *Negative Employee Behaviours*

Negative employee behaviour comprises various phenomena such as workplace aggression (e.g. Neuman & Baron, 1997), antisocial behaviour (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Lee, Ashton & Shin, 2005), counterproductivity (Sackett, 2002; Martinko, Gunlach & Douglas, 2002), deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Lee & Allen, 2002), and victimisation (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield & Allen, 1999). These are important and highly problematic aspects of organisational life due to their prevalence (Greenberg, 1997; Vardi & Weitz, 2004), and the challenges and high costs associated with them (Chappell & Di Martino, 2006; Ones, 2002).

The scale of the phenomenon is elucidated especially when considering the wide array of behaviours that involve “violations of norms that threaten the well-being of an organization” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995: 557). These behaviours can be directed either at the organisation or at other individuals in the organisation (e.g. Miles, Borman, Spector & Fox, 2002; Lee et al., 2005); they can include both psychological and physical harm-doing, as well as direct and indirect harm (Aquino & Thau, 2009), and can vary in severity. Manifestations of these behaviours include theft, property damage (Sackett, 2002), withholding effort, acting rudely to co-workers (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, Barrick, & Murray, 1989), reduced OCB, reduced organisational commitment, and increased turnover intentions, retaliation and aggression (Cortina, Magley, Williams, & Lanhout, 2001).

While such negative employee behaviours are important as they are linked to many organisational outcomes, this group of behaviours has become synonymous with

employee-initiated behaviour (e.g. Neuman & Baron, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007)<sup>3</sup>. Herein lies a difference with the concept of PERs, because in the case of negative employee behaviour, the perpetrators are individuals within the organisation (e.g. Neuman & Baron, 2005; Hershcovis et al., 2007) rather than the organisation itself. A likely relationship between negative employee behaviours and PERs is that the former are the outcome of the latter, especially as such behaviours have been conceptualised as a response to perceptions of disequilibria (e.g. Martinko et al., 2002), a view which has led to the investigation of the contribution of negative behaviour of organisations to negative employee behaviours (e.g. Baron & Neuman, 1996). Accordingly, negative employee behaviours are pertinent in this thesis as they are likely outcomes of PERs.

### 2.3.3 *Negative Supervisor Behaviours*

Various terms have been used to describe negative behaviour of a supervisor in the workplace, including petty tyranny (Ashforth, 1997), supervisor undermining (Duffy, Ganster & Pagon, 2002), abusive supervision (Hornstein, 1996; Tepper, 2000; 2007), bad leadership (Kellerman, 2005), toxic leadership (Lipman-Blumen, 2005), destructive leadership (Einarsen Aasland & Skogstad, 2007), and the dark-side of leadership (Hogan & Hogan, 2001; Birkland, Connelly, Ones & Glomb, 2009).

The importance of accounting for such behaviours stems from the pervasiveness of such behaviours (Einarsen et al., 2007) and from the host of negative outcomes that have been empirically linked to them (e.g. Tepper, 2000; Mawritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012; Kivimäki, Virtanen, Vartia, Elovainio, Vahtera, & Keltikangas-Järvinen,

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<sup>3</sup> An exception is the construct of workplace victimisation. Past work on this topic examined different hierarchical levels of perpetrator-victim dyads (e.g. Aquino, 2000; Aquino et al., 1999).

2003). For instance, researchers have associated negative supervisor behaviours with reduced satisfaction (Tepper, 2000), organisational citizenship behaviour, and employee satisfaction (Zellers, Tepper, & Duffy, 2002; Aryee, Chen, Sun & Debrah, 2007), and increased turnover, psychological distress (Tepper, 2000), deviant behaviour, both directly against the supervisor and displaced against the organisation or other members of it (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), anxiety (Schaubroeck, Walumbwa, Ganster & Kepes, 2007), and emotional exhaustion (Grandey, Kern & Frone, 2007).

While definitional differences between these terms exist, for instance, abusive supervision excludes physical contact (Tepper, 2000), as opposed to destructive leadership, for instance, which includes “all physical and verbal behaviour” (Einarsen et al., 2007: 209), and destructive leadership encompasses negative behaviours directed at both employees and the organisation, whereas other terms differentiate between the two, they all share an underlying commonality which is that the supervisor is responsible for the negative treatment of employees.

Based on the perspective that employees “personify” the organisation and view it as a single entity operated by multiple organisational agents (Levinson, 1965), it is possible that negative supervisor behaviours towards employees contribute to the development of PERs. According to the literature on organisational support, supportive supervisors can play an important role in contributing to employees’ perception of support from the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Similarly, an abusive supervisor might play a role in creating a negative relationship between an employee and the organisation. Research into the influence of negative supervision on the EOR, however, is lacking, and the predictive model of antecedents and outcomes of PERs, shown in Figure 2.2 (discussed in further detail later on), highlights that abusive forms of supervision may affect employee perceptions of exploitation by the organisation.

### 2.3.4 *Negative Behaviours of Organisations*

Negative behaviours of organisations have been examined in OB research through the various constructs and theoretical frameworks which comprise this extant body of literature. The organisational support literature (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995) has raised the idea of unsupportive organisations through the notion of low organisational support (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 1990; Wayne et al., 1997; Eisenberger et al., 2001). In recognising the importance of unmet expectations, research into psychological contracts (Rousseau, 1989; 1995) has placed much emphasis on psychological contract breach and violation (e.g. Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Justice and fairness theories, like organisational support theory, have viewed justice as ranging along a continuum from justice to injustice (e.g. Colquitt & Chertkoff, 2002).

These powerful constructs have contributed much to our understanding of the potential effects of employees' perceptions of negative behaviours of organisations. Nonetheless, these constructs are not only limited in their ability to describe and explain negative phenomena, but they do not deal thoroughly with the issue of extreme negative relationships between employees and their organisations (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012).

In an attempt to correct the skewed emphasis on more positive EORs, more recent research on perceived organisational obstruction (POO: Gibney et al., 2009) and perceived organisational cruelty (POC: Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012), has sought to describe discretely negative EORs. Although POO, POC and PERs all encompass the more extreme forms of negative EORs, they are also distinct constructs.

This section thus compares and contrasts PERs with these negative behaviours of organisations towards employees along the following dimensions, presented in Table 2.2:

(a) whether the construct of interest is a distributive phenomenon, (b) whether the relationship is conceived as a negative one, (c) whether we may talk about the intentionality of the offender behind the wrong-doing, and (d) the ongoingness or continuity of the negative exchange and the employee's anticipation of future harm.

Accordingly, I begin with a comparison between PERs and established constructs which fall under the umbrella of the EOR, but which do not capture extreme forms of negative relationships. These constructs include PC breach, (low) POS, and distributive injustice. This examination is followed by an evaluation of the work that has been done on POO and POC as more negative forms of EORs. Overall, this section aims to support PERs as a necessary addition to the existing references to negative behaviours and negative EORs in the OB literature.

Table 2.2. Comparison between PERs and EOR-Based Constructs That Address Negative Behaviours of Organisations

EOR Construct	Construct Definition	Distributive-Based Mistreatment?	Conceptualised as a Negative Relationship?	Harm-Doing Essentially Intentional?	Ongoingness of Negative Exchange?
<b>PERs</b>	<i>An employee's perception that they have been purposefully and repeatedly taken advantage of by the organisation, to the benefit of the organisation itself, with the anticipation of continued harm in the future.</i>	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<b>PC Breach &amp; Violation</b>	<i>An employee's perception that "the terms of their psychological contracts have not been adequately fulfilled".</i> (Morrison & Robinson, 1997: 226)	Not Necessarily	Not Necessarily	No	No
<b>Low POS</b>	<i>An employee's perception of an organisation's low commitment to him or her as an individual.</i> (Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997)	No	No	No	Not Necessarily
<b>DI</b>	<i>Occurs when the profits of employees fall short of their investment.</i> (Colquitt, Greenberg & Zapata-Phelan, 2005)	Yes	Not Necessarily	No	No
<b>POO</b>	<i>An employee's "belief that the organization obstructs, hinders or interferes with the accomplishment of his or her goals and is a detriment to his or her well-being".</i> (Gibney et al., 2009: 667)	No	Yes	No	No
<b>POC</b>	<i>The "employee's perception that the organization holds him or her in contempt, has no respect for him or her personally and treats him or her in a manner that is intentionally inhumane".</i> (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012: 141)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note. EOR= employee-organisation relationship; PERs= perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships; PC= psychological contract; POS= perceived organisational support; DI= distributive injustice; POO= perceived organisational obstruction; POC= perceived organisational cruelty.

### Comparing PERs and PC breach, (low) POS and DI

PERs and the established constructs of PC breach, (low) POS and DI all involve an employee's negative evaluation of the organisation's behaviour. The adverse outcomes of such perceptions testify to the negative experience that employees associate with these behaviours. To exemplify this point, a psychological contract, defined as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organizations" (Rousseau, 1995: 9), reflects the mutual unwritten expectations that the employee and the organisation have from each other (Schein, 1980). When the psychological contract is breached, employees believe that the terms of their psychological contract have not been fulfilled (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Researchers often cite the sense of violation, or feelings of anger, betrayal and distress that accompanies breach (e.g. Dulac et al., 2008), as well as other strong emotional reactions (e.g. Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Indeed it is well established that PC breach negatively influences behaviours and attitudes within the employment relationship (Dulac et al., 2008) by reducing trust, in-role performance, perceived obligations, OCB, affective commitment and loyalty, and by increasing turnover intentions (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood & Bolino, 2002; Turnley & Feldman, 2000; Robinson et al., 1994; Zhao et al., 2007).

Low POS is yet another form of employee perception which captures a negative experience. If POS refers to an employee's "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002: 698), then low POS is an employee's perception of an organisation's low commitment to him or her as an individual (Wayne et al., 1997). Thus, POS is

conceived as ranging from high to low (e.g. Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Wayne et al., 1997), with research indicating that high POS leads to positive outcomes, whereas low POS leads to negative ones, such as absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and turnover intentions (Allen et al., 2003).

Turning to injustice, such perceptions have been viewed as arising when “management violates established rules [...] It can also arise when employer actions conflict with shared beliefs” (Kelly 1998: 29). Different types of injustice have been addressed in past research. On a broad level, organisational injustice refers to employees’ perception of fairness violations, such that their outcomes, the procedures used to determine these outcomes and the treatment they receive when these procedures are implemented are unfair (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Francis & Barling, 2005). Research has pointed to a link between organisational injustice and a range of negative outcomes, from reduced psychological and physical health of employees (Tepper, 2001; Elovainio, Kivimäki, Puttonen, Lindholm, Pohjonen & Sinervo, 2006), to reduced job satisfaction, commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, and performance (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2001).

Organisational justice is an umbrella term for the three more specific types of injustice (Colquitt et al., 2001) found in the organisational context, namely procedural, interactional and distributive injustice. Procedural justice is concerned with the consistent and unbiased application of procedures across people and time, anchored in fair decision-making mechanisms (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza & Fry, 1980). Interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) is defined as “the quality of the interpersonal treatment people receive when procedures are implemented” (Colquitt et al., 2001: 426). Distributive justice relates to an employee’s comparison of input-outcome ratio, based on the tenets of equity theory (Adams, 1965). Distributive injustice (DI) is thus perceived by employees

when their profit falls short of their investment (Colquitt, Greenberg & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). Undoubtedly DI has negative consequences. Among other outcomes, DI contributes to negative employee behaviours, such as retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and even to an employee's health, effecting consequences such as psychological distress (Tepper, 2001).

DI is the most relevant form of injustice in this context given that both PERs and DI are conceived as distributive phenomena that centre on employees' appraisals of the rewards they receive versus the effort or investments they make within the EOR. Thus, DI and PERs differ from PC breach and POS on the first dimension shown in Table 2.2. While psychological contracts can also entail a relational component (Anderson & Schalk, 1998), and are thus so wide in their content base that they may contain thousands of items (Kotter, 1973 cited in Anderson & Schalk, 1998), and while POS has an underlying interpersonal quality in its focus mainly on an employee's perception of the organisation's concern for him/her and of the organisation's interest in the welfare of the employee (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011), the focus of PERs is on a perceived disparity between contributions and rewards, or in other words, the outcome for the employee. In the case of POS, for example, the context of a favourable outcome is important to determine genuine concern in order for POS to develop. As Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2011) note, "a substantial pay raise resulting from a bitterly contested contract dispute that forces the result is attributed by employees to low, not high, perceived organizational support" (p. 43). Exploitation, however, centres primarily on outcome. An employee might feel that the organisation values his or her work, but still think that he or she is underpaid.

Another major dividing factor that sets PERs apart from the rest is their conceptualisation as a negative relationship. That is, PERs are a discretely negative

relationship as opposed to the other constructs. PC breach, for instance, can capture an isolated event or events (Robinson & Morrison, 2000), which may not be sufficient for the development of a negative relationship. In other words, PC breach can be viewed as a disruption of reciprocity (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005) in a relationship which can be overall positive or neutral. Therefore, PERs differ from PC breach in that they capture the unambiguously negative nature of the relationship.

Similarly, the conceptualisation of high and low POS as opposite ends of a continuum differs from the current view of PERs as a discretely negative relationship. This differentiation is important. PERs sees positive and negative relationships as essentially discrete, rather than (as in POS research) on the same spectrum. Perhaps it is the bipolar conceptualisation of POS which has limited the ability of the concept to explain a greater diversity of employee behaviour (Eisenberger et al., 2004a). Indeed most of the research attention has been given to high POS and the positive outcomes associated with it, such as trust (Eisenberger, Jones, Aselage & Sucharski, 2004; Stinglhamber, De Cremer & Mercken, 2006; Dulac et al., 2008), job performance, commitment, innovation (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Dulac et al., 2008) and organisational citizenship behaviour (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne et al., 1997).

Like PC breach and low POS, and unlike PERs, an employee's experience of distributive injustice does not necessarily mean that the employee views the overall relationship with the organisation as negative. For example, that the adverse outcomes of distributive injustice can be buffered by other types of justice (e.g. Greenberg, 2006) suggests that distributive injustice need not necessarily culminate in an overall negative employee-organisation relationship. Instead, as opposed to PERs, the concept of DI does not necessitate an employee's negative evaluation of the EOR.

Another point of distinction between the constructs involves the different emphasis placed on the organisation's intention to harm the employee. The intentionality of the organisation's actions involves an assignment of blame, which is important as it can have detrimental consequences for individuals and organisations, as exemplified by the case of revenge (Aquino, Tripp & Bies, 2001). While PERs fully acknowledge the employee's perceptions that the organisation is purposefully and intentionally exploiting them, this is not necessarily the case with the other constructs. In reference to the psychological contract, the employee might attribute perceptions of breach to reasons that exempt the organisation. Robinson and Morrison (2000) provide the example of incongruence, in which employees attribute the breach to a misunderstanding between the organisation and the employee surrounding the terms of the contract. Such incongruence can be easily explained given the nature of the psychological contract, which is "for the most part implicit, covertly held and only infrequently discussed" (Anderson & Schalk, 1998: 637).

The role that intentionality of the organisation's actions plays, also differ between PERs and POS, such that POS precedes an employee's interpretation of the organisation's intent. This is evidenced by the work of Eisenberger et al. (2004a), who argue that POS can have an attenuating influence on the outcomes of negative organisational behaviours, such as breach, because employees with high POS "may be inclined to give the organisation the benefit of the doubt" (Eisenberger et al., 2004a: 215). Likewise, Lynch, Eisenberger and Armeli (1999) state that "POS may be used by employees as an indicator of the organisation's benevolent or malevolent intent in the exchange of employee effort for reward and recognition" (pp. 469-470). These arguments indicate that POS can shape employees' attributions of intent, and therefore that POS can develop regardless of employee perceptions of organisational intent. Thus, intentions are not necessarily as inherent to the POS construct as they are to PERs.

In reference to injustice, it has been maintained that “causal accounts from authorities may help deflect blame by convincing individuals that unfavourable events were beyond their reasonable control and due to external causes, which mitigates perceived unfairness” (Jones, 2009: 538). Even when employees attribute blame to the organisation for unfair outcomes, implying that these employees view the organisation’s behaviour as volitional (Mikula, 1994), attributions of intent can be deflected and DI remedied (Reb, Goldman, Kray & Cropanzano, 2006). Thus we may infer that the intention to harm is not as inherent to the DI construct as it is to the notion of PERs, which are presumed to entail an internal attribution of blame, such that employees perceive the organisation to have intentionally taken advantage of them.

The last dimension (presented in Table 2.2) is the ongoingness of the exchange and consequently, employee’s continued anticipation of future harm. PERs and PC breach differ on this front as well. Defined as they are, the construct of PERs encompasses employees’ expectation that the organisation will continue to exploit them. By contrast, given the view of PC breach as a disruption of an ongoing relationship, which is not necessarily negative, and possibly indeed positive, the PC literature offers the solution of revising the contract (Schalk & Roe, 2007). Revision of the psychological contract involves changes and adaptations in employees’ perceptions of what the mutual obligations with the organisation are. Such a revision will reset expectations and is likely to alleviate a sense of anticipated harm.

The POS literature is more equivocal in regard to low POS than it is in regard to high POS, with respect to the ongoingness of the exchange and anticipation of future harm from the organisation. When employees feel supported by their organisations, the POS literature specifies that employees have an expectation for continued support. As Lynch et al. (1999) mention, “POS serves to increase the expectation of material resources (e.g.,

pay, fringe benefits) and symbolic resources (e.g., praise, approval)" (p. 469). While we know that employees tend to repay the organisation for perceived support with positive behaviours (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003), and similarly, repay the organisation for a lack of support with negative behaviours, little is known about whether the reciprocal interplay in the case of low support is contingent and iterative, and this contingency provides the foundation for the relationship, or whether the ongoingness of the interaction leads to some anticipation of future harm in a generalised view of the relationship.

The idea that DI can be remedied (Reb et al., 2006) also suggests that employees do not necessarily anticipate future distributive injustice following past distributive injustice. This can be explained in that the traditional justice dimensions (e.g. distributive, procedural justice) are typically connected to some event (Rodell & Colquitt, 2009: 991), as opposed to a global fairness perception, which "is typically connected to some entity, such as a supervisor or formal organization" (Rodell & Colquitt, 2009: 991). This argument is reinforced by theorising surrounding the notion of anticipatory injustice, defined as one's expectation to experience justice (or lack thereof) in the future (Shapiro & Kirkman, 1999). Accordingly, researchers have proposed that such a tendency to 'foresee' injustice is the outcome of a global fairness perception pertaining to the relevant entity rather than individual justice types (Shapiro & Kirkman, 2001; Rodell & Colquitt, 2009). Therefore PERs and DI differ with respect to employees' anticipation of future harm.

Most of these important differences between PERs and PC breach, low POS and DI are driven by the conceptualisation of PERs, in contrast to the other constructs, as a discretely negative phenomenon. I would argue that in treating positive and negative relationships as discrete we are in a position to understand negative workplace relationships in a much more coherent way, and in particular, to weigh the more serious consequences of such relationships (Brass & Labianca, 2006). Indeed discretely negative

events have greater explanatory power in a diverse range of situations (Labianca & Brass, 2006: 597), and thus the treatment of PERs as bivariate rather than bipolar is crucial in extending our understanding of the EOR so as to take in more and varying negative relationship forms.

Nonetheless, as previously mentioned, with the goal of expanding the EOR literature into the investigation of more negative relationship forms, researchers have conceived the constructs of perceived organisational obstruction (Gibney et al., 2009) and perceived organisational cruelty (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). These constructs are more similar to PERs in their depiction of a negative relationship; nevertheless, they differ from PERs in several important aspects. These similarities and differences are detailed below.

### Comparing PERs, POO and POC

Perceived organisational obstruction has been defined as an employee's "belief that the organization obstructs, hinders or interferes with the accomplishment of his or her goals and is a detriment to his or her well-being" (Gibney et al., 2009: 667). This construct was formulated in response to the assumption that unsupportive and negative relationships are the same and in an attempt to correct the skewed emphasis on positive organisational treatment in OB research (Gibney et al., 2009). PERs fill the same conceptual gap, however, while both POO and PERs view the organisation as a source of mistreatment and equally refer to perceptions of employees, the two can be contrasted in several respects.

First, as established above, intent to harm is crucial for the development of perceptions of being exploited for another's benefit. Conversely, obstruction is not conceptualised as necessarily intentional. Moreover, the goals obstructed by the organisation in the circumstance of POO are not limited to the distributive outcomes

associated with PERs or even to the workplace context. That is, actions by the organisation can also obstruct personal goals of employees outside the organisational domain. Moreover, recalling the negative behaviours of organisations described earlier in this section, obstruction can capture an isolated event or events in the EOR rather than depict the actual relationship. Lastly, POO does not entail the social exchange element and the ongoingness of negative exchanges in the relationship inherent to the EOR literature and captured by the PERs concept.

A concept that *does* emphasise the relationship as evaluated by the ongoingness of the negative treatment and expectation of future harm by employees is perceived organisational cruelty defined as “the employee’s perception that the organization holds him or her in contempt, has no respect for him or her personally and treats him or her in a manner that is intentionally inhumane” (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012: 141). Like POO and PERs, POC helps fill a gap in EOR research which does not capture the most negative types of EORs in which the harm-doing by the organisation and its agents is perceived by the employee as abhorrent (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). As a relatively new construct which has yet to be operationalised, it has the potential to greatly expand our understanding of negative EORs.

Yet despite the similarities between PERs and POC, which are understandable given that both terms occupy the negative EOR domain, the two are also noticeably distinct. The main point of distinction is that while PERs are primarily a distributive phenomenon, POC is of a more relational and interpersonal nature as evidenced by the inclusion of notions of respect and personal treatment in the definition. The term ‘cruelty’ is also quite broad and can have many different meanings encompassing a wide range of inhumane and barbaric behaviours (based on Webster’s definition of cruelty, in Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012) that might not serve a clear purpose to the organisation: it might be

cruelty exercised for its own sake, or for the sake of some incomprehensible psycho-personal reason. Exploitation, on the other hand, has the specific goal of lowering costs in order to increase financial gain. Therefore, while POC is ‘unnecessary’ (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012) and its goals at times unfathomable, PERs invariably serve some goal of the organisation even if the means to achieving this goal are unjustified.

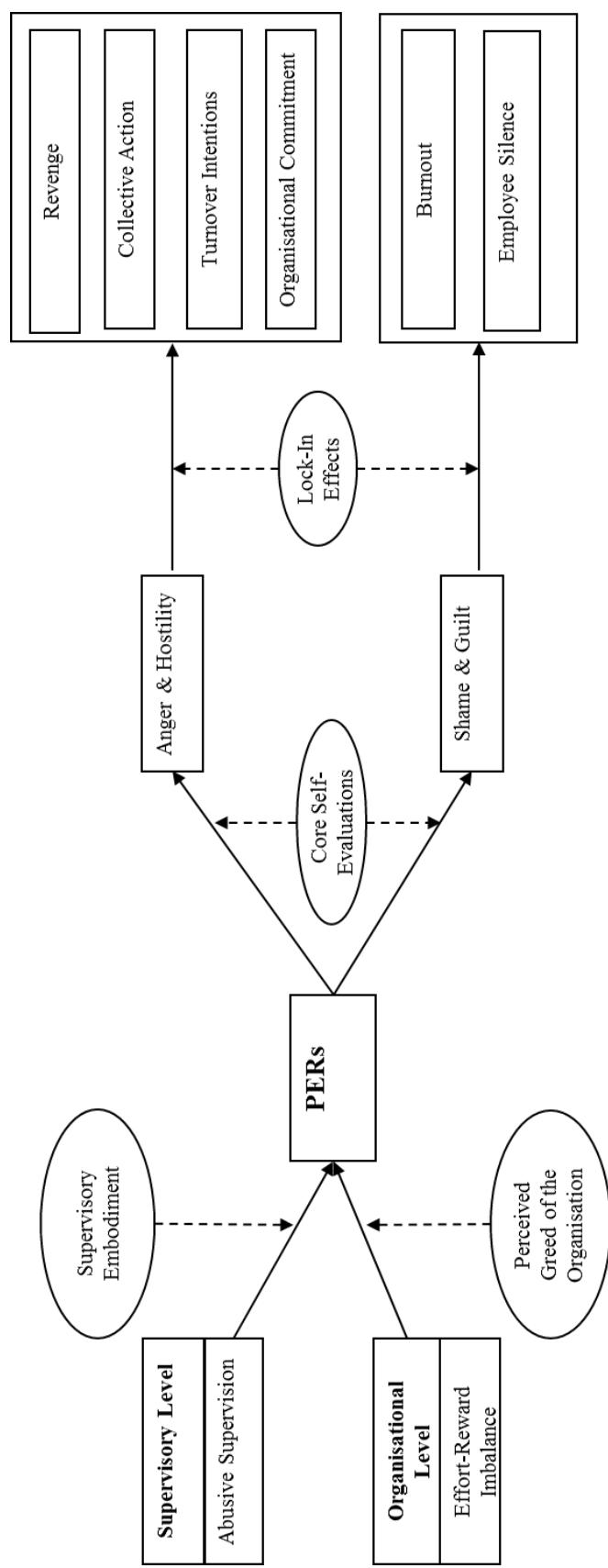
In reviewing the constructs of POO and POC which form the substance of the literature on negative EORs to date, it becomes evident how little we know. Based on the differences identified here between POO, POC and PERs, there may well be untapped potential to uncover diverse types of negative relationships by examining the various types of phenomena (e.g. distributive or interactional), whether the harm involved is tangible or intangible, and the nature of the benefit to the organisation (e.g. compliance, financial gain). It can be seen how even in combination, these constructs may only skim the surface in terms of understanding all there is to be understood about the domain of the negative EOR. The comparison between PERs and other negative EORs or treatments of negative behaviours of organisations within the EOR presented in this section supports the overall notion that PERs are conceptually different from existing constructs. These dissimilarities provide impetus for the integration of PERs into organisational research.

I now turn to presenting a model of hypothesised antecedents and consequences of PERs. This model both allows us to understand how PERs relate to constructs used in OB research, and offers a roadmap for the rest of this thesis, which is dedicated to testing the model.

## 2.4 A Model of Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships

The model depicted in Figure 2.2 is a preliminary attempt to explore the antecedents and consequences of PERs. The choice of variables was based on theory and prior research, which are described in further detail in chapters 5 and 6. Nonetheless, it should be noted at this point that SET and the norm of reciprocity are the theoretical underpinnings of the model. The notion of equivalence (Gouldner, 1960; Liden et al., 1997), which characterise these frameworks, predicts that an employee will negatively reciprocate following mistreatment in an effort to balance an imbalanced relationship for example by reducing commitment to the organisation, by retaliating against it, and by displaying other undesired behaviours. This consideration guided the choice of some of the variables in the model. Nonetheless, while the tenets of social exchange underlie the model, it is inclusive of other approaches and theories, such as those which take into account the role of attributions, emotions, and individual and situational factors, and their impact on the resulting attitudes and behaviours of employees.

*Figure 2.2. Proposed Model of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Perceived Exploitative Employee- Organisation Relationships*



## 2.5 Conclusion

This chapter examined two strands of literature that can contribute to our understanding of the current concept of PERs. The historical perspective established the foundations for a new formulation and understanding of exploitation in an organisational setting, and the OB literature was used to examine how PERs differ from other existing conceptualisations of negative behaviours in the workplace. A model of the potential antecedents and outcomes of PERs was proposed, grounding the construct in the context of theory and past research. Nonetheless, in view of the fact that we are at a very early stage of research of workplace exploitation, the model itself does not exhaustively capture the range of potential antecedents and outcomes of PERs. The next task will be to provide an overview of the research methodology which I will use for both the development of a scale to measure PERs and then to proceed to test its antecedents and outcomes.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

### **3.1 Introduction**

This thesis employed five independent samples over a three year period, one of which was a longitudinal study with repeated measurements at two points in time. As these samples were gathered for different research purposes, different methods and data analysis techniques were employed. The goal of each study also shaped the sample selection and data collection procedures. An overview of the aims of each sample, the data sources used, the data collection method and procedure, as well as the specific analytic strategy used is provided in Table 3.1.

This chapter provides the overall rationale behind the methodology and research design selected in this thesis. To this end, I will begin with a review of the research questions of this thesis, which drive the goals of the different studies, and consequently the various aspects of the research design. An explication of my overall epistemological position and methodology follows in order to convey the underlying approach that guides the research in the thesis. Next, I explain why I chose the samples, data collection methods and procedures, and analytical techniques that I did. The external constraints which sometimes guided the choice of method will also receive attention. Last, considerations pertaining to all of the studies as well as ethical concerns are also explicated. It should be noted that as this chapter is intended to provide an overarching overview of the methodology, more in-depth details can be found in the subsequent empirical chapters.

*Table 3.1. Overview of the Research Goals, Data Collection Methods and Procedures, Data Sources & Analytical Strategies of the Studies in the Thesis*

Research Goal		Data Sources	Data Collection Method & Procedure	Analytical Strategy	Corresponding Thesis Chapter	
1.	Item generation Development of a new PERs scale:	Working professionals (N=10) Content validity assessment & item reduction	Qualitative questionnaires distributed online using a “snowball” technique. Individuals directly approached by the researcher and a lecturer to complete paper surveys.	Content analysis of critical incidents Item-sort task	Chapter 4	
2.	Evaluation of the new scale:	Students from one U.K. and one U.S.-based University (N=19)  • Factor structure • Reliability • Convergent/ discriminant validity • Criterion-related validity	MTurk “workers” of varied occupational backgrounds (N=186)  • Confirmation of factor structure • Replication of reliability • Replication of criterion-related validity and extension to additional criteria	Respondents replied to a post on Amazon MTurk and filled online surveys. Monetary compensation was given per respondent.  Predominantly construction workers and a few administrators and engineers (N=235)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Exploratory factor analysis</li> <li>Internal Consistency Assessment</li> <li>Correlation analysis/ Ironson et al.’s (1989) approach</li> <li>Correlation analysis</li> </ul>	Chapter 4
3.	Antecedents and outcomes of PERs:	Medical doctors (the vast majority in residency stage) based off-shore (N=211)  Antecedents of PERs Outcomes of PERs	Individuals were emailed by the researcher and asked to complete two online surveys in two points in time. Participants received an Amazon voucher.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Structural equation modelling</li> <li>Confirmatory factor analysis</li> <li>Structural equation modelling</li> </ul>	Chapter 5 Chapter 6	

### **3.2 Research Questions**

The goals of the studies in this thesis were driven by the research questions posed in the introduction. The first question seeks to determine what are PERs? As a previously uncharted territory in OB research, it is important to examine whether PERs are at all experienced in workplace contexts, and to understand the type of phenomenon that PERs capture.

Closely related to this fundamental question surrounding the essence of PERs is the question of how are PERs defined and how might they be measured? Some measurement decisions are inevitably determined by the definition of the construct. For instance, PERs are defined as employees' perceptions, and this should be reflected in a self-report measure. Other aspects of measurement, however, such as the scope of the phenomenon, are not pre-determined, and will unfold during item generation, content validity assessments and item reduction procedures. Such considerations also undoubtedly influence methodological choices.

Additional studies are required to examine the psychometric properties of the new scale. One of the assessments incorporated in this analysis is that of convergent and discriminant validity. This test is crucial to answering the research question, are PERs sufficiently different from other constructs in the OB literature? The importance of this examination rests on the need to establish that PERs are a necessary addition to the literature, and that they have the potential to significantly improve our understanding of negative EORs.

In progressing to the research questions of what are the antecedents that lead to the development of PERs and what are some of the consequences of such a relationship, a

methodological and analytical stance that can address process and causal relationships is required. Such an analytical approach differs from the approach that is to be undertaken in the scale evaluation stages, in which assessing factor structure, reliability and validity are the focus.

Throughout the thesis, the research questions influenced the design of the studies and the methodological considerations. However, before progressing to describing these considerations, a brief explanation of the epistemological position of this thesis can help support some of the more specific choices.

### **3.3 Overall Epistemological Position and Methodology**

The epistemological stance of this thesis can be divided into considerations pertaining to the item generation stage, which yielded a qualitative approach, and those pertaining to the content validity, evaluation of the scale and the test of antecedents and outcomes of PERs, which led to a quantitative-based investigation. The use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches is understandable given the very different aims and features of these studies. While the item generation stage is exploratory by nature and thus better suited to a qualitative examination (Stebbins, 2001), the subsequent stages involve quantitative assessments that are widely used in the OB field and that have become a norm for evaluating a scale and testing for causal relationships between variables.

Thus, in view of all the studies in combination, a mixed methods tactic, which utilises both qualitative and quantitative approaches (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003), was used. As this mixed method was coupled with a diverse respondent-base, including five independent samples, it reflects a triangulation approach (Jick, 1979; Flick, 1992), which is

indeed characterised by the combination of methodological approaches to data sources, and data analysis (Thurmond, 2001). The triangulation approach has gained popularity among researchers as it enables them “to expand the scope of, and deepen their insights from, their studies” (Sandelowski, 2000: 246) and as it has the added benefit of offsetting the disadvantages of a single strategy.

Yet, the thesis follows a positivist approach, which assumes a scientific method based on observable evidence (Lee, 1991). This approach is suitable for identifying a presumably objective empirical relationship between variables, and for making causal inference based on quantifiable measures (Bryman, 1984), which are necessary for the current longitudinal research.

The positivist stance routinely depicts a quantitative methodology for which the traditional research instrument is the survey, or questionnaire. As Bryman (1984) states, “through questionnaire items, concepts can be operationalized; objectivity is maintained by the distance between observer and observed along with the possibility of external checks upon one's questionnaire; replication can be carried out by employing the same research instrument in another context; and the problem of causality has been eased by the emergence of path analysis and related regression techniques to which surveys are well suited” (p. 77). Thus, the positivist epistemological approach prevalent in the social sciences (Holmes, 1997) and utilised here, leads to a quantitative methodology, which in turn, prompts the procedures and techniques used throughout.

### 3.4 Data Sources

The goals of the different studies in the thesis commanded the use of different data sources. Consequently, and according to the independent goals of each study, the samples varied in terms of their size, homogeneity or heterogeneity of the respondents, their education level, as well as the job and organisation type. Where needed, and according to the research goal, variability in respondents was facilitated as much as possible in order to increase the potential generalisability of the results.

In the scale development stage there were specific requirements for the two samples that were employed. For the item generation study the respondents had to have had a significant amount of work experience in order to be able to provide insights into and examples of workplace exploitation. Therefore, a sample of experienced working professionals was recruited ( $N = 10$ ).

For the content validity assessment, a sample of students is recommended, as it is a cognitive task, which does not require an existing understanding of the examined phenomenon (Hinkin, 1995; Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner & Lankau, 1993). Thus, respondents were required to be cognitively capable of making an initial judgement about whether a particular incident might fall into the exploitation domain, or not as the case may be. Two groups of students comprised the sample. The first included a group of PhD students in a U.K. university. These are considered content experts, or specialists (Thorn & Deitz, 1989), as they are likely to be familiar with the terminology used in the survey. The second was a group of undergraduate and graduate students from a U.S. university. Although not content experts, these students were likely to have the ability to perform the item-sort task by understanding the

differences between constructs based on their definitions, which were provided in the survey. I included non-experts in the sample in order to make plausible generalisations from the results. In total, the student sample came to 19 respondents. A more detailed justification of the appropriateness of the working professionals and student sample sizes will be presented in chapter 4.

The next stage according to Hinkin (1995; 1998; 2005) is the evaluation of the new scale. In this stage, the sample selection is important as it should reflect the actual populations of interest. In the context of the employee-organisation relationship, the new construct, that is to say PERs, should be applicable to individuals employed in an array of jobs and industries. Hence, the reason behind the choice of an MTurk panel was to facilitate maximum variability (Miles & Huberman, 1994) as it provides the researcher with the ability to reach a diverse range of occupations and jobs within a single sample. MTurk enables researchers to obtain high-quality data rapidly and inexpensively from a diverse pool of potential respondents (Buhrmester, Kwang & Gosling, 2011). Indeed, the 186 respondents in this sample were very diverse both demographically and in terms of jobs and industries (further details are provided in chapter 4).

The confirmatory factor analysis and replication study provided an opportunity to examine whether PERs existed in samples where they were traditionally assumed and theorised to exist (e.g. Marx, 1970; Marx & Engels, 1848/1967), and therefore I sought a sample in which the common denominator of the vast majority of the respondents was based on low wage labour. The sample was comprised of 235 construction workers (and a handful of administrators and an engineer) from various sub-contractors working on a single construction site in the U.K.

Turning to the sample description of the longitudinal study, which examines the antecedents and consequences of PERs, several considerations guided the sample choice:

(a) suitability of the sample due to its cohort-like characteristics, (b) contribution to the diversity of samples in this thesis, and (c) access to the respondents. Regarding the suitability of the sample to the longitudinal design, a sample of medical residents in one country can be regarded as a cohort panel, that is to say a type of sample that lends itself well to making causal inference through repeated measurement (Ruspini, 2002). Cohorts are similar to panels, in that the same individuals are questioned in each measurement. Cohorts are an aggregate of individuals with some common population definition, who experience similar events at a similar time frame (Menard, 2008). Indeed a sample comprised mainly of medical residents (and a handful of specialists) can be viewed as a cohort as the individuals in the sample are linked geographically, according to profession, and in most cases also according to age. Therefore, as a cohort, this sample lends itself to a longitudinal design.

The second element addresses the need for variability of the different samples in this thesis in terms of job, industry and even educational and socio-demographic background in order to provide support for PERs as a concept applicable to different work settings and to employees of varying levels of education and skill. Therefore, this sample, drawn from the trainee professional middle class, complements the other samples in this thesis.

The third element is access. Owing to the sensitivity surrounding the topic of exploitation, I encountered difficulty in finding an organisation that would allow access to its employees. In an early attempt to get a large international bank to allow the survey distribution, a manager explained his fear of “putting ideas” in the minds of employees. In other words, he feared that asking employees about their sense of exploitation might direct their attention to the topic, and perhaps even lead them to think they were being exploited. Having contacts in the medical field that were willing to provide me with the individual

email addresses of many doctors and even help distribute the surveys electronically on my behalf, was instrumental in reaching many doctors without having to go through formal organisational channels. Consequently, 211 medical doctors, most of whom are in their residency phase, were recruited.

### **3.5 Data Collection Method and Procedure**

Similarly to the case of the sample selections, the research goal of each study, as well as research setting constraints, dictated the choices of the methods and procedures undertaken for the data collection.

For the purpose of item generation qualitative open-ended questionnaires were used. A qualitative approach can be more useful in gaining an insight to employees' experiences than many other methods, such as surveys, partly because they do not limit the results to rote responses and partly also because they allow individuals to suggest ideas that the researcher might have overlooked (Reja, Manfreda, Hlebec & Vehovar, 2003). Thus open-ended questionnaires can allow the researcher to tap more fully into diverse domains of interest in the exploratory stage by allowing for new ideas to emerge (Reja et al., 2003).

In this case, my specific investigation goals were to find out: (a) what types of organisational behaviours were perceived by employees as exploitative, and (b) whether there was any evidence of first-hand experience of PERs, the latter was to determine whether PERs were actually experienced by employees. Given that the sample included working professionals in several industries, I expected to gain insights from experienced individuals about what they think PERs might entail, and from there, that I might also make evidence-based generalisations about the wider phenomenon.

Utilising a snowball data gathering technique, I collected 124 incidents of exploitation from the sample of working professionals. As a non-random sampling technique (Faugier & Sargeant, 1997), a snowball sample was ideal for these purposes, as respondents passed on the questionnaire to friends and colleagues whom they believed are capable of understanding the concept of exploitation, how it might differ from other forms of negative treatment, and are capable of making conjectures as to the types of behaviours which might comprise exploitation. Thus, after an iterative process involving data collection and analysis, data saturation, which is indicated by redundancy in responses, was obtained, and when obtained, the data collection process came to a halt (Flanagan, 1954; Carlsen & Gleton, 2011).

For the content validity assessment I used an item-sort technique (also known as a Q-sort technique, or Q-method). Sorting can be done electronically using computer software applications (e.g. nQue), or physically by using flash cards (Holden & Jackson, 1979), or, as was the case here, using the traditional method of a paper template for the sake of convenience. That is to say, the surveys were distributed impromptu to the student sample (further detail about the sample below) either by their lecturer who agreed to distribute the questionnaires on my behalf during class, or by the researcher (myself) who physically approached students and asked them to fill out the survey and return it upon completion.

For the scale evaluation stage, the data gathered included the measurement of different constructs from the OB literature which were potentially related to PERs. All of the chosen constructs were measured with self-report scales. Respondents were typically asked to rate their agreement with statements, or to state the frequency with which behaviours are displayed. Thus, the majority of the questions were close-ended in multiple choice format (with the exception of questions pertaining to age or job tenure, where

respondents were asked to enter free text). Once again, the most suitable method for gathering this type of data is a survey. A survey was also suitable as it allows the researcher to assess the psychometric properties of the new scale.

To gather data from the MTurk sample, I used an online format. MTurk panels are designed for online surveys, which are a precise and efficient method of gathering data, given: (a) their low costs, compared to conventional methods, (b) that survey software reduces common entry errors, (c) the automatic transcription of the data, which eliminates transcription mistakes and reduces the time that transcribing the data entails (Schmidt, 1997), and (d) that unreliable work is easily rejected by posing criteria, such as a completion code, that indicates completion of a survey, or time to completion as an index of whether respondents have read through the questions. The added benefit of an MTurk panel in relation to the online data gathering technique is that it is also less time-consuming in terms of outreach, as rather than approaching potential respondents, on MTurk respondents themselves are on the look-out for surveys to fill in based on the criteria defined by the researchers.

Although MTurk has been criticised for the potential threat it poses to external validity due to self-selection bias, and to internal validity due to habitual participation of respondents in multiple surveys, empirical research investigating MTurk panels has found that it is a valid platform for social science research (Berinsky, Huber & Lenz, 2012). As Berinsky et al. (2012) note, MTurk is “apparently also not currently an excessively overused pool and habitual responding appears to be a minor concern. Put simply, despite possible self-selection concerns, the MTurk subject pool is no worse than convenience samples used by other researchers in political science” (p. 366). The risks posed by MTurk are further offset in this thesis by the replication of results and by the use of multiple samples.

For the confirmatory factor analysis and replication study, paper surveys were used to gather data, as this was the only way to access the chosen sample of construction workers. Despite the advantages of an online survey over paper surveys, as discussed above, paper surveys had to be used in this case due to the fact that many of the respondents did not have access to computers. Nonetheless, I was adamant to pursue this sample, keeping in mind the other samples incorporated in this thesis, for variability in respondents. Accordingly, I had to approach respondents individually. Although a more involved process than an online survey, I found that approaching respondents in person had the added benefit of being able to convince individuals who wouldn't otherwise participate, to take part in the research. Thus, this method had unique advantages (further details about the data collection procedure are provided in chapter 4).

To test the antecedents and outcomes of PERs, the doctors were reached by obtaining email addresses of over 1000 doctors, and sending out online questionnaires- the most efficient and adequate option in this case. Introducing yet another way of obtaining participants for this study (in addition to the 'snowball' technique, the online post on MTurk and the direct physical approach of construction workers) also helped offset concerns related to self-selection bias (Heckman, 1979).

Data was gathered at two points in time. While further detail about the 2-wave longitudinal study is provided in chapter 5, it should be mentioned here that at the first data collection point, a doctor with whom I had personal contact approached doctors on my behalf via their personal email addresses, which were obtained from university listings of past students. In the second phase, which took place three months later, I sent another email directly to the respondents who had completed the first survey.

A couple of notes surrounding the repeated measurement in the longitudinal design should be mentioned at this point. The first pertains to the appropriate number of

measurements in such circumstances. While some scholars insist on three or more waves of data (e.g. Singer & Willet, 2003), other researchers in the organisational behaviour field often use two waves to draw inferences (Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, Richardson, & Dunn, 2002; Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005). Consistent with the latter approach, the current longitudinal study involved data gathering at two points in time. The main reason for this choice is attrition, which is crucial as it “affects sample size, compromises the estimation of population parameters and statistical inferences, and leads to selection bias when the distribution of covariates and dependent variables is dependent on respondents’ continued participation in the study” (Feng, Cong & Silverstein, 2012: 71).

The second issue relates to the time gap between the two measurements. Past organisational research shows that time intervals vary drastically from one study to another. Some research occurs over a period of many years (e.g. Dobrow, 2007), whereas other research takes place over a time period of as little as two weeks (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson & Bliese, 2011). As McArdle and Nesselroade (2014) state, a broader limitation of longitudinal research is that “we may never know that our measured time lags are most appropriate” (p. 265). In this research considering attrition was imperative especially in light of the low response rate and sample size achieved in the first phase (further details are provided in chapters 5 and 6). A long interval between measurements would potentially negatively impact attrition rates (Olsen, 2005). Thus a three month period seemed a sensible time to reduce the likelihood of this issue becoming problematic.

### 3.6 Analytical Techniques

Different analytical techniques were adopted appropriate to the type of question and issue being addressed. In the item generation stage of the scale development I based my strategy on the Critical Incident Technique, as presented by Flanagan (1954). This technique allowed me to identify issues of interest by pinpointing critical incidents, behaviours, or events that might contribute to the phenomenon of the PERs. The CIT was therefore particularly suitable as an exploratory technique (Hinkin, 1995). These incidents were analysed along with an assistant through content analysis, which is the main means for analysing text (Bauer, 2000) in the field of social science.

In the content analysis, I along with an assistant, followed best practice procedures as outlined by Hinkin (1995), which included sorting responses into key themes according to identified behaviours (Flanagan, 1954; Kemppainen, 2000), and establishing acceptable inter-rater reliability (Hinkin, 1998). The main benefit of content analysis is that it combines both qualitative and quantitative processes: it is qualitative in that it enables one to build an understanding grounded in the text; it is quantitative in the sense that it allows one to categorise and make sense of the data in an objective way. An example of qualitative content analysis occurred for instance, when it came to analysing the item: “the amount of work expected from me is unreasonable. It is a job for at least two people working full-time” (R-9). This item was interpreted as serving the function to the organisation of cutting down on costs or resources. In the quantitative stage agreement between the two coders (an assistant and myself) was calculated using Cohen’s Kappa (Cohen, 1960), which is a widely used index suitable when there are two coders.

To assess content validity and for item reduction purposes the item-sort task technique was most suitable, as it serves as a pre-test method for predicting the performance of a scale in a factor analysis, and provides an assessment of the scale's substantive validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). In the item-sort task, respondents assign items to two or more constructs including the construct of interest. Items that are assigned to their correct constructs demonstrate higher substantive validity than those assigned to incorrect constructs (Ferris, Brown, Berry & Lian, 2008: 1351). Furthermore, the other constructs included in the item-sort task also tapped into some form of unfair treatment from the organisation and were included to ensure that the generated items better reflect PERs than these comparable constructs.

When assessing this data, I drew on Anderson and Gerbing's (1991) two indices of agreement, as they impose more stringent cut-off criteria and provide a more accurate estimate than rules of thumb used by other researchers, such as a .40 (Ford, MacCallum & Tait, 1986), or .60 (Hinkin, 1998) cut-off. The first index is the proportion of substantive agreement (PSA), that is to say the proportion of respondents who assign an item to its intended construct. The second index is the substantive-validity coefficient (CSV), or the extent to which respondents assign an item to an intended construct more than to any other construct. Hinkin (1995; 1998) endorses the use of these indices in a comparative manner, as the combination of these indices, which requires that items meet the demands of both, is more stringent than the widely used agreement index employed by MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1991).

Turning to the scale evaluation stage, the first step for testing a new scale is assessing its factor structure in order to understand whether it is uni- or multi-dimensional. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA: Cudeck, 2000) was used for this purpose on the MTurk sample data. An EFA is a technique suitable for scale construction, as it does not

necessitate a preconception of the number of factors of which a variable is comprised (Finch & West, 1997), and, furthermore, it allows one to refine the scale by eliminating items (Hinkin, 1998). After the dimensionality of the scale has been established, a scale should be assessed with regard to its internal consistency reliability. The most widespread index for measuring reliability of a scale is Cronbach Alpha (Price & Mueller, 1986), with .70 being the minimum accepted level adequate for use (Nunnally, 1978). Cronbach Alpha measures the extent to which a set of items measures a single construct (Kerlinger, 1986). It is recommended that reliability is assessed in conjunction with factor analysis (Cortina, 1993).

In order to provide further support for the construct validity of a new scale, an assessment of the convergent and discriminant validity of the construct is vital. Convergent validity examines the extent to which PERs correlate “with other measures designed to assess similar constructs” (Hinkin, 1998: 116). For example, in this case, PERs were expected to be positively (and significantly) correlated with other variables that capture negative treatment and negatively (and significantly) correlated with variables that capture positive treatment or support from the organisation. Convergent validity is determined using correlation analysis (e.g. Niehoff & Moorman, 1993).

Discriminant validity, conversely, tests whether a new construct overlaps with other existing constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). There are various strategies to assess discriminant validity the most widely used being the multi-trait multi-method matrix, known as MTMM (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). However, this strategy requires using different measures of the same construct. As there are no other known measures of PERs, this strategy is not appropriate in this context. It was more appropriate and valid, in this case, to follow procedures laid out by Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson and Paul (1989) to develop their Job in General scale when assessing discriminant validity. The authors base

their assessment on ruling out equivalence between factors as measured by their indicators, such as very high correlations between the comparable constructs, a similar correlation pattern between the comparable measures and a set of additional variable, and equivalence in validity in predicting outcome variables. Likewise, I could rule out equivalence by comparing PERs to potentially equivalent measures. The comparison was based on an analysis of correlations among the comparable measures, and a set of additional variables, and a regression analysis to determine if PERs shows a significantly greater ability to predict outcome variables than comparable measures. This, in conjunction with the EFA, as earlier described, insured that items were lined up with the correct constructs.

The last step of the scale evaluation, the criterion-related validity assessment, provides the researcher with a nomological network of the new construct. This is important as it provides insight into how the new construct fits into the existing literature, as it tests the relationship of PERs with other variables, which, in theory at least, PERs should be related to. It is common practice to assess criterion- related validity via correlation analysis, such that “if hypothesized relationships attain statistical significance, evidence of criterion- related validity is provided” (Hinkin, 1998: 117).

To further support the factor structure uncovered in the preliminary assessment, a confirmatory factor analysis (first developed by Jöreskog, 1969) was conducted using the construction workers’ sample data. A CFA verifies the factor structure and tests whether the measure accurately reflects the intent behind the researcher’s theoretical construct. In practice, this is done by testing whether the data fits the measurement model via analysis of the factor item loadings and the significance of the overall model, as well as the goodness-of-fit of alternative models (e.g. a multi-factor model versus a single common factor) (Hinkin, 1995).

Longitudinal data was used to test the antecedents and outcomes of PERs. Scholars such as Hinkin (1998) advocate the use of longitudinal data to alleviate common method concerns; besides, it is increasingly endorsed due to its inherent benefits, such as the ability to make inferences regarding causality (e.g. Newsom, Jones & Hofer, 2012). Structural Equation Modelling is appropriate for analysing longitudinal data (McArdle & Nesselroade, 2014) because it can be used for causal analysis and inference (Ruspini, 2002). SEM is a better suited tool for this study than other regression techniques, such as multiple regression, as it analyses a host of regression equations simultaneously (Kline, 2011). SEM is also superior to traditional techniques in its ability to differentiate between observed and latent variables, and to test the adequacy of a theoretical model for the data in question (Kline, 2011). SEM is hence particularly useful for assessing a new scale for measuring a latent variable.

Two types of models are analysed in SEM. The first is the measurement model, which describes relationships between latent variables and their indicators, and the second is the structural model which captures the hypothesised relationships. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) provide an analytic strategy for performing SEM in two stages. In the first stage the measurement model is tested using a CFA. In the second stage, SEM is performed on the structural model. This includes measuring the fit of a hypothesised model by estimating how well it fits the data using several prominent indices, which are described in detail in chapter 4.

Before summarising key aspects of the research design attributes of the studies in this thesis, a few words should be said about several method-related considerations that were taken into account and applied to the studies in this thesis wherever possible.

### **3.7 Additional Research Design Considerations**

Two noteworthy procedures and precautions, which were undertaken in order to strengthen the research design and to alleviate common method biases, were: (a) the use of pilot studies prior to conducting the actual studies, (b) the creation of different versions of each questionnaire. In addition, ethical concerns were taken into account.

#### Pilot studies

Prior to administering questionnaires to the target samples, pilot studies were conducted. As a small scale preliminary study, a pilot is intended to improve the study design before launching the full-scale research, by evaluating issues such as the clarity of the items, the relevance, applicability and feasibility of the questions to the sample at hand, the length of the surveys and the average time it takes to complete them (Hulley, Cummings, Browner, Gradey & Newman, 2007). The pilot samples in this thesis included 5-6 participants taken from the target sample. While guidelines as to the appropriate pilot group size vary according to the purpose of the study and the overall sample size, numbers tend to be higher for health and medical research (Hertzog, 2008). In this case, the pilot group size was determined by data saturation.

#### Different versions of questionnaires

For the purpose of alleviating order-effect bias (Perreault, 1975), and due to common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003) respondents were presented with different versions of the same questionnaire. The different versions varied in terms of the sequencing of the questions (the exception is the snowball sample used for

item generation purposes, which received a single version as respondents were asked to answer only two open-ended questions). Although, in order to maintain an internal logic and flow, the order of the questions was not completely randomised (i.e. respondents were ‘eased’ into the survey by more neutral questions, and potentially sensitive demographic questions were usually placed towards the end of the survey), an effort was made to create versions that were noticeably and sufficiently different from each other. Aside from the doctors sample, which included two versions, three versions were administered to the other samples. The number of versions was in relation to the sample size (Couper, Traugott & Lamias, 2001).

### Ethical concerns

It is customary to outline one’s ethical policy in conducting research. The ethical guidelines of the LSE Research Ethics Committee (2014) and the British Psychological Society (2009) were followed here. Respondents were guaranteed confidentiality in two ways: (a) they were assured that as the researcher, I would be the only one with direct access to the data, and they were assured that (b) only aggregate data, and not individual data, would be made available. Moreover, participants gave their informed consent before filling out the questionnaires, and were provided with my contact details.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

The goal of this chapter has been to provide an overarching explanation of the methodology behind the research design of the scale development, scale evaluation and longitudinal studies. Utilising a multi-study, multi-method approach, I outlined the data

collection methods and procedures, the choices of samples and research settings, and the analytical methods used. Further and more specific methodological detail is provided in the following chapters, as also a description of the results of the studies as follows: chapter 4 presents the full PERs scale development and evaluation. Chapter 5 focuses on the investigation of antecedents of PERs, and chapter 6 is dedicated to examining their consequences.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **DEVELOPING AND EVALUATING A PERCEIVED EXPLOITATIVE EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIP SCALE**

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter builds upon what has gone before by focusing on the development, validation and testing of a suitable scale to measure PERs. As the first empirical results chapter, the goal is to produce a measure that will be subsequently used in investigating the antecedents (chapter 5) and outcomes (chapter 6) of PERs. Using four different samples, I have followed the guidelines for scale construction and evaluation as outlined by Hinkin (1995; 1998; 2005).

Several questions have guided the process: (a) what types of behaviours by organisations elicit PERs? (b) do these behaviours capture only PERs, or do they also tap into other constructs? (c) what is the factor structure of the PERs scale? Is the PERs scale reliable? (d) does the PERs scale demonstrate convergent and discriminant validity? (e) does the PERs scale demonstrate criterion-related validity?, and (f) does the scale demonstrate stability across independent studies?

Table 4.1 provides an overview of the scale development and evaluation process and outlines the goal or goals of each of the four samples. This process follows recommendations by Hinkin (2005) who states that these steps are mandatory for establishing acceptable reliability and validity of a new scale.

*Table 4.1. Overview of the Samples Used in the Scale Development & Evaluation Process*

Stage	Step	Sample			
		Sample 1 (Working Professionals)	Sample 2 (Students)	Sample 3 (MTurk)	Sample 4 (Construction Workers)
Scale Development	1. Item Generation	x			
	2. Content Validity Assessment		x		
Scale Evaluation	3. Preliminary Factor Analysis			x	
	4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis				x
	5. Reliability Assessment			x	x
	6. Convergent & Discriminant Validity			x	
	7. Criterion-Related Validity			x	x
	8. Replication				x

As shown in Table 4.1, formulating a new scale takes place in two stages. The first stage includes item generation and content validity assessment. These are shortly described below (and detailed more fully in section 4.2).

**Step 1: Item generation:** This step corresponds with the first question pertaining to the types of behaviours that are characteristic of PERs, as it attempts to describe a large possible range of behaviours that organisations exhibit and that can be construed as

exploitation by employees. Item generation was carried out using Sample 1 data - a snowball sample of working professionals.

**Step 2: Content validity assessment:** Corresponding to the second question, this step often entails elimination of inconsistent items, which might capture phenomena other than PERs. The student sample (sample 2) was utilised for this purpose.

At this point it is possible to construct a tentative scale. To further evaluate its psychometric properties, I move in the second stage to test the scale via several analyses and procedures, and these will be briefly outlined here (details are provided in section 4.3).

**Step 3: Preliminary factor analysis:** In addressing the third question, the factor structure of the new scale undergoes a preliminary investigation in order to evaluate whether the construct is uni- or multi-dimensional. The MTurk sample used for this purpose was also utilised to confirm the existence of PERs among a wide range of occupations and organisations in order to examine its relevance to organisations.

**Step 4: Confirmatory factor analysis:** Hinkin (1998) recommends that different samples be used for the preliminary and confirmatory analyses. Therefore, for the CFA, a sample comprised mostly of construction workers was used here. This sample was also utilised to compare the factor loadings of PERs and POS as a preliminary step in assessing the convergent and discriminant validity of PERs.

**Step 5: Reliability assessment:** In relation to the fourth question, the internal consistency of the measure needs to be assessed and reported in every sample which uses the scale.

For this purpose, the MTurk and construction workers' samples are used (in addition to the doctors' sample reported in chapters 5 and 6).

**Step 6: Convergent and discriminant validity assessment:** In answer to the fifth question, the PERs scale is evaluated in comparison to other existing scales in the EOR literature in order to show that it correlates, but does not overlap, with them. This analysis was performed on the same MTurk Sample data used for the preliminary factor analysis.

**Step 7: Criterion-Related Validity:** To answer question 6, the PERs scale was used to test the relationship between PERs and outcome variables that were chosen based on existing theory, using both the MTurk and construction workers samples. Demonstrating the nomological network of a new construct contributes to establishing criterion-related validity (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Hinkin, 1998).

**Step 8: Replication:** To demonstrate the stability of the new measure (question 7) findings should be replicated across independent samples. Replication occurs across chapters 4-6, such that some of the findings of chapter 4 are replicated in the subsequent two chapters. For example, the CFA conducted in this chapter is replicated in chapter 5.

## 4.2 Development of the PERs Scale

Given the absence of a measure of PERs, the first step was naturally to develop such a measure. I followed procedures recommended by Hinkin (1995; 1998; 2005), and began with the scale development stage, which includes the item generation and content validity assessment.

### 4.2.1 Item Generation

In order to investigate the first question presented in the introduction to this chapter, the item-generation approach undertaken involved mixed methods: that is to say, some of the items were generated deductively, based on the definition of PERs, whereas others were generated inductively, using a qualitative ‘bottom-up’ tactic. The approach of combining deductively and inductively-generated items has been used in the past (e.g. Gibney et al., 2009) and endorsed by Hinkin (1995; 1998), who maintains that such a combination is suitable when a theoretically grounded conceptual definition exists, but when there is limited *working knowledge* of the subject (e.g. Worthington & Whittaker, 2006; Gibney et al., 2009). This combined method is appropriate in the case of PERs, because while the construct has concrete theoretical underpinnings, it has not yet been empirically examined.

The deductive items were generated based on the proposed conceptual definition of PERs as an employee’s perception that they have been purposefully and repeatedly taken advantage of by the organisation to the benefit of the organisation itself, with the anticipation of continued harm in the future. Therefore it was important that the items were worded in such a way that they pertain to at least one of the main characteristics of

PERs according to the its definition, which is: a *perception* of an *intent* to take advantage of others to the *benefit of the organisation*, a *repetition* of harm-doing, and an expectation of *future harm*.

For instance, the wording of the sample item: “As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me” denotes repetitiveness and intentionality, as well as anticipation of future harm. This approach generated items which could be labelled as general exploitation items, as they broadly captured a sense of exploitation, rather than describing specific behaviours of organisations that are manifestations of PERs. These items are shown in Table 4.2 below.

*Table 4.2. PERs Items Generated by Deductive Methods*

<b>General exploitation</b>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.</li> <li>2. My organisation will never stop using me.</li> <li>3. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.</li> <li>4. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.</li> <li>5. I am a modern day slave.</li> <li>6. My organisation mistreats me, because it knows I cannot exercise my rights.</li> <li>7. My organisation mistreats me because I am dependent on it.</li> </ol>

Generating items inductively serves to complement and extend the deductive approach, and are usually generated through a qualitative process, which relies on respondents’ experiences. Typically, respondents are asked what they think about a topic and what their experiences are surrounding this topic (Hinkin, 1995). Data was thus collected via qualitative questionnaires from a sample of working professionals.

### Participants and procedure

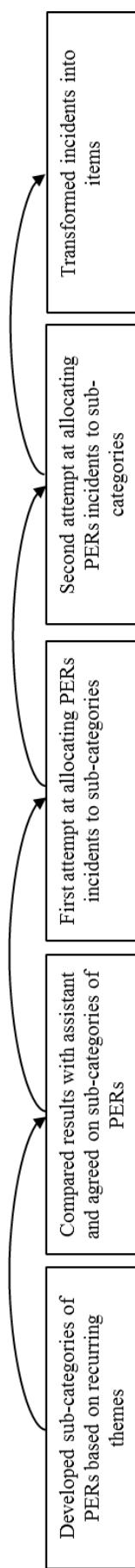
An open-ended questionnaire was administered electronically to 10 participants from three countries employed in different professions (e.g. lawyer, banker). This sample size might seem relatively small, but given the generative purpose of the interview, “the validity, meaningfulness, and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information-richness of the cases selected [...] than with sample size” (Patton, 2002: 185). Indeed, 124 incidents were gathered, which is a substantial amount. As Kemppainen (2000) argues, the number of incidents that are collected is the focus, rather than the number of subjects.

Respondents answered two open-ended questions: (1) “In your opinion, what constitutes an exploitative relationship between the organisation and its employees?”, and (2) “Give an example or examples of situations in which you think your organisation exploited you or your colleagues?”. These questions were chosen in order to understand what some working employees might consider exploitation to be and whether PERs are actually experienced in the workplace. These participants were recruited using a ‘snowball’ technique whereby two respondents were directly approached and asked to email the questionnaire to colleagues and friends who have working experience (the email text is shown in Appendix 1). Of the respondents, 60% were male and the mean age of participants was 40 ( $SD = 7.64$ ). Participants had been employed in their jobs for an average of 8.25 years ( $SD = 5.287$ ).

### Analytic strategy

I performed a content analysis on the 124 incidents of exploitation provided by these respondents, following procedures recommended by Hinkin (1995). This process was iterative, and, as shown in Figure 4.1, involved categorising all of the incidents into sub-categories based on key words or themes, and eliminating overlapping examples of exploitation. The categorisation of each incident was based on the type of benefit that the organisation might get from behaving in this way, which provided a useful framework for parsimony, as categorisation based on type of behaviour yielded multiple categories. Independently, an assistant and I developed and entitled sub-categories of PERs and categorised all the incidents into the categories. We then compared our results and agreed on the sub-categories, their titles, and after two attempts also on the allocation of incidents to appropriate sub-category, using the Cohen's Kappa measure for inter-rater agreement.

Figure 4.1. The PERS Item Generation Process Using the 'Snowball' Data Gathering Technique



## Results

Figure 4.2 describes the results of the sub-category development process. Initially the assistant developed 8 categories of PERs entitled: (a) general, (b) financial, (c) I give more than I get, (d) no acknowledgement for work, (e) credit-taking, (f) placing blame on employee, (g) employee health, and (h) making employee feel insignificant/small. I, conversely, developed 6 categories entitled: (a) general exploitation, (b) monetary and other resources, (c) organisation takes credit/ doesn't give recognition, (d) scapegoating, (e) emotional and physical well-being, and (f) sense of worthlessness. Despite these differences, after discussing the sub-categories and revisiting certain PERs incidents that were in question, we reached an agreement. The final category titles thus became: (a) General, (b) Resources, (c) Credit-Taking, (d) Scapegoating, (e) Well-Being, and (f) Feeling Insignificant.

*Figure 4.2. Sub-Categories Developed by Researcher and Assistant*

Assistant	Researcher
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General</li> <li>• Financial</li> <li>• I give more than I get</li> <li>• No acknowledgement for work</li> <li>• Taking credit</li> <li>• Placing blame on employee</li> <li>• Employee health</li> <li>• Making employee feel insignificant/small</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General exploitation</li> <li>• Monetary and other resources</li> <li>• Organisation takes credit/ doesn't give recognition</li> <li>• Scapegoating</li> <li>• Emotional and physical well-being</li> <li>• Sense of worthlessness</li> </ul>
	
<b>Resulting Sub-Category</b>	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• General Exploitation</li> <li>• Resources</li> <li>• Credit-Taking</li> <li>• Scapegoating</li> <li>• Well-Being</li> <li>• Feeling Insignificant</li> </ul>	

Respondents' descriptions of a general sense of being taken advantage of, or used, were categorised as General Exploitation. This category reflected descriptions that refer to an overall sense of exploitation, and that do not specify the utility to the organisation. It should be noted that all of the deductively generated items fell into this category.

When respondents described a perceived discrepancy between their job demands and the resources that he or she gets, we categorised this as Resources. This category includes the assistant's 'financial', and 'I give more than I get' categories and my category of 'monetary and other resources'. The Resources category draws on the Job Demands-Resource Model (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer & Schaufeli, 2003; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner & Schaufeli, 2001), according to which the personal cost (that is to say the activities which require physical or mental effort from the employee), are offset by resources from the organisation, which replenish employees in both tangible and intangible respects (Bakker, Demerouti & Euwema, 2005). The category of Resources, like the Demands-Resource Model, includes aspects of what employees might get in return for their efforts, ranging from financial resources to opportunities for personal development.

We classified instances in which the organisation took credit for the work of individual employees without acknowledging or rewarding them for their achievement as Credit-Taking. This was formed from the two sub-categories devised by my assistant (i.e. 'no acknowledgement for work' and 'taking credit') and my own sub-category 'organisation takes credit/ doesn't give recognition'. The items in this category relate in some way to the employees' feelings of ownership over their work, or lack thereof. Researchers are increasingly recognising the importance of such ownership, especially in light of research pointing to the positive links between psychological ownership and desired organisational outcomes, such as organisational citizenship behaviours (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Instances, therefore, in which organisations breached employees' sense

of ownership over their work, for example by not acknowledging or recognising employees for their work, were all categorised under the heading of Credit-Taking.

Scapegoating included occasions in which the organisation blamed the employee for its own mistakes in order to shuffle off responsibility. This category was a combination of the assistant's 'placing blame on employee' and my 'scapegoating' sub-categories. Scapegoating involves assignment of blame on others in order to avoid negative consequences. In certain instances organisations are motivated to use employees as scapegoats not only to avoid penalties for wrong-doing, but also because assignment of blame is associated with consequences like docking of pay (Crant & Bateman, 1993). Therefore, those instances which involved the organisation placing blame on employees in order to avoid paying deserved or expected compensation, or to preserve its own reputation and respect at the expense of employees, were categorised as Scapegoating.

Instances in which the organisation's concerns about employee productivity were at the expense of considerations for employees' health were categorised as Well-Being. This category subsumed the assistant's 'employee health' and my 'emotional and physical well-being' sub-category. Research shows that well-being encompasses both physical and psychological aspects (e.g. Hellgren, Sverke, & Isaksson, 1999), and therefore instances that reveal an organisation's lack of care for either the physical or emotional well-being of their employees were included. The utility to the organisation in this case stems from the expected increased productivity of employees due to the effort and time that they invest in their job.

Under the category of Feeling Insignificant we included respondents' claims about being made to feel insignificant or worthless as an individual by the organisation. This category drew together the assistant's 'making employee feel insignificant/small' and my 'sense of worthlessness' sub-categories. The literature on equality, diversity and inclusion

in the workplace describes the experience of making employees feel insignificant or dehumanising them as either a perceived or real attempt to disempower them (e.g. April & April, 2009). Organisations might wish to disempower employees for fear of ‘loose cannons’, conflict, and the space that empowerment theoretically leaves for mistakes and imperfections (Quinn & Spreitzer, 1997). Accordingly, any instance which captured an organisation’s attempt to make employees feel as if they were not individuals, but company property, to question their self-worth or ability, and to disempower them, was labelled Feeling Insignificant. A summary of the sub-categories of PERs, their definitions and examples provided by respondents is shown in Table 4.3.

*Table 4.3. Sub-Categories of PERs: Definitions and Examples*

<b>Category</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Example Provided by Respondents</b>
General Exploitation	Employees’ general perception of being taken advantage of by the organisation.	“...to take advantage of their workers as much as they can”. – R2
Resources	Employees’ perceptions of discrepancy between the effort invested and the tangible or intangible outcome to the employee.	“They let me do the work of three people combined because they don’t want to hire more people and have to pay them”. – R4.
Credit-Taking	Employees’ perceptions of insignificant or absence of organisational reward or credit for work/achievements.	“It would be nice to be acknowledged for my successes, but my company takes all the credit. If they admit it was me they know they would have to give me a bonus or promote me and that’s costly”. – R10.
Scapegoating	Employees’ perceptions of the organisation shedding responsibility by blaming employees.	“My boss and my firm blamed me for losing the case, but it wasn’t my fault- I was only a junior lawyer!”. – R7
Well-Being	Employees’ perceptions of the organisation’s prioritisation of productivity and/or results over the emotional or physical well-being of its employees.	“...I was sick. I was required to come to work anyway. It was an important day so they didn’t really care about me”. – R10
Feeling Insignificant	Employees’ perceptions of the organisation making them feel insignificant as an individual.	“I was told there are thousands just like me out there lining up for my job”. – R8

Inter-rater reliability was measured using Cohen's Kappa ( $k$ ; Cohen, 1960). Kappa is one of the most commonly used measures and it is particularly suitable in this case, as it is used when there are two raters. The regular Kappa was used, as a weighted Kappa assumes that the categories are ordered, which they are not here. Kappa was calculated using Prism 6 GraphPad software (GraphPad, 2014) according to the following formula:

$$\kappa = \frac{p_a - p_e}{1 - p_e}$$

Whereby  $p_a$  = the proportion of observations in agreement and  $p_e$  = the proportion in agreement due to chance. Values range from -1 to 1 with higher values indicating higher agreement. This attempt resulted in  $k = .75$ . Tables 4.4 and 4.5 (presented in Appendices 2 and 3) show the matrices used to calculate the Kappa and the resulting statistics for these attempts are provided in Table 4.6 (Appendix 4). The result of the first attempt can be interpreted as good agreement ( $k = 0.75$ ), however, through further discussions this result was improved upon ( $k = 0.91$ ).

Next, the incidents of exploitation were converted into items. As suggested by Hinkin (2005), in this process, several issues were considered: (a) item wording, (b) number of items, and (c) item scaling. First, in keeping with Hinkin's (1998) recommendation, item wording was carefully considered, such that the items were developed in an attempt to keep them clear, intelligible and as succinct as possible, avoiding "double-barrelled" statements, which tackled more than one issue. Additionally, while there has been some controversy surrounding the issue of reverse coded items, whereby proponents of reverse-scoring argue that it reduces response set bias (e.g., Price & Mueller, 1986), others maintain that reverse-scoring has a detrimental effect on a measure's psychometric properties (Harrison & McLaughlin, 1991; Hinkin, 1998) and that

it reduces the validity of the responses (Schriesheim & Hill, 1981), thereby posing a threat to construct validity (Castro et al., 2014) and introducing systematic error (Jackson, Wall, Martin & Davids, 1993). Bearing this scholarship in mind and following recent scale development practices (e.g. Gibney et al., 2009), I avoided the use of reverse-scored items.

The number of items was also taken into consideration. The number of items generated – 39 generated from the inductive and deductive approaches combined – was capacious at this stage. Despite the risk of response biases due to boredom associated with long questionnaires (Schmitt & Stults, 1985), it was anticipated that many items would be dropped throughout the various stages of the scale development, as is often the case (Hinkin, 1998). Therefore, 39 items were generated in order to allow for further expected item reduction in later stages. Table 4.7 presents the inductive items according to sub-category (the 7 deductive items were shown in Table 4.2).

The item scaling was another issue to consider. Hinkin (2005) recommends using five or seven Likert-point scales. One compelling reason for this practice is that uneven point scales allow the respondent a chance to ‘opt out’ by selecting a neutral midpoint. Furthermore, response scales with response options greater than 7 are inefficient because coefficient alpha reliabilities level off with higher point scales. When comparing a 7-point scale to a 5-point scale, the former has the advantage of offering more response variability than the latter. Therefore, and consistent with other comparable constructs in the OB literature such as POS or POO (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Gibney et al., 2009), a 7-point scale was chosen.

In sum, the 32 deductive items provide insight into what employees consider key features of exploitative behaviours of organisations. These items complement the inductive items, and together make up the 39 PERs items.

Table 4.7. PERS Items Generated by Inductive Methods, by Sub-Category

Category	Item
<b>Resources</b>	1. My organisation uses any excuse to under-compensate me. 2. My organisation uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation. 3. My organisation uses my fear of losing my job to get me to work more. 4. My organisation uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately. 5. My organisation intentionally insufficiently compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job. 6. The burden of cuts is not shared fairly in my organisation. 7. My organisation overpays managers on the expense of other employees. 8. I have too much work because my organisation doesn't want to spend money to help me. 9. My organisation expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay. 10. My organisation expects me to be 'on call' at the expense of my own time. 11. My organisation asks me to work more than other employees. 12. My organisation does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience. 13. My organisation benefits from my work without providing me with any future opportunities for development/ promotion. 14. My organisation forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organisation. 15. My organisation uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them. 16. My organisation repeatedly takes credit for my ideas. 17. My organisation repeatedly takes credit for my achievements without acknowledging me for them. 18. My organisation intentionally does not give me recognition for my work. 19. My organisation does not back me up when I make a mistake. 20. My organisation makes me bear responsibility for its mistakes. 21. My organisation blames me for its mistakes. 22. My organisation expects me to work hard even if it comes on account of my well-being. 23. My organisation cares more about my work than my well-being. 
<b>Credit-Taking</b>	24. My organisation doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work. 25. My organisation does not allow me to work less even during difficulties. 26. My organisation frowns upon my absence from work even for sick leaves or emergencies. 27. My organisation is too greedy to provide me with good working conditions. 28. My organisation has little incentive to make the workplace safe because it knows I can't leave. 29. My organisation dehumanises me. 30. My organisation makes me feel like I'm just a 'cog in the machine'. 
<b>Wellbeing</b>	31. My organisation tries to make me feel like I am a 'nobody'. 32. Whenever I complain, my organisation reminds me that there are many people out there willing to take my job. 
<b>Scapegoating</b>	
<b>Feeling</b>	
<b>Insignificant</b>	

After generating the item list, a content validity assessment is required (e.g. Hinkin, 1998). Thus, the next section describes the study designed to assess the content validity of PERs scale and its results, which will culminate in a refined scale.

#### 4.2.2 *Content Validity Assessment*

A content validity assessment is critical to establish construct validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Dunn, Seaker & Waller, 1994). This test allows for the refinement of a scale by measuring the extent to which the scale items actually reflect the construct under investigation and by eliminating conceptually inconsistent items (Hinkin, 1998). In other words, assessing the content validity means assessing the representativeness or sampling adequacy of the scale. Accordingly, after having obtained a list of behaviours of organisations which employees might consider exploitative, I needed to ensure that there was agreement that the set of items adequately sampled behaviours from the exploitative EOR domain and not from a different domain by performing a content validity assessment.

A recommended method to assess content validity is the use of an item-sort task (Hinkin, 1998; Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). Therefore, to address the second question posed in the introduction, an item-sort task was conducted on sample 2 (undergraduate and graduate students).

#### Participants and procedure

As mentioned in chapter 3, two independent panels, one expert panel of 5 graduate students studying Employment Relations and Organisational Behaviour in a large U.K. university, and 14 undergraduate and graduate students in a variety of fields from a large U.S. university, were recruited. A sample size of 19 may seem small; however, as

Anderson & Gerbing (1991) point out, small sample sizes are particularly recommended for the item-sort task because they produce reliable agreement coefficients and high correlations across different samples. Similar sample sizes have indeed been used for this purpose in past research (e.g. Ferris et al., 2008).

Out of the 19, 58% (or 11 respondents) were female, and the mean age was 23.9 ( $SD = 2.88$ ). I approached the students in the U.K. personally, and the other participants were approached by their professor, who was willing to distribute the questionnaire in class on my behalf.

The item-sort task involves providing respondents with construct definitions, and asking them to link items to what they believe is their corresponding definitions (a detailed description of this process is provided in Hinkin, 1998). In this case, respondents were provided with my definition of PERs alongside definitions of additional constructs that bear some resemblance to PERs on a purely conceptual or indeed on the particular item level. The purpose of presenting respondents with additional constructs was to establish construct validity, to confirm that respondents could differentiate between them, and to confirm that the items captured PERs and not another construct (the item-sort task is presented in Appendix 5).

The chosen constructs were perceived organisational support, distributive injustice, psychological contract breach and perceived organisational obstruction, and respondents were asked to indicate which construct each item best captured. This validation procedure follows that described by Anderson and Gerbing (1991).

#### Exclusion criteria

As the purpose of this study was to establish content validity, only constructs that shared conceptual similarities with PERs, and might therefore overlap with them, were included.

Constructs that were conceptually different were excluded. These differences were based on: (a) content overlap potential, or (b) organisational-level versus individual-level focus.

First, constructs that do not overlap with PERs in terms of content were excluded from this analysis because they are conceptually, and as a result, operationally, different. Content can refer to the definition of the construct, to the behaviours that it encapsulates and to the items that comprise the measures. On this basis procedural justice, interpersonal, informational and overall organisational justice, which are not distributive-based phenomena like PERs, were excluded. Procedural justice (that is to say employees' perceptions of fairness regarding the procedures that were used to determine their outcomes; Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Leventhal, 1980), interpersonal justice (employees' sense of respectful and proper treatment from authoritative figures; Bies & Moag, 1986), and informational justice (employees' perceived fairness of the organisation and its representatives in conveying truthful and justified information; Bies & Moag, 1986) centre on the interactions between employees and organisational authorities, and were less relevant to the outcomes or benefits that employees receive. The overall considerations of justice/injustice are too broad, and therefore overall justice was also excluded.

A second criterion for exclusion of constructs was the level on which analysis is conducted. PERs pertain to employees' perceptions of treatment from the organisation. This relationship between an employee and the organisation is conceptually different from the relationship of the employee with other actors in the organisation. Consequently, constructs that do not capture an employee's perception of treatment from the organisation itself, such as constructs which capture the relationship between the employee and the supervisor (e.g. abusive supervision and workplace undermining) were excluded. Other interpersonal-level constructs were also excluded. For example, organisational politics refer to behaviours of individuals within the organisation, and involves the employment of

tactics (e.g. impression management) (Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004); such a focus, useful though it is, does not address the behaviours of the organisation itself. Although organisations are made up of individuals, some researchers hold the view that employees develop a global perception about treatment they receive from the organisation (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and that they personify the organisation (Levinson, 1965). Dehumanisation (Haslam, 2006) was excluded under the same premise in that it captures the interpersonal level, as evidenced by its measure (sample item being “The other person doesn’t see me as an individual”). Finally, the ethical climate literature was also excluded as it refers to “shared perceptions of what is ethically correct behaviour” (Peterson, 2002: 50), whereas PERs relate to perceptions of individual employees.

### Measures included

Several established constructs in the ER literature capture the organisational level and might overlap with PERs in terms of content. These constructs are: (a) perceived organisational support, (b) psychological contract breach, (c) distributive injustice, and (d) perceived organisational obstruction.

*Perceived organisational support.* POS is defined as an employee’s “global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being” (Eisenberger et al. 1986: 501). POS was chosen because of the potential overlap between low levels of support and PERs. POS was measured using Eisenberger et al.’s (1997) 8-item short version of a previous scale (Eisenberger et al., 1986), which was developed by selecting the 8 items with the highest loading (in their study  $\alpha = .90$ , and this high reliability was replicated in other studies; e.g. Baranik, Roling & Eby, 2010). A sample item is “My organization shows little concern for me” (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Responses were recorded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

*Distributive injustice.* DI captures employees' beliefs that their input-outcome ratio is unfair (Colquitt, 2001). Like PERs, DI is a distributive phenomenon that touches upon a gap between what employees give and what they get. DI was measured with a widely used (e.g. Colquitt, 2001) 4-item scale by Skarlicki, Folger and Tesluk's (1999), which is based on Leventhal's (1976) four questions (e.g. "My outcome is not justified given my performance"). Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

*Psychological contract breach.* PC breach assesses employees' perceptions that their psychological contracts have been breached by their organisations. Similarly to PERs, PC breach also captures an employee's perception of negative outcome favourability. PC breach was measured using a 5-item global measure (Robinson & Morrison, 2000); this item "I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions" will serve as an example. Responses were recorded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

*Perceived organisational obstruction.* POO is defined as an employee's "belief that the organization obstructs, hinders or interferes with the accomplishment of his or her goals and is a detriment to his or her well-being" (Gibney et al., 2009: 667). Like PERs, POO also captures employees' perceptions of harm-doing by the organisation. POO was measured using a 5-item scale developed by Gibney et al., (2009) (e.g. "My goal attainment is thwarted by my organization"). This scale was found to be reliable ( $\alpha = .95$

and .86 in different samples), and is measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

### Analytic strategy

As mentioned in chapter 3, two indices proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1991) were used as a guide to retain items. The proportion of substantive agreement (PSA), which Anderson and Gerbing (1991) define as “the proportion of respondents who assign an item to its intended construct” (p. 734), is calculated as the number of respondents that assigned an item to the posited construct, divided by the total number of respondents (with values ranging from 0 to 1, and higher values indicating greater substantive validity). The recommended minimum is 75% (Hinkin, 1995). However, while the PSA reflects the extent to which an item reflects its intended construct, it does not reveal whether an item might be unintentionally tapping into another construct.

Therefore a second index is used, the substantive validity coefficient (CSV), defined as “the extent to which respondents assign an item to its posited construct more than to any other construct” (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991: 734). This index is calculated as the difference between the number of respondents who assigned an item to its intended construct and the highest number of assignments of the item to any other construct, divided by the total number of respondents (with values ranging from -1 to 1, and larger values indicating greater substantive validity). The CSV can be tested for statistical significance in order to determine whether random chance alone accounted for the number of respondents who correctly assigned items to the intended construct. Anderson and Gerbing (1991) suggest the critical value of 0.5 be used to determine which items should be deleted. The test of statistical significance is then performed via a binomial test in which the null and alternative hypotheses are as follows:

$$H(0): P(a) \leq 0.5$$

$$H(1): P(a) \geq 0.5$$

Whereby  $P(a)$  equals the probability that a measure is assigned to its posited construct. The critical value for CSV is determined by finding the critical number of assignments,  $m$ , such that the probability that assigning an item to its posited construct is bigger than or equal to  $m$ , is smaller than 0.05 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991).

### Results

The number of critical assignments,  $m$ , was found to be 14 (at 14 the probability of the number of correct assignments is smaller than 0.05). The formula for calculating the critical value for CSV is  $(2m/N) - 1 = (2 \times 14/19) - 1 = 0.47$ . Thus, any item with a CSV value larger than 0.47 is statistically significant. The PSA and CSV coefficients were used in a comparative manner, such that items with PSAs larger than 0.75 and CSVs larger than 0.47 were retained. The resulting scale consisted of 14 items, which are presented in Table 4.8, all of which were assigned to the PERs construct beyond chance levels.

*Table 4.8. PERs Items Retained with their Respective PSA and CSV Values*

PERs Item	PSA	CSV
1. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.	.84	.74
2. My organisation will never stop using me.	.95	.89
3. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.	.10	.10
4. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	.89	.79
5. My organisation forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organisation.	.79	.68
6. I am a modern day slave.	.89	.79
7. My organisation mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	.84	.74
8. My organisation uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	.79	.58
9. My organisation uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	.95	.89
10. My organisation intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	.95	.89
11. My organisation expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	.79	.58
12. My organisation does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	.84	.79
13. My organisation uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	.84	.79
14. My organisation doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	.84	.74

In summary, the scale refinement process culminated in 14 item scale. Yet, further analysis must be undertaken in order to determine whether these sub-categories actually represent different factors of PERs. The next section explores the factor structure of PERs, as well as PERs' reliability, validity and stability.

### 4.3 Testing the Measure

As shown in Table 4.1 at the outset of this chapter, the scale evaluation stage includes a preliminary and confirmatory factor analysis, as well as an examination of whether the particular set of items demonstrate reliability and validity (Hinkin, 1995; 1998; 2005). A replication study is also recommended as results may be sample specific, and therefore replication can increase the ability to generalise from the findings (Stone, 1978).

Two independent samples were used for these purposes: the MTurk sample, and the construction workers' sample. Hence, in order to address questions 3 and 4 presented in the beginning of this chapter, I commence with the first step of the scale evaluation – a preliminary factor analysis and an initial test of internal consistency.

#### 4.3.1 *Preliminary Factor Analysis and Initial Internal Consistency Assessment*

At this stage, it is critical to conduct a preliminary factor analysis for the purpose of assessing the factor structure and further refining the scale if necessary (Hinkin, 1998; Ferris et al., 2008). After the factor structure is established, a reliability assessment, which measures the extent to which a set of items measure a single construct, is essential in order to support the construct validity (Hinkin, 1998; Kerlinger, 1986).

The distinctiveness of a preliminary factor analysis, as an exploratory tool, is that it allows the data dictate the number of factors of a construct, and does not impose the desired structure. Therefore, it is used when there are no *a priori* assumptions or hypotheses about the factor structure of a construct (Finch & West, 1997).

In the case of PERs, although four categories of PERs emerged in the content analysis stage, no assumptions were made regarding its uni- or multi-dimensionality. A preliminary factor analysis was thus carried out using the sample gathered through Amazon MTurk (the appropriateness of this sample was discussed in chapter 3).

### Participants

186 participants (56% male) on MTurk filled out an online survey. The mean age was 33.50 (SD = 9.30). Job Tenure was distributed as follows: 5.4% of the respondents had worked in their organisation under 6 months, 14% between 6 months and a year, 51.1% between 1 to 5 years, and 29.6% above 5 years. Education level was distributed as follows: 24.2% of the respondents had completed high school, 21% had finished some form of trade or vocational training, 39.8% completed an undergraduate degree, and 15.1% completed a Master's degree. Professions, industries and seniority of the participants were, once again, highly diverse. The sample included an aircraft mechanic, a key-holder and a sales clerk among others. Although ethnicities were diverse, 92% of the respondents were living in the U.S. and the remainder of the sample were living in India, Germany, Belgium, Lithuania, Romania, Syria, Turkey, and the UAE.

### Procedure

Data was gathered via an online post using the MTurk platform: this post is known as a HIT (Human Intelligence Tasks). “Workers” can then browse among the different posts and select the ones they are interested in or suitable for, based on the demands of the requester. For example, the requirement of this study was for “workers” to be at least 18 years of age and that they were currently employed. Before entering the survey, respondents were able to see a summary of the research goals, as well as the payment

offered for the task. Based on the MTurk guideline for an hourly rate, respondents were offered \$2.45 per survey, which was expected to take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Prior to posting the call for filling out the surveys, a HIT was posted, calling for respondents to participate in a pilot study (details of the pilot study and its results are presented in Appendix 6). Next, respondents were asked to complete a survey for academic purposes about their work experiences (the call for participants is shown in Appendix 7). This was the revised survey, following the results of the pilot study, which was made available to a larger sample on the MTurk interface (the survey is provided in Appendix 8). Respondents were also advised that the survey would take approximately 20 minutes to complete and would be available online for 1 week. After 7 days, 186 responses were recorded and the survey was deactivated.

### Measures included

As the MTurk sample was also used for the purpose of establishing convergent and discriminant validity as well as criterion-related validity, numerous variables were included. However, these variables will be presented in the section which focuses on assessment of convergent and discriminant validity. At this point, only the PERs variable is of relevance for the purpose of a preliminary factor analysis, and it was measured using the 14-item scale developed and presented in this chapter.

### Analytic strategy

The main purpose of this study was to find initial evidence for the PERs factor structure via preliminary factor analysis. I performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA), as

rationalised in chapter 3, using SPSS version 22.0- an extensively used technique and program.

## Results

The EFA supported a unitary factor structure based on two findings: (a) as shown in Table 4.9 all of the items loaded onto one component (all loadings  $\geq 0.63$ ), and (b) only one component was extracted, which accounted for 70% of the variance.

The Cronbach alpha of .96 points to excellent reliability of the PERs scale. Although some researchers maintain that a very high reliability might point to redundancy (Briggs & Cheek, 1986), others believe that multiple indicators of a construct must be highly inter-correlated in order to measure the same construct; as Streiner (2003) maintains “one of the central tenets of classical test theory is that scales should have a high degree of internal consistency, as evidenced by Cronbach’s alpha” (p. 217). Additionally, this reliability is consistent with the high reliabilities of some of the other constructs in this study (these results are provided in sections 4.3.3 and 4.3.4).

Table 4.9. PERs Item Loadings Following an EFA on the MTurk Sample

Item	Factor Loading
1. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.	.865
2. My organisation will never stop using me	.844
3. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.	.816
4. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	.884
5. My organisation forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organisation.	.707
6. I am a modern day slave.	.735
7. My organisation mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	.839
8. My organisation uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	.782
9. My organisation uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	.842
10. My organisation intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	.856
11. My organisation expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	.630
12. My organisation does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	.749
13. My organisation uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	.742
14. My organisation doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	.865

Note.  $N = 186$ .

Having found preliminary evidence for the uni-dimensionality of PERs, I now expand the factor structure investigation by conducting a CFA. A CFA provides a more stringent interpretation of uni-dimensionality than does an EFA as it statistically tests the significance of the factor loadings as well as of the overall model.

#### 4.3.2 *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

To reiterate, a CFA provides the researcher with further evidence pertaining to the quality of the factor structure which was uncovered in the preliminary assessment. This is a required step for scale development and offers more precision than an EFA in evaluating the measurement model (Hinkin, 1995). Thus, although the EFA indicated that PERs are uni-dimensional, it was still pertinent to compare a single factor structure and different multiple factor structures. Uni-dimensionality would show that the items that represent these dimensions do not load onto separate factors.

A two-factor model was to be tested in order to refute the possibility that the general PERs items load onto different factors than the rest of the items, which capture more specific manifestations of PERs. A three and four factor model was also investigated in order to test whether the four categories of PERs that remained following the content validity assessment (to reiterate, the categories are: general exploitation, resources, credit-taking and well-being) are not actually different factors of PERs, but rather, that they are items sampled from the uni-dimensional PERs domain.

The results of the CFA are reached through quantitative means by which the structural model is confirmed. In line with best practices recommendations (e.g. Hinkin, 1998) a different sample was used for this purpose.

#### Participants

Respondents included 235 individuals working on a single construction site. The sample was predominantly comprised of construction workers (211 or 90%), and the remaining

respondents were either administrative staff or engineers. Only 14 (6%) of the respondents were female, and the mean age was 32.7 (SD = 12.78).

### Procedure

Prior to administering the questionnaire, it was piloted in order to make sure that it was comprehensible and relevant to the target sample. The pilot enabled me to refine my techniques in attracting respondents to fill out a questionnaire (details about this pilot study and its results are presented in Appendix 9). The corrections to the survey following the comments of the pilot led to the revised questionnaire. Thus equipped, I recruited respondents among the construction workers by hanging recruitment posters (shown in Appendix 10) in the canteen of the building site, where most of the employees gathered for breaks, a week prior to the data collection. The posters informed individuals about the survey in advance, the days and times of their administration and collection, and about the lottery with a chance to win a £200 cash prize- an incentive proposed by the pilot group.

The following week, I appeared in the canteen along with a research assistant at the days and times stated in the posters to hand out the questionnaires (presented in Appendix 11). Those who returned the questionnaires were given a number and were asked to keep that number for the lottery. They were informed that posters with the winning ticket number would be posted in the canteen the following week. My assistant's role was to collect the completed questionnaires and hand out lottery numbers, while I was conversing with employees and handing out questionnaires. Data collection was terminated at the end of the week (after five working days), as advised on posters, by which point 248 surveys were collected, 13 of which were not fully completed, making up a final sample of 235 employees.

I then randomly chose the winning number by blindly choosing a ticket from a bag. Next, a second set of posters was hung in the canteen, announcing the winning number, and where the winner should go on site to collect the cash prize (the winning announcement poster is presented in Appendix 12).

### Measures included

This survey included numerous variables, as data from this sample was also used for the purpose of establishing criterion-related validity. However, in this analysis, two variables are of relevance: (a) PERs (measured by the 14 items presented in this chapter), and (b) POS (using the same measure as in study 2). PERs were included as the main purpose of this study is for the construct to be assessed in terms of the construct's factor structure and reliability. POS was also included as a preliminary assessment of factor independence and discriminant validity. As Hinkin, Tracey and Enz (1997) recommend, in this stage "the new items should be administered with other established measures to later assess the distinction or overlap among the proposed and existing scales" (Hinkin et al., 1997: 105).

The remaining variables are described later on in this chapter.

### Measures excluded

The other OB-based constructs that were included in the earlier item-sort task step (PC breach, DI, POO) were not included here in order to minimise response biases caused by boredom or fatigue which are commonplace in long surveys (Schmitt & Stults, 1985). A more thorough comparison is presented in the next section, which assesses the convergent and discriminant validities of PERs in comparison to some of these other constructs.

### Analytic strategy

The CFA was performed on the commonly-used program AMOS version 21.0 (Arbuckle, 2012). The models compared were a 1, 2, 3 and 4 factor model to test for uni- versus bi- or multi-dimensionality. CFA procedures dictate a factor analysis to show item loadings in each model, as well as the comparison of measurement models using several commonly used fit indices (Schreiber et al., 2006; Hooper, Coughlan & Mullen, 2008). These indices include: (a) Chi-Square, (b) Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, (c) Comparative Fit Index, (d) Non-Normed Fit Index, and (e) Standard Root Mean Square Residual. A description of each index follows.

*Model Chi-Square.* The Model Chi-Square ( $\chi^2$ ) “assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariances matrices” (Hu & Bentler, 1999: 2). While the rule of thumb prescribes that the lower the Chi-Square the better, Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora and Barlow (2006) suggest assessing the index according to its ratio with the degrees of freedom, such that the  $\chi^2$  to d.f. ratio  $\leq 2$  or 3.

*Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.* The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA: Steiger, 1990) measures the average standardised residual per degree of freedom and thus describes how well the model would fit the population covariance matrix (Byrne, 1998). Values range between 0 (best fit) and 1 (poor fit), with the value of .08 or less considered favourable (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

*Comparative Fit Index.* The Comparative Fit Index (CFI: Bentler, 1990) compares the sample covariance matrix to the null model in order to assess the relative improvement in

fit from the null model to the hypothesised model. Values for the CFI range between 0 and 1 with values greater than .90 indicating good model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

*Non-Normed Fit Index.* The Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), also known as the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI: Tucker & Lewis, 1973), compares the chi-squared value of the hypothesized model and that of the null model. Values usually range between 0 to 1 with a result of .90 or greater indicating good fit (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

*Standard Root Mean Square Residual.* The Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) presents the overall difference between the observed correlations and the predicted ones. Values smaller than .10 are considered favourable for this index (Kline, 2011); some researchers are even more stringent and recommend that the cut-off be  $SRMR \leq .08$  (Schreiber et al., 2006).

A secondary purpose of the study was to conduct a preliminary investigation of the convergent and discriminant potential of PERs in comparison to POS before estimating the full model. To this end, a correlation analysis as well as a factor analysis was performed on SPSS. A negative moderate to high correlation between POS and PERs (but lower than .85, as previously mentioned) would indicate convergent validity of the constructs, and the PERs and POS items loading onto different factors would provide initial support for the discriminant validity of the two constructs (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Benet-Martinez & John, 2000).

## Results

Table 4.10 shows the factor loadings of the 14 items. It can clearly be seen that all the 14 items load onto a single factor (all loadings  $\geq .695$ ), further strengthening the case for the uni-dimensionality of PERs.

*Table 4.10. PERs Item loadings Using the Construction Workers' Sample*

Item	Factor Loading
1. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.	.793
2. My organisation will never stop using me	.695
3. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.	.849
4. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	.863
5. My organisation forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organisation.	.858
6. I am a modern day slave.	.825
7. My organisation mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	.877
8. My organisation uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	.844
9. My organisation uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	.901
10. My organisation intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	.885
11. My organisation expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	.698
12. My organisation does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	.748
13. My organisation uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	.831
14. My organisation doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	.844

*Note.*  $N = 235$ .

The results of the CFA are shown in Table 4.11. Upon examination of the results in the table it can be seen that the 1-factor model provides the best fit for the data: The  $\chi^2$  of the 1-factor model is the lowest (134.62 versus 401.22, 380.89, and 380.92), and more importantly, the ratio between the  $\chi^2$  and degrees of freedom ( $\chi^2/df = 2.07$ ) is the only acceptable one according to Hinkin (1998) as it is lower than 3, whereas this ratio for the other models is higher than that ( $\chi^2/df = 5.28$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 5.15$ , and  $\chi^2/df = 5.15$ ). Moving on to the CFI, while the result is acceptable for all the models, the CFI for the 1-factor model (CFI = .98) is significantly higher than the 2, 3 or 4-factor models (.90, .91, and .90 respectively). The TLI results are similar to the CFI, with the 1-factor model result being significantly better (.96) than the alternative models (.88, .89 and .89). Thus it emerges that the CFA confirms the unitary factor structure of PERs that was already found in the EFA conducted on the MTurk sample.

*Table 4.11. Comparison of Measurement Models in the Construction Workers' Sample*

Model	Factors	$\chi^2(df)$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR (NNFI)
1	1 factor	134.62(65) <sup>a</sup>	2.07	.07	.98	.96	.03
2	2 factors	401.22(76) <sup>a</sup>	5.28	.14	.90	.88	.06
3	3 factors	380.89(74) <sup>a</sup>	5.15	.13	.91	.89	.06
4	4 factors	380.92(74) <sup>a</sup>	5.15	.13	.90	.89	.06

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup> $N = 235$

<sup>b</sup> $p < .05$

Next, Table 4.12 presents descriptive statistics, the correlation between PERs and POS, and reliabilities for the two constructs (in boldface along the diagonal). This table shows how both POS and PERs demonstrated high reliability ( $\alpha = .86$  and  $.96$  respectively). The negative, strong and significant correlation found between the variables

( $r = -.460$ ,  $p < .01$ ) provides evidence for the convergent validity of PERs because the correlation is significantly different from zero (Hinkin, 1998; Campbell & Fiske, 1959). The fact that this correlation is not *very* strong might support the notion that these two constructs are discriminant and do not capture exactly the same phenomenon (the conventional cut-off criteria for suspecting overlap between constructs is .85).

*Table 4.12. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities for Selected Variables Measured in the Construction Sample*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4
1. Age	32.7	12.8	1.00			
2. Gender	1.06	0.24	.071	1.00		
3. POS	4.47	1.15	.011	-.004	<b>(.86)</b>	
4. PERs	3.20	1.42	.033*	.051	-.460**	<b>(.96)</b>

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ ,  $n = 235$ .

<sup>b</sup> *Gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female.*

Table 4.13 presents the factor loadings of POS and PERs. It is evident from this that the items of the two constructs clearly load onto two separate factors. The lack of overlap between the items and factors provides support for the distinctness of the POS and PERs measures.

Table 4.13. Factor Loadings of POS versus PERs Items Using Construction Sample Data

	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2
POS	1. My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	.505	-.352
	2. My organisation really cares about my well-being.	.732	-.366
	3. My organisation cares about my opinions.	.796	-.405
	4. My organisation strongly considers my goals and values.	.764	-.373
	5. My organisation shows very little concern for me. (R)	.519	-.133
	6. My organisation is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	.741	-.391
	7. Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem.	.667	-.453
	8. If given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me. (R)	.556	-.218
PERs	1. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.	.009	.808
	2. My organisation will never stop using me	.184	.669
	3. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.	.084	.850
	4. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	.107	.856
	5. My organisation forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organisation.	.187	.831
	6. I am a modern day slave.	.174	.807
	7. My organisation mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	.194	.857
	8. My organisation uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	.220	.813
	9. My organisation uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	.215	.872
	10. My organisation intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	.212	.854
	11. My organisation expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	.262	.655
	12. My organisation does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	.093	.738
	13. My organisation uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	.206	.805
	14. My organisation doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	.152	.828

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N = 235.

<sup>b</sup> POS = perceived organisational support, PERs = perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.

<sup>c</sup>(R) = reversed items.

Up to this point there is strongly compelling evidence to suggest that PERs are unidimensional. The results of this study also furnished preliminary support for the thesis that PERs and POS have convergent and discriminant validity. However, it is critical to establish this validity on a firmer empirical footing, by further analyses, and this I shall proceed to do next.

#### 4.3.3 *Convergent and Discriminant Validity*

Establishing convergent and discriminant validity is crucial for the overall construct validity (Lehman, 1988), and is therefore a necessary step in testing a new measure. While convergent validity measures the extent to which a measure of a construct relates to other measures of the same construct or to measures of similar constructs, discriminant validity measures the extent to which a measure departs from relevant measures (Hinkin, 1998). As no other known measure of workplace exploitation exists, convergent and discriminant validities must be assessed using scales of other constructs that measure negative behaviours of organisations towards their employees.

Although a preliminary investigation was performed in the previous section, further analyses are required for two main reasons. First, there are additional comparable constructs that have the potential to overlap with PERs: these must therefore be evaluated as well. As explained later in this chapter, these constructs are POS, PC breach and DI. Second, owing to the fact that factor analysis is an insufficient method for determining discriminant validity, further tests must be carried out to support the discriminant validity of PERs. In this assessment, procedures outlined by Ironson et al. (1989) were followed.

A secondary goal of this study is to find initial support for the view that employees have an ability to differentiate between treatment from their supervisors and treatment

from their organisations in relation to PERs. Although there is research to support the notion that employees make this differentiation (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2002; Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002), given the fact that PERs are a new concept, it is important to confirm that they are also distinguishable from negative treatment from the supervisor. Finding evidence to support this will also contribute to the discriminant validity of PERs.

For these purposes, the same MTurk sample used in the preliminary factor analysis was used to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of PERs. The participants and procedures were described earlier in the section describing the EFA, while the measures included are described below.

### Measures included

To clarify, four groups of variables were included in this part of the investigation: (a) PERs, (b) comparable variables (namely POS, PC breach and DI) that bear some conceptual similarity to PERs, and from which PERs are to be distinguished, (c) variables that pertain to supervisory treatment that are measured in order to show that individuals can accurately differentiate between PERs and supervisory treatment, specifically, perceived supervisor support and abusive supervision, (d) dependent variables, which are measured in order to help establish discriminant validity, including: anger and hostility, shame and guilt, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, and (e) control variables, which are held constant to test the relative impact of the independent variables. The chosen variables were: age, gender, job tenure and education. In a preliminary investigation of whether certain variables affect PERs, these commonly measured demographics were included.

A few words should be said at this point to provide a concise explanation for this choice of variables. First, I suspect that PERs potentially have the capacity to generate

emotional reactions of anger, hostility, shame and guilt, more so than the other comparable variables. This is because PERs entail an element of de-valuation, affronting one's self-esteem or self-perception (Vohs & Heatherton, 2001) by threatening one's ego (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). These particular emotions were chosen as they have been empirically linked with threats to one's self-perception (e.g. Baumeister, Smart & Boden, 1996; Gruenewald, Kemeny, Aziz, & Fahey, 2004). Second, I specifically chose the behavioural variables of organisational commitment and turnover intentions based on my conceptualisation of PERs as a distributive phenomenon. PERs capture employees' perceptions that they 'give more than they get'. This might lead individuals to be less committed and consequently leave their organisation in search of better prospects (e.g. Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). I also chose these particular variables as there is empirical evidence suggesting that negative behaviours of organisations, such as PC breach and (low) POS are linked to these outcomes (e.g. Dulac et al., 2008; Clinton & Guest, 2014; Allen et al., 2003; Perryer, Jordan, Firns, & Travaglione, 2010). The measures used to assess these variables are described below:

*PERs.* PERs were measured with the 14-item scale developed in this work.

*Comparable variables.* POS, PC breach and DI were assessed using the same measures described in the content validity assessment stage.

*Perceived supervisory support.* PSS was measured using Eisenberger et al.'s (2002) 4-item measure, which is based on the POS measure, a sample item being "my supervisor cares about my opinions". Results were recorded on a 7-point Likert agreement scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

*Abusive supervision.* Abusive supervision was measured using Tepper's (2000) abusive supervision measure. Respondents were asked to rate the frequency of the supervisor's behaviour on a 5-point response scale (1 = I cannot remember him/her ever using this behaviour with me; 2 = he/she very seldom uses this behaviour with me; 3 = he/she occasionally uses this behaviour with me; 4 = he/she uses this behaviour moderately often with me; 5 = he/she uses this behaviour very often with me). Examples of the behaviours listed include "ridicules me", and "doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort".

*Anger and hostility.* Anger and hostility were measured using 3 items adapted from Weiss, Suckow and Cropanzano (1999). Respondents were asked to state how they felt (e.g. angry, hostile) about an event(s) that had happened. Therefore this measure is flexible in that it allows the researcher to adjust the question appropriately according to the context (an example of a past adaptation of this measure is provided by Barclay, Skarlicki & Pugh, 2005). In the case of PERs, a sample item is "I feel angry about the way I am treated by my organisation". Responses are recorded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

*Shame and guilt.* Shame and guilt were measured using the State Shame and Guilt Scale (Marschall, Sanftner & Tangney, 1994). Respondents were asked how often in the last few months the organisation made them feel different emotions. A sample item for shame is "feel like I'm a bad person" and a sample item for guilt is "feel bad about something I have done". Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale ranging 1 = *never*, to 5 = *very often*. Slight adaptations were made to the original scale as it could not guarantee that shame and guilt were caused by PERs and not by other phenomena. I tackled this issue by

reformatting the questions to include reference to the employing organisation in order to frame and contextualise the question (e.g. "how often over the last few months has your organisation made you feel ..."). Additionally, the original response scale ranged from 1 = *never*, to 5 = *always*. 'Always' was changed to 'very often'.

*Turnover intentions.* Turnover intentions were measured using Landau and Hammer's (1986) 3-item measure. Responses were recorded on a 7-point scale, with responses ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. A sample item is "I am actively looking for a job outside my organisation". This measure has been extensively used in the past (e.g. Wayne et al., 1997).

*Organisational commitment.* Organisational commitment was measured using a 9-item version of the OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) which was proposed by Bozeman & Perrewé (2001) and removes withdrawal-related items, which confound the measure and overlap with the withdrawal dimension. This version has been used and proffered by Allen et al. (2003). Respondents were asked to rate their degree of agreement on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*), with items such as: "I feel very little loyalty to this organisation" (reversed).

#### Exclusion criteria

Regarding independent variables, POO was excluded in this study because it does not include the social exchange element inherent to the EOR literature. Therefore, while it was included in the content validity assessment stage, it was less relevant in the discriminant validity stage.

### Analytic strategy

As mentioned in chapter 3, convergent validity was estimated using correlations between the independent variables (Hinkin, 1998; Campbell & Fiske, 1959), such that moderate to high correlations between PERs and POS, PC breach and DI in the anticipated direction (positive correlation with the negative constructs of PC Breach and DI and negative correlation with the positive construct of POS), would indicate convergence.

With respect to the discriminant validity of PERs, to reiterate I followed the approach undertaken by Ironson et al. (1989) and assessed the discriminant validity of PERs by answering three questions: (a) do the independent variables predict the dependent variables similarly or are their patterns of correlations different?, (b) does the new scale predict certain dependent variables better than other scales?, and (c) does the new scale add incrementally to the other scales?

It should be clarified that three types of analyses were conducted in order to answer these questions: first an analysis of correlations of the independent variables with dependent variables, second, a factor analysis to demonstrate that the items of the comparable scales indeed load onto different factors, and third, a regression analysis to show differences in prediction patterns of the independent variables as well as incremental variability in outcomes.

Results of these analyses could be interpreted in the following way. First, if we can show higher correlations among PERs and certain dependent variables than among the other constructs (POS, PC breach and DI) and the same dependent variables, there will be initial support for the discriminant validity of PERs. Discriminant validity will be further supported by a regression analysis which will demonstrate the incremental value of PERs in actually predicting certain dependent variables. Last, a factor analysis, using the

principal axis factoring extraction method, which is suitable for searching for factors and not data reduction, can point to discriminant validity. There is one proviso here: the factor loadings must indeed be differentiated. A factor analysis showing such differential factor loadings between PERs items and items of supervisory-based constructs supports the notion that employees do not see treatment from the organisation and treatment from the supervisor as one and the same thing. Taken together, these modes of analysis will provide a convincing case for the discriminant validity of the construct of PERs.

In sum, the idea behind the approach used here for establishing discriminant validity is to show that comparable constructs not only load onto separate factors, but also have separate nomological networks (Ferris et al., 2008).

## Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations are shown in Table 4.14. This clearly illustrates that PERs are highly and positively correlated with PC Breach ( $r = .648, p <.01$ ), with DI ( $r = .784, p <.01$ ), and highly and negatively correlated with POS ( $r = -.766, p <.01$ ). These correlations provide support for the convergent validity of PERs: in other words, PERs are significantly and highly correlated with the constructs they are intended to be correlated with. While these correlations are high, they do not exceed  $r = .85$ , the recommended cut-off for indication of overlap between construct items (Campbell & Fiske, 1959; Benet-Martinez & John, 2000). Moreover, as expected, PERs are positively correlated with negatively-defined constructs, that is to say DI and PC breach, and negatively correlated with the positively-defined construct of POS.

Table 4.14. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities for MTurk

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Age	33.5	9.3														
2. Gender	1.44	0.5	-.163*													
3. Job tenure	-	-	.304***	.013												
4. Education	-	-	.117	.032	.110											
5. PC Breach	2.30	0.94	.053	.038	-.019	.085	<b>.94</b>									
6. PERs	2.80	1.50	.013	.169*	.057	.194***	.648***	<b>.96</b>								
7. Distributive Injustice	2.75	1.15	.079	.167*	-.022	.223***	.584***	.784***	<b>.96</b>							
8. POS	4.83	1.30	-.059	-.034	.003	-.083	-.625***	.766***	-.696***	<b>.93</b>						
9. PSS	5.04	1.41	-.116	-.007	.074	-.049	-.504***	-.627***	-.518***	.744***	<b>.93</b>					
10. Abusive Supervision	1.56	0.80	.077	.146*	.133	.085	.446***	.701***	.553***	-.529***	-.543***	<b>.95</b>				
11. Organ. Commitment	3.48	0.91	.012	.062	.012	.022	-.627***	-.656***	-.675***	.782***	.625***	-.410***	<b>.91</b>			
12. Anger/ Hostility	2.67	1.75	.080	.063	-.019	.155*	.689***	.824***	.672***	-.741***	.625***	.650***	-.632***	<b>.95</b>		
13. Shame/Guilt	1.99	0.69	-.124	-.038	-.096	.003	.451***	.608***	.452***	-.579***	.526***	.509***	-.585***	.641***	<b>.90</b>	
14. Turnover Intention	3.26	2.01	-.060	.112	-.108	.047	.568***	.708***	.654***	-.723***	.572***	.501***	-.703***	.714***	.533***	<b>.94</b>

Notes:

<sup>a</sup>*N* = 186.<sup>b</sup>Reliabilities (Cronbach alphas) are presented in boldface along the diagonal.<sup>c</sup>Gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; Job Tenure: in months; Education: 1=primary school, 2=high school, 3=trade/vocational training, 4= undergraduate degree, 5=masters.<sup>d</sup>PC Breach= Psychological Contract Breach, PERs= Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships, POS= Perceived Organisational Support, PSS= Perceived Supervisor Support, OCBO= Organisation-based Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.<sup>e</sup>\**p*<.05, \*\**p*<.01.

Again looking at Table 4.14 it is possible to find initial support for the discriminant validity of PERs in the differential correlations between PERs and comparable constructs and the independent variables. Specifically, it should be highlighted that PERs are more highly correlated with the outcomes of anger and hostility ( $r = .824, p < .01$ ), and shame and guilt ( $r = 0.608, p < .01$ ) than any other independent variable in the study (these correlations are presented in Table 4.14 in boldface). PERs also correlated highly with turnover intentions ( $r = .708, p < .01$ ) and organisational commitment ( $r = -.656, p < .01$ ), although other independent variables were more highly correlated with these variables.

To further support the discriminant validity of PERs, the preliminary factor analyses (Tables 4.15 and 4.16) reveal the factorial independence of PERs vis-à-vis the other constructs. An exception, however, are two abusive supervision items (item 7 and item 9 shown in Table 4.16), which are approaching cross loadings. A rule of thumb is to drop such items (Hinkin, 1995), especially in initial phases of data collection in which a large item pool exists, or if the researcher plans on generating more items (Anglim, 2015). However, in this phase I was reluctant to drop items for two reasons. First, the items *did* load most highly on the intended factor, and the cross loadings onto the PERs factor were below .5, which some researchers, such as Costello and Osborne (1995) consider to be weak loadings. Second, when items have a complex loading pattern, such as cross loadings, this does not necessarily attest to overlap, but rather, as Reise, Waller and Comrey (2000) note, that other manipulations, such as hand rotations, or circumplex representations might be necessary to resolve the issue. Thus the two items were retained at this point.

Table 4.15. Factor Loadings of PERs versus PC Breach, DI and POS Using the MTurk Sample Data

Construct	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
PC Breach	PC Breach_1	.827	.177	.126	.352
	PC Breach_2	.834	.194	.142	.338
	PC Breach_3	.770	.159	.150	.401
	PC Breach_4	.619	.375	.191	.127
	PC Breach_5	.685	.411	.145	.278
PERs	PERs_1	.378	.567	.290	.338
	PERs_2	.334	.570	.326	.328
	PERs_3	.311	.606	.192	.301
	PERs_4	.236	.650	.204	.392
	PERs_5	.156	.633	.166	.078
	PERs_6	.163	.525	.265	.282
	PERs_7	.284	.497	.230	.360
	PERs_8	.151	.733	.152	.238
	PERs_9	.205	.599	.223	.379
	PERs_10	.205	.661	.256	.245
	PERs_11	.125	.482	.160	.114
	PERs_12	.296	.491	.259	.368
	PERs_13	.184	.500	.381	.150
	PERs_14	.245	.567	.374	.348
DI	DI_1	.210	.387	.763	.272
	DI_2	.217	.375	.718	.302
	DI_3	.198	.381	.771	.271
	DI_4	.212	.391	.706	.297
POS	POS_1	-.172	-.336	-.037	.525
	POS_2	-.182	-.276	-.226	.817
	POS_3	-.232	-.217	-.269	.755
	POS_4	-.264	-.148	-.224	.794
	POS_5	-.105	-.448	-.253	.549
	POS_6	-.153	-.244	-.102	.755
	POS_7	-.266	-.186	-.104	.735
	POS_8	-.230	-.237	-.235	.399

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N = 186.

<sup>b</sup> PC Breach = Psychological Contract Breach, PERs = Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships, DI = Distributive Injustice, POS = Perceived Organisational Support.

<sup>c</sup> All the negatively worded items have been reversed for the analysis.

*Table 4.16. Factor Loading of PERs versus Abusive Supervision and Perceived Supervisor Support Using the MTurk Sample Data*

Construct	Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
<b>PERs</b>	PERs_1	<b>.778</b>	.289	.305
	PERs_2	<b>.779</b>	.261	.262
	PERs_3	<b>.748</b>	.282	.225
	PERs_4	<b>.780</b>	.328	.307
	PERs_5	<b>.649</b>	.316	.115
	PERs_6	<b>.647</b>	.305	.236
	PERs_7	<b>.669</b>	.471	.304
	PERs_8	<b>.782</b>	.235	.049
	PERs_9	<b>.721</b>	.339	.330
	PERs_10	<b>.775</b>	.325	.236
	PERs_11	<b>.537</b>	.360	.114
	PERs_12	<b>.675</b>	.214	.323
	PERs_13	<b>.641</b>	.357	.218
	PERs_14	<b>.765</b>	.338	.276
<b>AS</b>	AS_1	.260	<b>.734</b>	.065
	AS_2	.332	<b>.718</b>	-.073
	AS_3	.231	<b>.619</b>	.185
	AS_4	.218	<b>.757</b>	.232
	AS_5	.301	<b>.712</b>	.163
	AS_6	.211	<b>.677</b>	.143
	AS_7	.414	<b>.509</b>	.410
	AS_8	.354	<b>.695</b>	.332
	AS_9	.468	<b>.553</b>	.244
	AS_10	.325	<b>.637</b>	.129
	AS_11	.317	<b>.757</b>	.210
	AS_12	.230	<b>.780</b>	.294
	AS_13	.322	<b>.593</b>	.046
	AS_14	.186	<b>.793</b>	.187
	AS_15	.363	<b>.573</b>	.247
<b>PSS</b>	PSS_1	-.279	-.194	<b>.821</b>
	PSS_2	-.294	-.185	<b>.860</b>
	PSS_3	-.318	-.199	<b>.834</b>
	PSS_4	-.421	-.298	<b>.654</b>

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup> *N* = 186.

<sup>b</sup> PERs = *Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*, AS = *Abusive Supervision*, PSS = *Perceived Supervisor Support*.

<sup>c</sup> All the negatively worded items have been reversed for the analysis.

To assess whether the construct of PERs explains any incremental variance in the dependent variables, a regression analysis was performed using SPSS version 22.0. As seen in Table 4.17 and Figure 4.3, PERs were found to be the primary predictor of the emotions of anger, hostility, shame and guilt, explaining 72% of the variance in anger and hostility and 45% of the variance in shame and guilt. PERs were also found to contribute to explaining the variance found in turnover intentions and organisational commitment. All these results were significant at least at the  $p < .05$  level.

To summarise the convergent and discriminant validity assessments, the results of this study support the convergent validity of PERs as evidenced by the substantial correlations (between .63 and .78) with constructs that are comparable to PERs. These correlations are high, but lower than .85, the conventional cut-off mentioned earlier in this chapter, which would indicate overlap. The results of several tests (following the approach of Ironson et al., 1989) also support the discriminant validity of PERs, such that (a) PERs correlated more strongly than any other independent variable (both organisation-based and supervisor-based) with the dependent variables of shame and guilt, and anger and hostility, (b) the results of two preliminary factor analyses overall provide support the factorial independence of PERs from POS, PC breach, DI, PSS and AS, (c) regression analysis uncovered that PERs were the primary predictors of shame, guilt, anger and hostility, and contributed to the prediction of organisational commitment and turnover intentions.

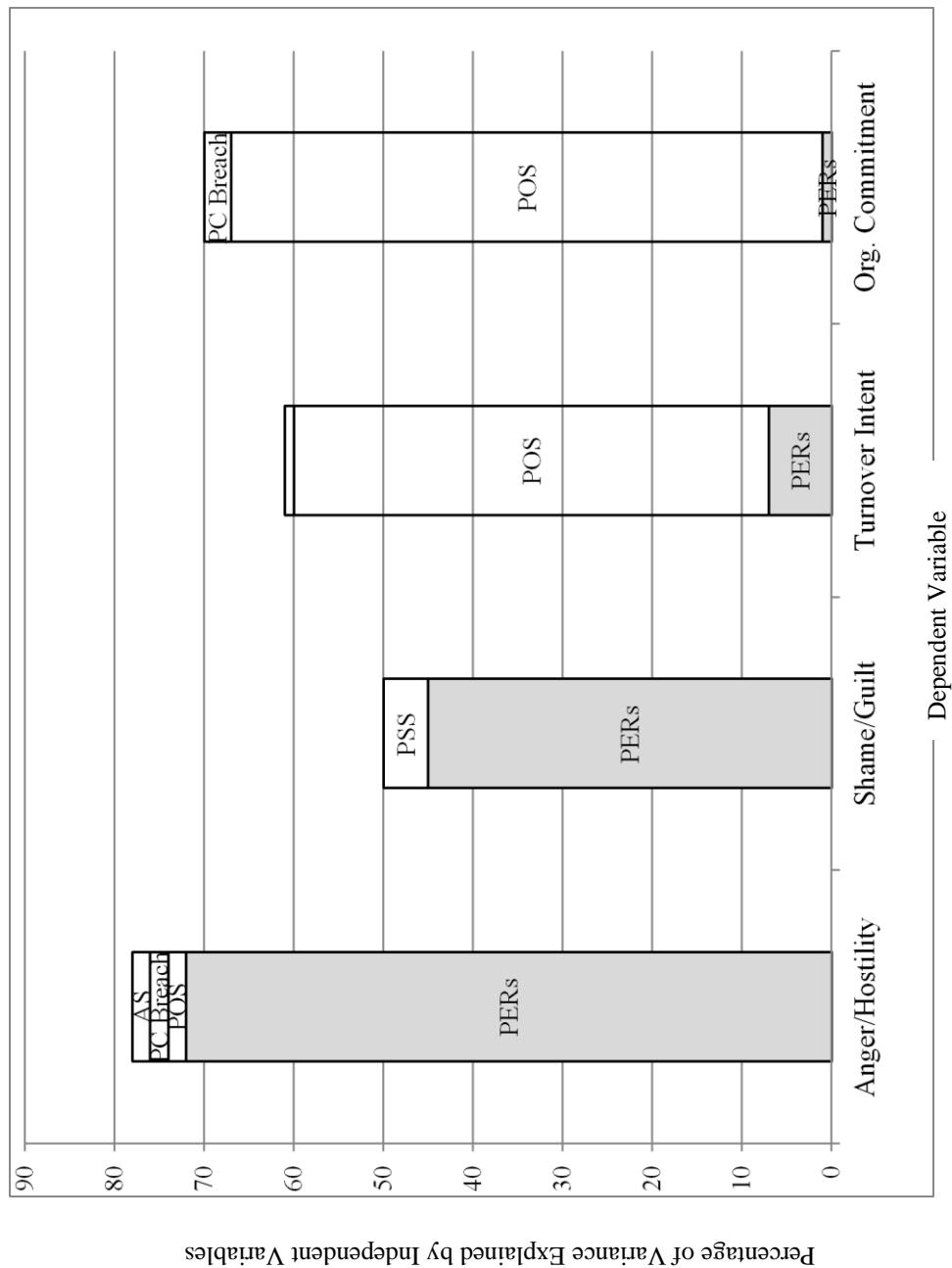
Table 4.17. Results of Regression Analysis Performed on MTurk Sample Data

Dependent Variable	Predictor	R <sup>2</sup>	Standard Error of R <sup>2</sup>	Standardised Coefficient $\beta$	$\beta$ Sig.	Reg. Sum of Square	SS Sig.	DF
Anger/ Hostility	1. PERs	.715	.932	.846	.000	401.75	.000	1
	2. PC Breach	.742	.889	.225	.000	416.82	.000	2
	3. AS	.759	.861	.194	.000	426.40	.000	3
	4. POS	.769	.846	-.164	.000	432.03	.000	4
Shame/Guilt	1. PERs	.449	.472	.670	.000	33.39	.000	1
	2. PSS	.503	.449	-.309	.000	37.44	.000	2
Burnout	1. POS	.424	.549	-.651	.000	40.81	.000	1
	2. PERs	.467	.529	.327	.008	45.03	.000	2
	3. PSS	.482	.524	-.193	.025	46.43	.000	3
Turnover Intentions	1. POS	.530	1.37	-.728	.000	389.621	.000	1
	2. PERs	.597	1.27	.404	.000	438.653	.000	2
	3. DI	.608	1.26	.174	.024	446.852	.000	3
Organisational Commitment	1. POS	.658	.501	.811	.000	88.679	.000	1
	2. PC Breach	.690	.478	-.239	.000	93.065	.000	2
	3. PERs	.697	.474	-.139	.044	93.985	.000	3

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N=186.<sup>b</sup> All variables were simultaneously entered.

Figure 4.3. Variance in Dependent Variables Explained by Independent Variables



Note. AS= abusive supervision, PC Breach= psychological contract breach, POS= perceived organisational support, PSS= perceived supervisor support, DI= distributive injustice, PERs= perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships, Org. Commitment= organisational commitment.

The next section aims to tackle another type of validity that contributes to the overall construct validity, that is to say criterion-related validity.

#### 4.3.4 *Criterion-Related Validity*

Criterion-related validity refers to “the extent to which a construct is related to variables derived from theory” (Ferris et al., 2008: 1357). Criterion-related validity contributes to the validity of a construct (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955; Hinkin, 1998) and it helps establish its nomological network (Ferris et al., 2008). At this early stage of attempting to uncover potential variables related to PERs, I wanted to cast a wide net in order to potentially make interesting discoveries. Hence, while negative outcomes for the individual employee and for the organisation, such as burnout or withdrawal behaviours were included, I did not rule out the idea that PERs might also lead to positive outcomes.

For example, an employee’s empathy towards the organisation was measured in the construction workers’ sample. While it is commonsensical that PERs and empathy towards the organisation are negatively correlated, there is also some evidence to suggest that, in some cases, the opposite may be true. This is supported by the view of empathy as a state-emotion, driven by the need for negative state relief, and as a way of coping with difficult situations (Tsuang, Eaves, Nir, Jerskey & Lyons, 2005). As Aquino, Tripp and Bies (2006) contend, empathy is a way to relieve psychological distress following an aversive situation, and it even functions an alternative to the “release of debilitating emotions like anger and resentment” (Aquino et al., 2006: 655). This approach allows for the possibility that the ‘victim’ of exploitation might seek to preserve a pro-social state by creating a connection with the perpetrator and thus mitigating negative feelings engendered by the perceived exploitation (Tsuang et al., 2005; Riek & Mania, 2012). This motivation

behind empathy is consistent with a social exchange perspective, as empathy can be seen as attempting to secure future returns or benefits benefit (e.g. De Waal, 2008). In sum, while it was largely predicted that PERs would be positively related with negative outcomes, no *a priori* assumptions were made about the nature of the relationship of PERs with positive outcomes such as empathy, forgiveness and reconciliation.

Apart from empathy, there were many different types of variables which required assessment. Some variables can be categorised as emotional, attitudinal and behavioural independent variables, such as shame, job satisfaction, and withdrawal, respectively. Other variables are dispositional, such as optimism and pessimism or self-esteem. Yet others are exogenous situational variables, like lock-in effects (availability and attractiveness of employment alternatives). This preliminary and exploratory test of relationships would also help focus the model presented in chapter 6, such that significant correlations are more likely to perform well in an analysis of causal relationships.

I used the same two samples (the MTurk and construction workers' samples) to assess the criterion-related validity of PERs. The use of two different samples allowed the inclusion of a greater number of potential variables that could teach us more about the nomological network of PERs, as well as the ability to replicate some of the relationships that were uncovered. The participants and procedures were described in the previous sections. A description of the measures included and the analytic strategy used follows.

### Measures

Table 4.18 describes the variables measured in each sample. Although additional variables were included in each survey, only variables pertaining to the criterion-related validity assessment are detailed in this section. Accordingly, anger and hostility, for example, were

measured in the MTurk sample for the purpose of assessing discriminant validity, and their measurement in the construction sample is for replication purposes.

*Table 4.18. Variables Measured for Criterion-Related Validity According to Sample*

Variable	Sample	
	MTurk	Construction Workers
PERs	X	X
Anger/Hostility	X <sup>b</sup>	X <sup>a</sup>
Shame/Guilt	X <sup>b</sup>	X <sup>a</sup>
Job Satisfaction	X	
Burnout	X	
Physical Withdrawal	X	X <sup>a</sup>
Psychological Withdrawal	X	X <sup>a</sup>
Organisation-Based OCB	X	
Individual-Based OCB	X	
Turnover Intentions	X	X <sup>a</sup>
Collective Action Tendencies		X
Revenge		X
Empathy		X
Work Engagement		X
Forgiveness		X
Reconciliation		X
Optimism/Pessimism		X
Self-Esteem		X
Mood		X
Negative Reciprocity Beliefs		X
Lock-in Effects		X
Gender	X	X
Age	X	X
Job Tenure	X	X
Education	X	

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup> X<sup>a</sup> = replication, X<sup>b</sup> = results provided in another section.

<sup>b</sup> PERs = Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships, OCB = Organisational Citizenship Behaviours.

Next is a brief description of the rationale behind some of these choices and of the actual measures.

The measures of *PERs, Anger and Hostility, and Shame and Guilt* used previously were used again here.

*Job satisfaction.* Job satisfaction was measured with the 3-item overall job satisfaction measure used by Shore & Tetrick (1991) and Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, and Toth (1997), a sample item being “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”.

*Burnout.* Burnout was measured using the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (consisting of 16 items), a sample item being “There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work”. Responses were recorded on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Although the most commonly used instrument for the measurement of burnout is the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996), it has recently been criticised for its psychometric limitations such as item wording (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). Increasingly, scholars have recourse to the OLBI, a trend which has been strengthened with repeated findings surrounding the measure’s superior validity and reliability (e.g. Demerouti & Bakker, 2008).

*Physical and psychological withdrawal.* Physical and psychological withdrawal were measured using a self-report measure used by Lehman & Simpson (1992). A sample item of physical withdrawal is “I left work early”, and a sample item of psychological withdrawal is “I daydreamed”. The response scale was a 7-point frequency scale ranging from ‘never’ to ‘very often’.

*Organizational-based organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBO) and individual-based organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBI).* OCBO and OCBI were assessed using Lee

& Allen's (2002) 16-item self-report measure (8 items for each type of OCB). Respondents were asked to state how often, for example, they "offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation" (OCBO), and "help others who have been absent" (OCBI). Responses ranged from 1 = *never*, to 7 = *very often*.

*Turnover intentions.* Turnover intentions were assessed using Landau and Hammer's (1986) 3-item measure. Responses were recorded on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly Disagree* to 7 = *strongly Agree*). A sample item is "I am actively looking for a job outside my organisation". This measure has been extensively used in the past (e.g. Wayne et al., 1997).

*Collective action tendencies.* Collective action tendencies were measured with Kelloway and Barling's (1993) 6-item measure. Following this scale, three items were dichotomously scored (e.g. "I serve on union committees") and the rest (e.g. "I vote in union elections") were measured on a 5-point frequency response scale (ranging from 1 = *never* to 5 = *always*). Averages were used to calculate overall scores.

*Revenge.* Revenge was measured using Aquino et al.'s (2006) 4 items: these items are based on Wade's (1989) revenge subscale (presented in McCullough et al., 1998). A sample item for revenge is "I got even with my organisation". Answers were recorded on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

*Empathy.* Empathy was measured using the Empathetic Concern index for individual empathetic emotions towards the offender (Coke, Batson & McDavis, 1978; McCullough, Worthington & Rachal, 1997). Responses were recorded on a 6-point scale (1 = *not at all*

to 6 = *extremely*), on which respondents indicated the degree to which they felt each effect in relation to their offender (empathetic, concerned, warm, soft-hearted, compassionate). This measure was chosen due to its high validity and because of its high internal consistency estimates in past studies (McCullough et al., 1997), and as it allows the measurement of the employee's empathy towards the offender based on his/her state rather than measurement of an empathetic disposition. This is suitable in this case, as empathy is measured as an outcome of PERs.

*Work engagement.* Work engagement was assessed with the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale short version (Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006). Respondents were asked to state how much they agree (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*) with statements such as "When I get up in the morning I feel like going to work", or "My job inspires me".

*Forgiveness.* Forgiveness was measured using 4 items developed by Aquino et al. (2006). The items indicated the extent to which respondents had forgiven the organisation for its offense, a sample item being "I let go of the negative feelings I had against my organisation". Answers were recorded on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

*Reconciliation.* Reconciliation was measured using 3 items developed by Aquino et al. (2006), a sample item being "I tried to make amends with my organisation". Answers were recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*.

*Optimism/pessimism.* Optimism/pessimism was measured using the Revised Life Orientation Test (LOT-R; Scheier, Carver & Bridges, 1994), a sample item being "I hardly

ever expect things to go my way". Responses are recorded on a five point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). This measure was chosen because it is a highly used dispositional trait test (as opposed to state test) for the variables (Burke, Joyner, Czech & Wilson, 2000). A dispositional measure is desired in this case, rather than a register of a fleeting sense of optimism, in order to account for systematic variance. Additionally, dispositional optimism, as measured by the LOT-R, is bi-dimensional, consisting of an optimism and pessimism factor (Herzberg, Glaesmer, & Hoyer, 2006). As we are looking for the influence of both factors, the LOT-R is useful in that a single relatively short measure captures both factors.

*Self-esteem.* Self-esteem was measured with The Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). This scale is preferable to other more recent scales such as The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (Roid & Fitts, 1988) and the Self-Description Questionnaire (Marsh, Smith and Barnes, 1983) because it is general (as opposed to relating to specific facets) and relatively short (10 items), a sample item being "At times I think I am no good at all".

*Mood.* Mood in the workplace was measured using Eisenberger et al.'s (2001) 2-question measure (e.g. "How cheerful do you feel on a typical day at work?"). Responses were recorded on a five point Likert scale (1 = *very little* to 5 = *very much*). This measure is suitable because it is specific to the workplace setting and because it captures dispositional mood rather than momentary mood, which can account for systematic variance in the results.

*Negative reciprocity beliefs.* Negative reciprocity beliefs (NRBs) were assessed using the five highest factor loading items developed by Eisenberger et al. (2004b), a sample item

being “if someone treats me badly, I feel I should treat them even worse”. Using the highest factor loadings of a scale in order to shorten it to offset the risk of bias due to fatigue is common in organisational behaviour research (e.g. Biron, 2010).

*Lock-in effects.* Lock-in effects were measured using two global item subscales from the Investment Model measure (Rusbult, 1980; 1983). These scales measure: (a) investment in the relationship, or the perceived extent of the respondent’s investment in the relationship, and (b) number and quality of employment alternatives available to the respondent. The original measure includes additional scales (e.g. satisfaction with the relationship and how rewarding the relationship is). However, these are irrelevant in the case of PERs in which the relationship is deemed unrewarding and unsatisfactory. Therefore the redundant subscales were eliminated.

Additionally, I needed to alter the wording slightly in order to clarify the meaning of the question and adapt it to the organisational context. For instance, the Alternatives global item “How appealing are your alternatives?” was altered to become “How appealing are your employment alternatives (e.g. working in another organisation, or being unemployed)?” The investment size item “Are there objects/persons/activities that you would lose if your relationship with your company were to end?” was reworded to become: “Are there things, other than pay, that you would lose if your relationship with your company were to end?” These changes made the questions more comprehensible without loss of their original and core meaning. Moreover, the response scale for both alternatives and investment size was also reduced from a 9-point scale to a 5-point scale for consistency purposes and in order to minimise confusion.

*Controls.* Demographic data that could potentially be used as controls was gathered for gender, age, job tenure and education. Responses were categorical and numerically recorded, such that for gender: 1 = Male, 2 = Female; for age: 1 = 18-24, 2 = 25-34, 3 = 35-44, 4 = 45-54, and 5 = 55 or above; for job tenure: 1 = under 6 months, 2 = 6-12 months, 3 = 1-5 years, and 4 = over 5 years, and for education completed: 1 = primary school, 2 = high school, 3 = trade/technical/vocational training, 4 = Bachelor's degree, and 5 = Master's degree or above (the wording was slightly altered for the U.K.-based construction sample as the category titles differ).

### Analytic strategy

Following the widespread strategy of Campbell and Fiske (1959), the relationship between PERs and the variables described above was assessed using correlation analysis (performed on SPSS version 22.0).

### Results

Table 4.19 presents the descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities of the criterion-related validity variables for the MTurk sample. As shown, PERs were significantly and positively correlated with burnout ( $r = .574, p < .01$ ), and negatively correlated with job satisfaction ( $r = -.513, p < .01$ ), organisational commitment ( $r = -.656, p < .01$ ), OCBO ( $r = -.294, p < .01$ ), and OCBI ( $r = -.184, p < .01$ ). Also significantly (albeit weakly) correlated with PERs were gender ( $r = .169, p < .05$ ) and education ( $r = .194, p < .01$ ), indicating that in this sample, females were more likely to experience PERs, and that higher levels of education were associated with higher perceptions of exploitation.

Table 4.19. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities for MTurk Sample

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	33.5	9.3	1.00										
2. Gender	1.44	0.5	-.163*	1.00									
3. Job tenure	-	-	.304**	.013	1.00								
4. Education	-	-	.117	.032	.110	1.00							
5. Job Satisfaction	5.43	1.32	-.044	.101	.056	.079	.92)						
6. PERs	2.80	1.50	.013	.169*	.057	.194**	-.513**	.96)					
7. OCBO	4.63	1.35	.118	.105	.096	.193**	.488**	-.294**	.91)				
8. OCBI	5.22	1.02	.020	.007	.106	.015	.252**	-.184*	.424**	.88)			
9. Psych. Withdrawal	3.24	1.18	-.080	-.066	-.114	-.144	-.185*	.077	-.039	-.012	.80)		
10. Physical Withdrawal	2.00	1.00	-.099	.065	-.094	.063	.168*	.014	.169*	-.005	.551**	.77)	
11. Burnout	2.67	0.80	-.026	.015	-.101	-.121	-.661**	.574**	-.496**	-.271**	.324**	.088	.91)

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N=186.<sup>b</sup> Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female.<sup>c</sup> PERs= Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships, OCBO= Organisation based Organisational Citizenship Behaviours, OCBI= Individual based Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.<sup>d</sup> \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01.

Several findings from the MTurk sample were replicated in the construction workers' sample (results are presented in Table 4.20). Once again, PERs were found to be significantly and positively correlated with turnover intentions ( $r = .480, p < .01$ ), anger and hostility ( $r = .714, p < .01$ ), and shame and guilt ( $r = .577, p < .01$ ). In addition, PERs were significantly positively correlated with collective action ( $r = .289, p < .01$ ), physical withdrawal ( $r = .270, p < .01$ ), psychological withdrawal ( $r = .328, p < .01$ ), negative reciprocity beliefs ( $r = .241, p < .01$ ), and revenge ( $r = .338, p < .01$ ). PERs were also negatively correlated with (positive) mood ( $r = -.159, p < .05$ ), optimism ( $r = -.355, p < .01$ ), work engagement ( $r = -.225, p < .01$ ), and self-esteem ( $r = -.476, p < .01$ ). Age was positively and significantly, though weakly, correlated with PERs ( $r = .033, p < .05$ ), indicating that older employees were more likely to experience PERs.

The results of the correlation analyses of the two samples illustrate that PERs relate significantly to a host of variables, supporting the criterion-related validity of PERs. The MTurk sample revealed that PERs were significantly correlated with all of the variables measured against it, except for psychological and physical withdrawal. In the construction workers' sample, which was intended to replicate some of these findings, psychological and physical withdrawal were found to be significantly and positively correlated with PERs, pointing to the importance of replication studies, in order to avoid making definitive conclusions that may not be generalisable to every sample. In the construction sample, the attempt to find correlations between positive outcomes and PERs yielded insignificant results. Lock-in effects were also insignificantly correlated with PERs. These results might point to a need to further investigate these routes and potentially uncover relationships that do, after all, exist either in different samples or in relation to other relationships (e.g. indirect effect).

Table 4.20. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities for Construction Sample

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Age	32.7	12.8																			
2. Gender	1.06	0.24	.071																		
3. Mood	3.49	0.85	.086	-.058	(.65)																
4. Optimism	3.44	0.60	.035	-.022	.333**	(.65)															
5. Engagement	3.48	0.75	.162*	-.001	.540**	.296**	(.91)														
6. Self-Esteem	3.82	0.61	.028	-.018	.299**	.591**	.295**	(.82)													
7. NRBs	3.16	1.54	.003	.114	-.121	-.267**	-.191**	-.193**	(.94)												
8. Turnover Intentions	3.33	1.62	-.005	.074	-.108	-.143*	-.204**	-.293**	.135*	(.88)											
9. Empathy	3.51	1.08	.127	-.046	.223**	.135*	.451**	.115	-.240**	-.154**	(.90)										
10. PERs	3.20	1.42	.033*	.051	-.159*	.355**	.225**	-.476**	.241**	.480**	-.113	(.96)									
11. Anger/Hostility	2.91	1.66	.049	.008	-.084	-.314**	-.199**	-.397**	.112	.537**	-.134*	.714**	(.95)								
12. Shame/Guilt	2.23	0.58	-.058	-.020	-.340**	-.366**	-.302**	-.560**	.173**	.386**	-.107	.577**	.501**	(.84)							
13. Collective Action	1.55	0.98	.022	-.012	.064	-.004	-.097	-.279**	.151	.062	.032	.289**	.258	.386	(.58)						
14. Physical With.	2.18	1.23	-.136	-.077	-.410**	-.198**	-.289**	-.190*	.226**	-.218**	.270**	.197*	.429**	.113*	(.88)						
15. Psychological With.	3.00	1.26	-.177	-.132	-.380**	-.228**	-.503**	-.305**	.198*	.272**	-.259**	.328**	.239**	.461**	.671**	(.83)					
16. Revenge	1.54	0.81	-.086	-.007	-.063	-.219**	-.077	-.351**	.146*	.249**	.027	.338**	.256**	.397**	.332**	.393**	(.91)				
17. Forgiveness	2.35	1.15	-.043	-.063	-.091	-.113	-.150*	-.242*	.118	.358**	-.065	.193	.087	.241	.143	.228**	.275**	.303**	(.96)		
18. Reconciliation	2.81	1.13	.031	.054	.035	.056	-.061	-.043	.275**	.196**	.045	.095	.112**	-.122	-.044**	.089**	.198**	.600**	(.92)		
19. Lock-In Effects	2.87	0.67	.128*	.139	.019	.194**	.031	.109	.027	.112*	-.032	-.075	-.094	-.118	-.056	-.122**	-.076*	-.110*	-.014	.012	(.75)

*Notes:**a* N=235. *Gender:* 1=Male, 2=Female.*b* NRBs= Negative Reciprocity Beliefs, PERs= Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships, Physical With.= Physical Withdrawal, Psychological With.= Psychological Withdrawal.*c* \*p<.05, \*\*p<.01.

#### 4.4 Discussion

This chapter focused on the development and evaluation of a new PERs scale using four different samples. In this section the main findings in each stage or step of the scale development and evaluation processes are described, followed by a discussion of some further issues to be addressed (Table 4.21 frames and summarises this discussion).

*Table 4.21. Summary of Main Findings and Further Considerations*

Stage / Step	Main Findings	Further Considerations
1. PERs scale development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• PERs are a distributive phenomenon which includes a wide range of behaviours on part of organisations.</li> <li>• PERs can be captured by both general items and specific ones that point to explicit behaviours.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Additional behaviours unaccounted for.</li> <li>• A more parsimonious representation of PERs.</li> </ul>
2. Existence of PERs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evidence for the existence of PERs was found across 3 samples.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflection upon the settings or contexts in which PERs are increased.</li> </ul>
3. Factor structure of PERs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• An EFA and a CFA on two different samples suggest that PERs are uni-dimensional.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Replication of the factor structure in another sample and/or using another source of data other than the employee.</li> </ul>
4. Reliability of PERs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The reliability of PERs was very high in two samples.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Potential item redundancy.</li> </ul>
5. Convergent and Discriminant Validity of PERs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Convergent validity was established in two samples.</li> <li>• PERs are distinguishable from EOR-based constructs that bear some conceptual resemblance.</li> <li>• PERs are distinguishable from supervisory-based constructs.</li> <li>• PERs explain the variance in certain independent variables above and beyond existing constructs.</li> <li>• These findings contribute to the PERs construct validity.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Replication of discriminant validity findings.</li> <li>• Additional constructs to be compared to PERs.</li> <li>• Repeat analysis with other independent variables.</li> </ul>
6. Criterion-Related Validity of PERs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A nomological network was established in two samples evidenced by significant correlations between PERs and many different variables.</li> <li>• Most relationships between PERs and other negative variables were significant.</li> <li>• The correlation between PERs and positive variables was not significant.</li> <li>• This further supports the construct validity of PERs.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Additional variables to consider.</li> <li>• Pursue positive direction further.</li> </ul>
7. Replication of results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The reliability, convergent validity, criterion-related validity and factor structure of PERs were replicated, reinforcing the findings.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further replication of results.</li> <li>• Replicate discriminant validity in another sample, and using other techniques.</li> </ul>

#### 4.4.1 Main Findings

The various stages described in this chapter revealed several potentially important findings. The item generation results of the snowball sample, as well as the results of the MTurk and construction workers' samples that followed, provided support for the existence of the phenomenon of PERs. In the snowball sample, respondents were able to provide multiple examples of behaviours of organisations that they consider exploitative, and in the two latter samples respondents varied in their range of agreement with the items (on the 1 through 7 response scale). As the mean and standard deviation of PERs in these samples resembled those of well-established comparable measures, this provides further support for the existence of PERs. As an illustration of this, the mean and standard deviation of PERs in the MTurk sample ( $M = 2.80$ ,  $SD = 1.5$ ), is similar to and consistent with the mean and standard deviation of PC Breach ( $M = 2.30$ ,  $SD = .94$ ) and distributive injustice ( $M = 2.75$ ,  $SD = 1.15$ ) measured in the same sample.

The second stage included the test and evaluation of the new scale. The first step was to assess its factor structure. A preliminary factor analysis on the MTurk sample uncovered a unitary factor structure: this was, in turn, supported by the CFA performed on the construction workers' sample data. These results support the notion that these behaviours reflect a uni-dimensional construct in contrast to the distinct facets formed in the scale development stage.

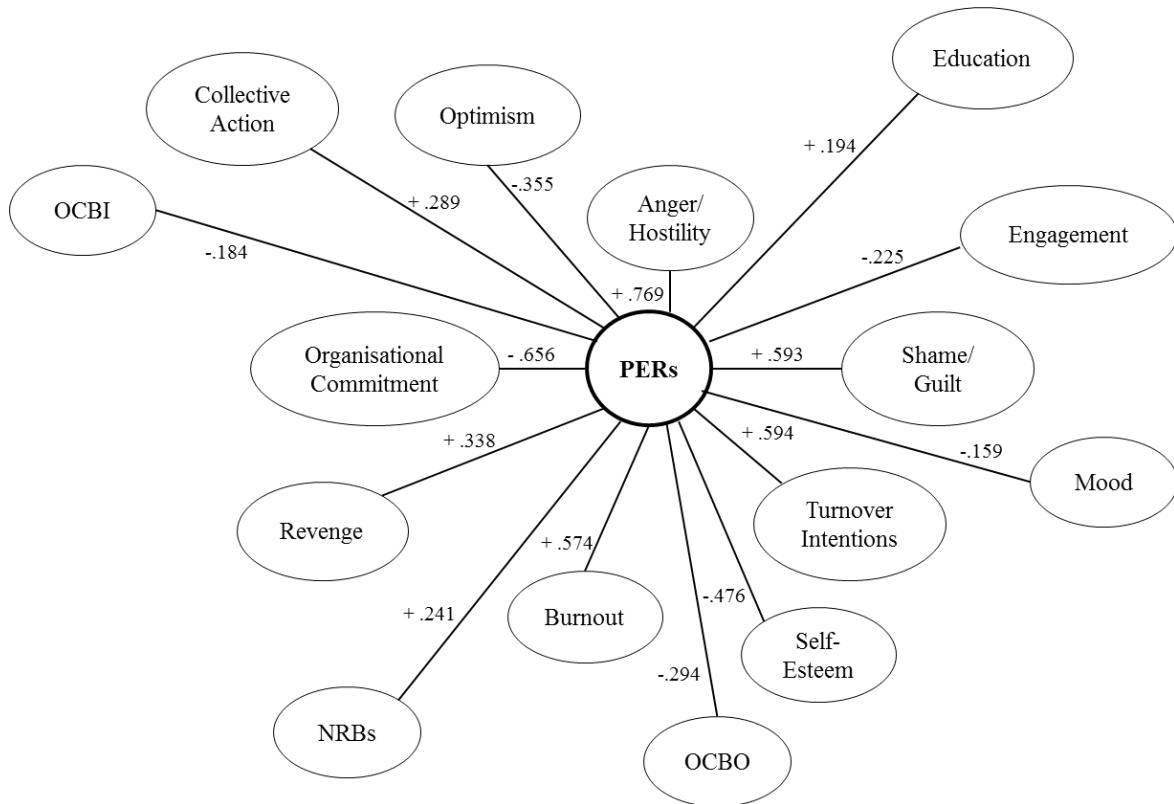
The ensuing step was assessing the convergent and discriminant validities of PERs. The MTurk sample was the main sample used for this purpose, although the measurement of POS in the construction workers' sample was intended to further assist this goal. PERs were compared with other EOR-based constructs that resemble PERs either on a

conceptual level or on the item level. PERs were also compared with supervisory-based constructs, in order to confirm that respondents could differentiate between them.

The construction workers' sample indicated that PERs and POS converge, but not to the point of overlap. MTurk results showed that PERs are significantly correlated with the similar constructs of PC breach, POS, and DI, pointing to the convergent validity of PERs, but that they are also different from them. The independence of PERs from these comparable constructs was demonstrated via differential correlations with outcome variables, through factor analysis as well as regression analysis. PERs were found to be the primary predictors of certain independent variables (anger, hostility, shame and guilt), and to contribute to the variance found in additional outcomes, such as burnout. PERs were also differentiated from supervisory-based constructs (the caveat to this was explained in this chapter), supporting the notion that employees make a distinction between exploitative treatment from their organisation and treatment from their supervisor. These findings provided robust support for the convergent and discriminant validity of PERs.

Criterion-related validity was established in the MTurk and construction workers' sample by finding numerous significant correlations between PERs and other variables, which are frequently measured in the EOR literature. These correlations are diagrammatically depicted in Figure 4.4.

*Figure 4.4. The Nomological Network of PERs: Proximity of Constructs according to Correlation Strength*



*Notes.*

<sup>a</sup> Averages were used where constructs were measured in two samples.

<sup>b</sup> Constructs measured in both samples, but only significantly related to PERs in one sample, are excluded.

<sup>c</sup> The figure is not drawn to scale.

Some insignificant findings can also help us understand the phenomenon of PERs in a better way. For example, while most of the correlations between PERs and constructs generally perceived as ‘negative’, such as anger and revenge, were significant, the correlations between PERs and constructs generally perceived as ‘positive’, such as empathy and reconciliation, were insignificant. A possible interpretation of the finding

relates to the unequivocally negative experience of PERs. It has been maintained in this thesis that one of the factors which differentiate PERs from comparable EOR-based constructs is that in PERs the relationship is defined as a negative one, whereas in the other cases the injustices or breaches can occur in an overall positive or neutral relationship. Therefore, it is not surprising that these comparable constructs have been previously linked to 'positive' constructs, such as forgiveness and reconciliation (e.g. Tripp, Bies & Aquino, 2007; Robinson, Dirks & Ozcelik, 2004), whereas the current attempt to link PERs to more positive outcomes was not supported.

Last, several findings were replicated throughout this chapter. The factor structure, the reliability and the relationship of PERs to other variables were replicated, and thus showed stability across different samples.

#### *4.4.2 Limitations and Future Research*

The studies described in this chapter are only a preliminary examination surrounding the new construct of PERs. Inevitably, they are incomplete, and hence future research can continue this investigation.

To begin with the scale development stage, there was an attempt to provide a depiction of what constitutes PERs that is as comprehensive as possible under the research constraints. Nonetheless, additional examples and behaviours related to PERs that were not touched upon here may exist. Exploring such potential behaviours is particularly important if these are found to be stronger indicators of PERs than the current items. Investigating a more parsimonious representation of PERs is also a worthwhile endeavour, especially as I was hesitant to reduce the scale further by eliminating items in this early phase.

Turning to the scale evaluation stage, which included the preliminary and confirmatory factor analyses, although different samples were used here, as recommended by Hinkin (1998), in order to alleviate common source/common method variance issues, there is merit in replicating the exploration of the factor structure of PERs in another independent sample and in collecting data from a source other than the employee in regards to outcome variables, for example, because given the limitations of this thesis, this was not done here.

I also found the reliability of PERs was repeatedly very high across the two samples (MTurk and construction workers' sample). While this high reliability reflects excellent internal consistency of the measure, and although the result is consistent with the reliabilities of several other constructs measured in the samples, this might also mean that there are potential redundancies. In the future, attempting to refine the scale would help address this issue.

Moreover, despite the fact that a comprehensive convergent and discriminant validity assessment was carried out using the MTurk sample, future research might seek to replicate these findings and perhaps compare PERs with additional constructs from other fields of study, or examine the relationship between PERs and different independent variables. There is merit in replication of the discriminant validity of PERs not only in another sample, but also by using other techniques, such as a CFA (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991).

Last, with respect to the criterion-related validity assessment, although PERs were not found to be significantly correlated with positive outcomes, this association cannot yet be ruled out based only on this preliminary investigation, and future research is necessary to further explore this direction. Additional variables can also be linked with PERs in order to expand the nomological network of the construct further. The limitations in the

current studies thus provide an opportunity for future research, which can further deepen and extend our understanding of PERs.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

In sum, at this point there is strong evidence to suggest that the PERs scale is both valid and reliable. Equipped with this new measure and a preliminary understanding of the nomological network of PERs, I shall now seek to uncover what leads employees to perceive their relationship with their employing organisation as exploitative.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **ANTECEDENTS OF PERCEIVED EXPLOITATIVE EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIPS**

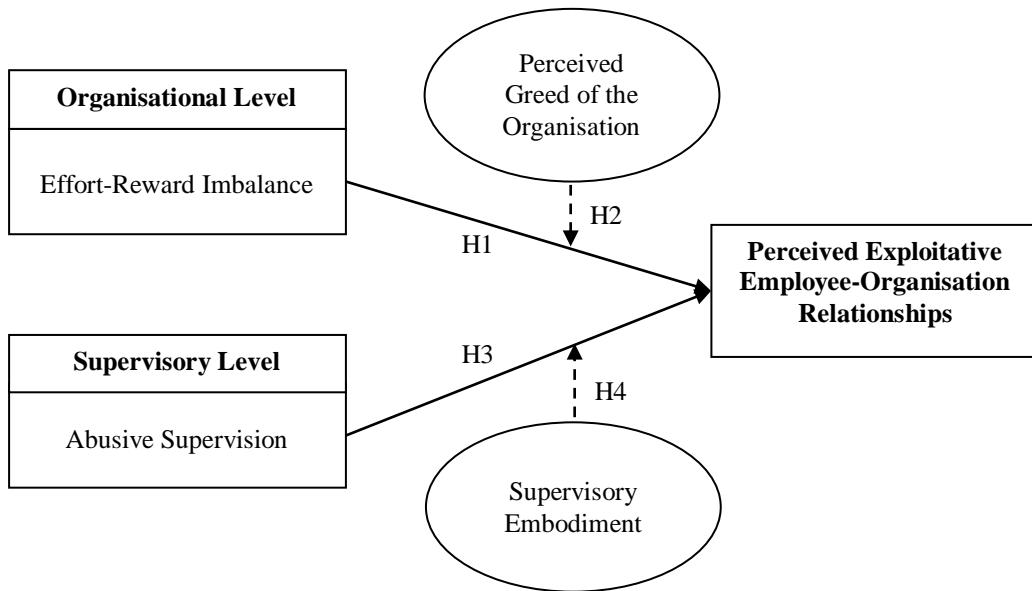
### 5.1 Introduction

Traditionally, OB researchers have examined two types of antecedents to employees' perceptions of their relationship with their organisation. The first relates to organisation-based treatment (i.e. fairness, organisational rewards and favourable job conditions), and the second refers to supervisor-based treatment (i.e. supervisor support) (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). The influence of supervisors on developing employees' perceptions about their relationship with their organisation as a whole has been emphasised especially in the literature on supervisory support on the positive side of supervision, although malevolent forms of supervision, such as abusive supervision have also been incorporated into the literature (e.g. Tepper, 2000). Such research lends strong support to the idea that both organisations and supervisors are extremely important in creating, either for good or ill, employees' perceptions of their relationship with their organisation.

Therefore, in addressing the question of the causes of PERs (the third research question posed in Chapter 1), I uphold the view that not only the organisations themselves, but also supervisors, help shape employees' perceptions of exploitation. This is shown in Figure 5.1, which presents the hypothesised model of the antecedents of PERs. Here, it can be seen that mistreatment from the organisation in the form of an Effort-Reward Imbalance (ERI: Siegrist, 1996) that favours the organisation has a direct effect on PERs, and that this effect is strengthened when employees attribute this imbalance to greedy organisational intentions (Grégoire, Laufer & Tripp, 2010). Mistreatment from the supervisor in the form of abusive supervision (e.g. Tepper, 2000) is also hypothesised as having a direct effect on PERs, a relationship which is strengthened when the employee views the supervisor as representative of the organisation, or, even, as embodying it

(Eisenberger et al., 2010). The rationale for these arguments as well as an explanation for the choices of variables is presented in the following sections.

Figure 5.1. Hypothesised Model of Antecedents of PERs.



Notes:

<sup>a</sup> H = Hypothesis.

<sup>b</sup> Direct effects are notated by → and moderation effects are notated by → - - - →.

### 5.1.1 The Organisational Level: Effort-Reward Imbalance and Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships

As PERs capture the relationship between an employee and the organisation, the organisation itself is viewed as the main source for employees' perceptions of exploitation. PERs are a distributive phenomenon that concern employees' feelings of disparity between what they invest in their relationship with their organisation and what they receive from the

organisation in return. Blau's (1986) power theory perspective is useful here: he attributes different forms of inequitable exchange to a differentiation of power, and this is precisely what we are talking about here. In practical terms, the capacity to provide or to withhold resources is dependent upon positions of power which largely or wholly determine access to material resources and rewards such as salaries, wages, commissions, 'fringe' benefits (Etzioni, 1961) and control over resources (Molm, 1997). It is this indubitable control over resources that puts the organisation in a position to exploit.

Exploitation can be viewed as a form of imbalance in a work relationship. EORs are said to be imbalanced when the fulfilment of obligations between the employee and the organisation is uneven (Blau, 1964; Shore & Barksdale, 1998). Tsui, Pearce, Porter and Tripoli (1997) offer a helpful taxonomy of such imbalanced relations. According to these researchers, problematic imbalance from the employee's standpoint is underinvestment, which occurs when "the employee is expected to undertake broad and open-ended obligations, while the employer reciprocates with short-term and specified monetary rewards, with no commitment to a long-term relationship or investment in the employee's training or career" (Tsui et al., 1997: 1093).

Siegrist (1996) uses the term effort-reward imbalance to capture a phenomenon similar to underinvestment. Siegrist conceives of this imbalance as a mismatch between costs and gains to the advantage of the organisation. Thus employees experience an "imbalance between high effort spent and low reward received at work" (Siegrist, 1996: 27). This term is suitable in the context of PERs as it specifies that the imbalance in the EOR favours the organisation (Bakker, Killmer, Siegrist, & Schaufeli, 2000).

Siegrist's model is even more useful for an investigation of the antecedents of PERs because he conceives of effort-reward imbalance in terms of both extrinsic and intrinsic (or tangible and intangible) gains. For example, the cost, or effort, of the

employee is measured in terms of both extrinsic efforts, such as demands and obligations, and intrinsic ones, such as need for control or critical coping. The low gains, or low rewards, include both tangible resources, such as money, and intangible ones, such as esteem and status control (Siegrist, 1996). Similarly, PERs address both tangible, extrinsic resources such as pay, and intangible, intrinsic ones such as recognition, providing further justification to choose the variable of effort-reward imbalance as a predictor of PERs.

To sum up, I argue that the organisation can directly influence the development of employees' sense of PERs through its access to and control over resources. Specifically, an effort-reward imbalance, which captures not only a type of imbalanced relationship in which the organisation withholds expected rewards from employees, but also one that poses a threat to one's individuation, is expected to lead to PERs. In light of these arguments, the following hypothesis is put forth:

*H1: Employees' perceived effort-reward imbalance is positively related to their perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.*

### *5.1.2 The Moderating Role of Perceived Greed of the Organisation*

Negative judgments about the organisation's treatment are likely to be greater when organisations are held responsible for unfair outcomes (Shore & Tetrck, 1994). Thus, the development of PERs might be influenced by employees' attributions of the organisation's intent to exploit them for self-benefit. The attribution effect, or the fundamental attribution error, differentiates between stable explanations for behaviour, and unstable, or situational explanations (Ross, 1977). Stable explanations (Heider, 1958) for the organisation's behaviour would place the blame attribution on the organisation itself because the employee perceives the behaviours as originating in the inherently bad nature of the

organisation (e.g. 'the organisation always behaves in this way'). Situational explanations (Heider, 1958), however, would emphasise causes external to the organisation as responsible for the outcome (e.g. 'the organisation is going through difficult times'). In this case an employee might consider the outcomes as a resulting from a fleeting situation that can be attributed to unstable or temporary causes, such an unfavourable economic environment. This would weaken an employee's sense of PERs.

This attribution of responsibility includes attribution of intentions because responsibility implies that the organisation had control over its behaviour (Mikula, 2003; Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, & Doherty, 1994). As exploitation involves taking advantage of employees mainly for financial gain, a plausible explanation that employees might develop under the effort-reward imbalance condition is that of greed. Attributions of greedy intentions can be defined as "an inferred negative motive about a firm's opportunistic intent" (Grégoire et al., 2010) and can strengthen the relationship between an effort-reward imbalance and PERs. This explanation potentially developed by employees in response to PERs is plausible given that individuals tend to over-emphasise the stable, dispositional explanations for the behaviour of others and tend to under-emphasise unstable, situational explanations (Ross, 1977). Thus, it is hypothesised that:

*H2: Employees' attributions of greedy organisational motives moderate the relationship between effort-reward imbalance and perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships, such that the relationship is stronger when employees attribute their outcome to greedy motives of the organisation.*

### 5.1.3 *The Supervisory Level: Abusive Supervision and Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*

Supervisors can play a role in shaping EORs because they are perceived by employees as agents of the organisation and as acting on its behalf (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl & Solley, 1962; Levinson, 1965). Negative treatment from supervisors can make way for a negative EOR because employees might blame their organisation for having given supervisors tacit permission for their negative behaviours by not restraining them (Livne Ofer, Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, working paper).

Supervisors can also impact employees' relationships with their organisations through their control over resources and through their ability to administer or withhold rewards on behalf of the organisation. Thus, by influencing employees' perceptions of their input/output ratio, supervisors can potentially lead to the experience of being exploited. This explanation is consistent with Conservation of Resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Harris, Kacmar & Zivnuska, 2007) which suggests that supervisors pose a threat to resource distribution because they can lead employees to perceive a resource loss, or they can actually cause this loss, for example by posing work demands that exceed resources and by not providing the appropriate returns for investment of resources that are anticipated by the employee.

Evidence for the role of supervisors in shaping employees' perceptions of their EOR can be found in the organisational justice (e.g. Colquitt, 2001) and organisational support literatures (a review is provided by Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002 and Kurtessis et al., 2015). First, organisational justice research shows that distributive justice, although a resource-based phenomenon like PERs, has a relational component involving employee assessments of treatments by actors in the organisation, such as supervisors. For instance,

in a study on the antecedents of distributive justice judgments, Tyler (1994) found that distributive justice judgments are shaped not only by resource judgments (i.e. outcomes), but also by relational judgments (i.e. interpersonal treatment, such as politeness or respect). Second, organisational support theory highlights the role of a supportive supervisor in eliciting positive perceptions of the EOR amongst employees and the supervisor's contribution to employees' perceived organisational support (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Indeed, empirical evidence, which corroborates the causal relationship between a supportive supervisor and employees' perceptions of a supportive organisation, has been recurrently found (e.g. Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006; Eisenberger et al., 2002; Zhang, Tsui, Song, Li & Jia, 2008). These examples support the notion that the supervisor can play an important role in affecting the EOR. Therefore, just as a supportive supervisor can contribute to an employee's perception of a supportive organisation, and just as supervisory treatment can impact employees' sense of distributive justice, so can negative supervisory treatment contribute to an employee's sense of exploitation by the organisation.

Various terms have been used in the literature to capture negative treatment from supervisors, such as supervisor undermining (Duffy et al., 2002), victimisation (Aquino, 2000) or workplace bullying (Hoel, Einarsen & Cooper, 2003). Nonetheless, the term abusive supervision, defined as "subordinates' perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and non-verbal behaviours, excluding physical contact" (Tepper, 2000: 178), is the most relevant in this context in two respects. First, abusive supervision may be more relevant to distributive considerations associated with PERs than other concepts, such as undermining, which are of a more interpersonal or interactional nature and focus on a supervisor's hindrance of employees' ability to develop positive interpersonal relationships and favourable reputations (Duffy et

al., 2002). Second, abusive supervision captures negative behaviours of supervisors explicitly. Other terms, such as bullying are less precise: they encompass negative behaviours of other organisational members such as an employee's own peers or colleagues (Hoel et al., 2003). This distinction is an important one because I would argue that supervisors can influence the EOR in a very particular fashion precisely because they can be perceived by employees as representatives of the organisation, whereas co-workers do not represent the organisation in the same way.

Abusive supervisors are particularly likely to contribute to the development of PERs. Drawing on Relative Deprivation Theory (Martin, 1981), which emphasises relative reward (Sweeney, McFarlin & Inderrieden, 1990), Tepper (2000) explains that subordinates of an abusive supervisor tend to believe that they are giving more and getting less than they deserve compared to other referents. Such supervisors do this by displaying a broad range of inconsiderate behaviours (Bies, 2001; Bies & Tripp, 1998), both resource-based ones and relational ones.

In sum, abusive supervision is likely to be linked to employees' sense of exploitation from their organisation. Although PERs focus on employees' perception of exploitation from the organisation itself, abusive supervisors can contribute to employees' PERs through their exercise of control over resources. Thus, it is hypothesised that:

*H3: Employees' perceptions of abusive supervision are positively related to their perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.*

#### 5.1.4 The Moderating Role of Supervisory Embodiment

Eisenberger and Stinglhamber (2011) write that employees "tend to view their treatment by the organization not as the result of organizational agents acting simply as individuals with

their own motives but as strongly influenced by the values and goals perpetuated by upper managers and enacted by their supervisors" (p. 41). This citation reflects the extent to which employees might view their supervisors as representative of their organisations, and raises the issue of identification.

Drawing on organisational support theory, I would contend that abusive supervision is more likely to play a role in eliciting PERs in employees, when employees identify their supervisor's actions with those of the employing organisation. Supervisory embodiment is the term coined by Eisenberger et al. (2010) to describe this personification process, or the mechanism by which employees identify the actions of their supervisors with those of the organisation. The collocation grasps the extent to which an employee views the abusive supervisor as an organisational representative and as acting on its behalf (e.g. Eisenberger et al., 2010; Shoss, Eisenberger, Restubog & Zagenczyk, 2013).

Supervisory embodiment is central to contentions of the supervisor's role in eliciting POS in organisational support theory. Eisenberger et al. (2002) note, for example, that supervisors contribute to POS to the extent that they are identified with the organisation. In a later study, Eisenberger et al. (2010) found that as embodiment increased so too did the relationship between LMX and affective organisational commitment. This result endorses the moderating role of supervisory embodiment as it shows that the particular relationship between a supervisor and an employee can have a bearing on the general relationship between an organisation and an employee. When, for instance, an employee feels short-changed by a supervisor, then the employee is likely to feel short-changed by the organisation as well if that supervisor is perceived as acting on its behalf. From this, it is hypothesised that:

*H4: Supervisory embodiment moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships, such that the relationship is stronger when supervisors are perceived as embodying the organisation.*

## 5.2 Methods

As mentioned in chapter 3, a repeat time-lagged survey was carried out at two points in time, with a 3 month gap between the measurements. The data utilised in this study is based on both measurements, such that data for the independent variables was taken from Time 1, and data for the dependent variable was taken from Time 2.

### 5.2.1 Participants

Participants included 139 doctors (most in their residency) located abroad, of which 78 (56.1%) were male, working at different medical institutions – both public (hospitals and HMOs) and private (hospitals and clinics). The mean age was 32.9 (SD = 4.59), and respondents had an average tenure of 2.34 years (SD = 0.92).

In Time 1, 1,013 doctors were approached, and 202 responded, making up a 20% response rate. In Time 2, surveys were made available to the 202 doctors who responded in Time 1, out of which 139 responded, making up a 68.8% response rate in Time 2, and a 13.7% response rate overall. Although this response rate might seem low, and consequently pose a threat to the representativeness of the sample, as Templeton, Deehan, Taylor, Drummond, & Strang (1997) note in relation to low response rate of medical

doctors in the U.K., “a representative sample is not necessarily guaranteed by a high response rate” (p. 94). In this case, the low response rate can also be explained by the email addresses obtained, some of which might have been outdated and no longer in use, considering they were approximately 8 years old. It should also be noted that I found no significant difference between the characteristics of respondents in Time 1 and of those in Time 2, such that the average age, tenure and proportion between male and female respondents was almost identical. Therefore concerns pertaining to self-selection bias between Time 1 and Time 2 can be assuaged.

### 5.2.2 *Procedure*

Prior to launching the study, a pilot study was conducted in order to ensure that the content of the survey was clear and adequate for the chosen sample, to assess if adaptations were necessary so as to fit the relevant context, and to make sure that the survey length was feasible. A description of the pilot is provided below.

#### The Pilot Study

*Participants.* The five pilot group members were chosen from the target sample. Three of the respondents were male and the mean age was 36.2 (SD = 3.03). Respondents had been working in their organisations for an average of 4.2 years (SD = 2.6).

*Procedure.* The pilot group members were approached by my contact person, a doctor himself: he emailed the participants directly, asking them to take part in a pilot study. The four individuals emailed were either friends or colleagues of my contact.

*Results.* The remarks made by the pilot sample included issues concerning: (a) survey length, (b) the progress bar, and (c) terminology and language. First, the most noticeable remark had to do with the length of the survey. As all the doctors found the survey too long, I was concerned about attrition rates and, as a result, about the eventual sample size. In response to these concerns, I shortened the introductory text and the instructions wherever possible. I also shortened the abusive supervision scale as described later in this chapter. A second comment related to the progress bar which appeared at the bottom of each page of the survey, and was intended to inform respondents about their progress and completion state. Respondents felt that the bar was not reliable in that the progress shown did not correspond with the actual questions answered. I dealt with this issue by eliminating the progress bar and informing the respondents about the number of screens that the survey contained so that they could have a sense of how far along they are in completing the survey. The third point related to remuneration. The pilot group remarked that given their busy schedules and frequent calls to participate in academic research, many doctors would not consider filling out the questionnaire unless they receive something significant in return. Last, the pilot group suggested clarifying some of the terminology or phrases, as not all of the potential respondents are native English speakers. As a result, the terms “HMO” and “resident” were followed by a short explanation, and I altered the item wording “raw deal” to “unfair deal”. These changes resulted in the final survey (presented in Appendix 13).

### The study

In order to gather Time 1 data, the two doctors who were my contacts sent recruitment emails to fellow doctors on my behalf. Respondents were provided with a brief research outline followed by an informed consent and a request to complete two surveys; the first

was to be completed at their earliest convenience by following a link to an online Qualtrics survey provided in the email (the recruitment email is shown in Appendix 14). Respondents were also informed that they would be contacted in the near future with a request to complete a second survey through another link.

To facilitate responses and to encourage doctors to fill out two surveys (in Time 1 and Time 2), there was a promise of a \$30 Amazon gift voucher to be emailed to them upon completing both surveys. In addition, due to low response rates, a reminder email was sent after one week in each data gathering point (the reminder email is provided in Appendix 15).

The first data collection phase took place over a two-week time period in July-August 2014 and garnered 202 respondents, a response rate of approximately 20%. In the second phase, which took place three months later and took place over a three-week time period in October-November 2014, another email was sent to the 202 respondents who had completed the first survey, with a request to follow a second Qualtrics link. Once again, initial response rates were low, so a reminder email was sent. After several weeks, a total of 139 responses were gathered in, and the online survey was duly locked. All of the respondents that completed both surveys were then emailed the Amazon gift card.

### 5.2.3 *Measures*

The survey was comprised of questions which included self-report measures of PERs as the dependent variable. It also contained questions testing for independent variables (abusive supervision, effort-reward imbalance, supervisory embodiment and perceived greed of the organisation), and the control variables (age, gender, and job tenure). These measures as well as the rationale behind the choices of controls are described below. It

should also be noted that while the PERs data was taken from Time 2, the data for all the other variables was taken from Time 1.

### Dependent variable

*Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships.* PERs were measured using the 14-item scale developed as a part of this thesis and as described in chapter 4.

### Independent variables

*Abusive supervision.* Abusive supervision was measured with ten items from Tepper's (2000) measure of abusive supervision, which was used in chapter 4. Due to restrictions of survey length, I was not able to use all 15 items. Instead, following the procedure undertaken by Harris et al. (2007), I chose 10 items ( $\alpha = .92$ ) that (a) had high loadings on the main factor, (b) were highly representative of the AS construct, and (c) captured a wide range of AS behaviours. The response scale remained the same.

*Supervisory embodiment.* Supervisory embodiment was evaluated using a 9-item scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (2010). Respondents were asked to state their level of agreement on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree*, to 7 = *strongly agree* with statements such as: "When my supervisor encourages me, I believe that my organisation is encouraging me", and "My supervisor is representative of my organisation".

*Effort-reward imbalance.* An effort-reward imbalance was measured using the effort-reward imbalance questionnaire short form (Siegrist, Wege, Pühlhofer & Wahrendorf, 2009) which is based on the scale developed by Siegrist et al. (2004). Responses were

recorded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. Sample items include, “I have constant time pressure due to a heavy work load”, and “My job promotion prospects are poor”. It should be noted that the response scale was altered from its original 4-point anchors to 5 points, for the sake of consistency.

*Perceived greed of the organisation.* Employees’ perceptions of the greed of their organisation were measured using four items adapted from Grégoire, Laufer & Tripp (2010). Sample items include “The organisation is primarily motivated by its own interest”, and “The organisation intends to take advantage of me”. For the sake of consistency with the other questions in the survey, and for the sake of clarity, the response scale was altered from its original version to include 7 anchors ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*. The original version was worded and structured as follows: “*The company was primarily motivated by... ‘my interests’ (1) vs. ‘its own interest’ (7)*”, and “*The company ‘did not intend’ (1) vs. ‘intended’ (7) to take advantage of me.*”

### Control variables

The control variables of age, gender and job tenure were chosen firstly, due to their potential to bias the results as detailed below, and secondly, as they were found to be significantly correlated with PERs in the MTurk or construction workers’ sample. Becker (2005) stresses the importance of measuring control variables that are correlated with the dependent variable, as this suggests that the control is a legitimate suppressor. Education, however, which was measured as a control variable in the prior studies (presented in chapter 4) and found to significantly correlate with PERs, was omitted here because all of the participants have M.D.s. The measures and choices of these control variables are described below.

*Age.* Age was measured because older individuals are better able to regulate their emotions, and consequently can respond less emotionally to events (Carstensen et al., 1999), and they tend to experience less negative affectivity (Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001). These differences among age groups also have an impact on work attitudes and behaviours (e.g. Rhodes, 1983; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Therefore age was likely to affect PERs and was thus controlled for. Age was measured as a continuous variable.

*Gender.* Gender was measured as past research has shown that men and women tend to perceive and react to workplace events, and particularly to negative ones, in different ways. Gender also accounts for differences in the perceived severity of the events (Escartín, Salin, and Rodríguez-Carballeira, 2011). Thus, gender might impact the prevalence as well as the experienced intensity of PERs. The two categories were coded such that 1 = male, 2 = female.

*Job Tenure.* Job tenure was measured in light of prior research, which has found negative relationships between tenure and workplace attitudes and behaviours (Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Wright & Bonett, 1997), indicating that tenure might also influence employees' perceptions. It is important to note that job tenure was measured independently of age, as research to date has found a differential effect of these variables on outcomes (e.g. Wright & Bonett, 2002). As performance is likely to improve with experience (Schmidt, Hunter, & Outerbridge, 1986), which often results in higher compensation, and as benefits such as seniority or vacation days accrue with time (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), tenure might be related to PERs. Respondents were asked to state the total length of time they had worked for their current organisation. Responses were recorded as a categorical variable such that

1 = under 6 months, 2 = 6-12 months, 3 = 1-5 years, and 4 = over 5 years. Responses were recorded in this way to reflect the career stages of the doctors in the sample (e.g. the first category is likely to include interns, whereas the fourth category is likely to include specialists).

#### 5.2.4 *Analytic Strategy*

In keeping with Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) recommendation, and as mentioned in chapter 3, I went about testing the model of the antecedents of PERs (Figure 5.1) in two stages. The first stage was a preliminary analysis in which the measurement model was confirmed via a CFA. A supplementary CFA was conducted to ensure the distinctness of the five constructs included. This latter CFA, which includes all the variables, compares a single factor to a five-factor model in order to ensure that there is no overlap between PERs and the other constructs. The second stage is dedicated to the hypotheses testing. The model was tested with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS software (Arbuckle, 2012), version 21.0. Maximum Likelihood was used for parameter estimation, which is the default setting in AMOS.

#### 5.2.5 *Results*

Descriptive statistics, correlations and reliabilities (Cronbach alpha) for the variables in this study are presented in Table 5.1. Tables 5.2–5.5 present the results of two CFAs. The first CFA compares factor loadings (Table 5.2) and model fit (Table 5.3) of PERs as a 1, 2, 3 and 4- factor variable. The second CFA compares factor loadings (Table 5.4) and model fit (Table 5.5) of PERs, effort-reward imbalance, abusive supervision, perceived greed of

the organisation and supervisory embodiment in order to account for their distinctness.

Figure 5.2 summarises the hypothesised model of the antecedents of perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships with the path coefficients that were found.

As shown in Table 5.1, reliabilities were high for all the variables (for PERs,  $\alpha = .95$ , indicating excellent reliability). PERs were found to be significantly and positively correlated with abusive supervision ( $r = .440, p < .01$ ), with effort-reward imbalance ( $r = .507, p < .01$ ), and with perceived greed of the organisation ( $r = .781, p < .01$ ).

*Table 5.1. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities*

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	32.9	4.6	-							
2. Gender	1.44	0.49	-.052	-						
3. Job Tenure	2.34	0.92	.494**	-.041	-					
4. Sup. Embod.	4.34	1.16	-.127	.012	.027	<b>(.93)</b>				
5. AS	1.67	0.70	-.014	.105	.092	.267**	<b>(.92)</b>			
6. ERI	3.08	0.51	-.041	.018	.085	.078	.497**	<b>(.80)</b>		
7. Greed	3.71	1.16	.001	.031	.028	.044	.360**	.336**	<b>(.80)</b>	
8. PERs	3.25	1.34	-.066	.065	-.008	.048	.440**	.507**	.781**	<b>(.95)</b>

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup>  $N = 139$ .

<sup>b</sup> Reliabilities (Cronbach alphas) are presented in boldface along the diagonal.

<sup>c</sup> Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female.

<sup>d</sup> All of the variables were measured in Time 1, except for PERs, which were measured in Time 2.

<sup>e</sup> Sup. Embod. = supervisory embodiment, AS = abusive supervision, ERI = effort-reward imbalance, Greed = perceived greed, PERs = perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.

<sup>f</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ , \* $p < .05$ .

### Preliminary analysis: CFA Results

As mentioned earlier, the first CFA was conducted for the purpose of confirming the measurement model. This CFA is necessary for testing the model according to Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) approach. Results are shown in Tables 5.2 and 5.3. Table 5.2

(shown in Appendix 16) presents the results of the factor loadings of the PERs items onto 1, 2, 3 and 4-factor models.

Using Hinkin's (1998) heuristic for analysing factor loadings, according to which a "loading of greater than .40 and/or a loading twice as strong on the appropriate factor than on any other factor" (p. 112) is acceptable, we can observe that all items loaded highly onto one factor (loadings between .61 and .85). By contrast, the loadings of the 2-factor model were more ambiguous with several items approaching cross loadings. The results of the 3-factor and 4-factor model were similar to those of the 2-factor model, with some items not loading clearly onto any factor at all.

Turning to the comparison of model fit between a single, 2, 3 and 4-factor model (Table 5.3), it is clear that the single factor model provided the best fit for the data, despite the fact that only the SRMR index surpassed the official cut-off criteria, while the other indices only approached good fit. Two arguments support this conclusion. First, rather than assessing absolute model fit, the indices should be used in a comparative manner in order to determine which competing model has the best fit. As Schreiber et al. (2006) note, "from an evaluation perspective, we determine which model fits the data best" (p. 330). When evaluating the results in a comparative manner, we see that, in this case, the one-factor model provided the best fit for the data, because of all the models, the one-factor model had the lowest  $\chi^2/df$  ratio at 7.5, the lowest RMSEA at .17, the highest CFI at .80, the highest TLI at .80, and the lowest SRMR at .07.

Second, the fact that not all of the results surpassed the cut-off criteria can be explained by the sample size which can influence these indices. For example, CFI results have been noted to improve when  $N > 400$ , and chi-square to worsen when sample sizes surpass  $N = 50$  (Marsh, Hau & Wen, 2004). Therefore, the current sample size of  $N = 139$

might have had a negative impact upon the results of these indices. Consequently, I conclude that overall, the results of the CFA support the uni-dimensionality of PERs.

*Table 5.3. Comparison of Uni- versus Multi-Dimensionality of PERs in Doctors Sample*

Model	Factors	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR (NNFI)
1	<i>One factor:</i> Unitary factor structure	574.9	77	7.5	.17	.80	.80	.07
2	<i>Two factors:</i> General exploitation, other	693.5	77	9.0	.20	.75	.70	.38
3	<i>Three factors:</i> General exploitation, resources, other	810.0	77	10.5	.21	.70	.64	.44
4	<i>Four factors:</i> General exploitation, resources, credit, wellbeing	810.8	77	10.5	.21	.69	.64	.44

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> $N=139$ .

<sup>b</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ , \* $p < .05$ .

The goal of the second CFA was to confirm the distinctness of the constructs in the model. This task was particularly important given the moderate to high correlations between PERs and some of the other variables that were measured (these correlations were presented in Table 5.1). The results of this are shown in Tables 5.4 and 5.5, the former presenting the factor loadings of the items, and the latter providing the model fit results. As shown in Table 5.4 (in Appendix 17), all of the items loaded onto their intended constructs. Specifically, the PERs item loadings ranged from 0.58 to 0.88, the abusive supervision item loadings from 0.53 to 0.83, the supervisory embodiment item loadings from 0.49 to 0.94, the ERI item loadings from 0.44 to 0.88, and the perceived greed item loadings from 0.63 to 0.76.

I was able to confirm this result by comparing the model fit between a 5-factor model (PERs, abusive supervision, supervisory embodiment, ERI and perceived greed of the organisation) and a single factor model, which did not differentiate between the factors. As shown in Table 5.5, the 5-factor model approached good fit and provided a significantly better fit for the data than the one-factor model. Taken together, these results suggest that PERs are distinguishable from the variables which are hypothesised to predict them.

*Table 5.5. Model Fit Comparison of a Single- Factor versus a Five-Factor Model*

Model	Factors	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR (NNFI)
1	<i>Five factors</i>	1955.04	1269	1.54	.06	.87	.71	.12
2	<i>One factor</i>	3106.66	1279	2.43	.10	.66	.54	.14

Notes:

<sup>a</sup>  $N=139$ .

<sup>b</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ , \* $p < .05$ .

Having described the results of the preliminary analysis, which confirm the measurement model and provide support for the distinctness of the measured variables in the model, I now move on to the second stage of the analysis – presenting the results of the hypothesised relationships.

### Results of the hypotheses

To reiterate, the hypotheses testing includes both a test of the hypothesised direct effects of an effort-reward imbalance and abusive supervision on PERs, and a test of the hypothesised interaction effects with perceived greed of the organisation and supervisory embodiment. This section also includes a test of an alternative model to check whether a reversed-causal effect exists, to see if the PERs measured in Time 1 predict the

independent variables included in the model measured in Time 2. If PERs are predictive of these variables, then the hypothesised direction of effect is not supported.

As stated, the structural model of antecedents in its entirety was tested with SEM. Different models were assessed in order to determine which one provides the best fit for the data: with and without modification (Hinkin, 1998) using the standard modification indices on AMOS, and with and without controls. As shown in Table 5.6, the modified hypothesised model with controls (model 4) provides the best fit for the data. The fit indices indicate an excellent fit for this model.

*Table 5.6. Fit of Hypothesised Model of Antecedents*

Model	$\chi^2$	df	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR (NNFI)
1. Hypothesised Model (no controls)	113.66	15	7.58	.22	.50	.48	.21
2. Modified Hypothesised Model (no controls)	19.04	6	3.17	.02	.93	.91	.09
3. Hypothesised Model (with controls)	165.23	36	4.59	.16	.44	.40	.17
4. Modified Hypothesised Model (with controls)	20.76	24	0.86	.00	1.00	.92	.06

*Notes:*

<sup>a</sup>*N* = 139.

<sup>b</sup> \*\**p* < .01, \**p* < .05.

<sup>c</sup>Control variables include age, gender and job tenure.

In turning attention to each individual hypothesis, H1 and H3 predicted direct and main effects between abusive supervision and PERs and between an effort-reward imbalance and PERs. The results of the direct effects are presented in Table 5.7. It can be

seen that H1 was supported ( $\beta = .236, p < .01$ ), but not H3 ( $\beta = .108, p = \text{ns}$ ), meaning that an effort-reward imbalance, but not abusive supervision, predicts PERs.

*Table 5.7. Results of Hypothesised Direct Effects*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
Effort-Reward Imbalance (Time 1)	→ PERs (Time 2)	.236	.184	.000
Abusive Supervision (Time 1)	→ PERs (Time 2)	.108	.146	.136

Notes:

<sup>a</sup>  $N=139$ .

<sup>b</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ , \* $p < .05$ .

Next, H2 and H4 predicted interaction effects. H2 predicted that perceived greed of the organisation moderates the relationship between effort-reward imbalance and PERs. As shown in Table 5.8, this hypothesis was not supported ( $\beta = -.012, p = \text{ns}$ ); however, perceived greed was found to have a direct effect on PERs ( $\beta = .552, p < .01$ ). H4 predicted that supervisory embodiment moderates the relationship between abusive supervision and PERs. This hypotheses was not supported either ( $\beta = .027, p = \text{ns}$ ). For the sake of clarity, all of these results are summarised diagrammatically in Figure 5.2.

Table 5.8. Results of Hypothesised Interaction Effects

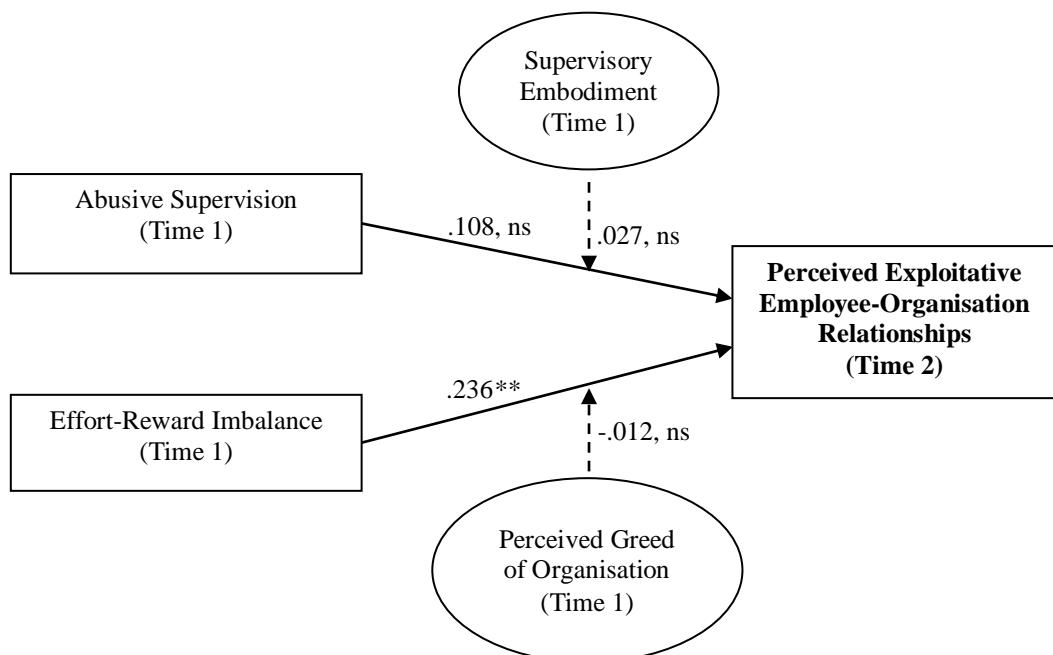
Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
Effort-Reward Imbalance (Time 1) X	→ PERs (Time 2)	-.012	.069	.841
Perceived Greed (Time 1)				
Abusive Supervision (Time 1) X	→ PERs (Time 2)	.027	.072	.651
Supervisory Embodiment (Time 1)				

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N=139.

<sup>b</sup> \*\* $p < .01$ , \* $p < .05$ .

Figure 5.2. Hypothesised Model of the Antecedents of PERs with Path Coefficients



Note. \*\* $p < .01$ .

Having found partial support for the hypothesised relationships, I now turn to describing a test of an alternative model in order to rule out the possibility of reverse causality.

### Alternative SEM model

In order to eliminate reverse causality, I tested a non-hypothesised alternative model (whereby PERs at Time 1 lead to the hypothesised antecedent variables at Time 2). Table 5.9 presents the results of this alternative model. From this table the only significant relationship was between PERs at Time 1 and abusive supervision at Time 2 ( $\beta = .448, p < .01$ ). It appears, contrary to expectations, that PERs predicts abusive supervision.

*Table 5.9. Results of an Alternative Model of Reversed Causality*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
PERs (Time 1)	→ Effort-Reward Imbalance (Time2)	.074	.035	.332
PERs (Time 1)	→ Abusive Supervision (Time 2)	.448	.030	.000
PERs (Time 1)	→ Perceived Greed (Time 2)	-.115	.054	.339
PERs (Time 1)	→ Supervisory Embodiment (Time 2)	.077	.034	.188

Notes:

<sup>a</sup>  $N=139$ .

<sup>b</sup>  $**p < .01, *p < .05$ .

### 5.3 Discussion

The investigation just undertaken was an exploratory attempt to identify potential antecedents of PERs. Upon close examination of the empirical data, only partial support for these hypotheses was found, and some unexpected results also emerged. We may thus group the results into three categories: (a) significant findings, (b) insignificant findings, and (c) unexpected findings.

#### Significant findings

*Direct effect of effort-reward imbalance on PERs.* A significant finding is that an effort-reward imbalance, that is to say, the disparities between contributions (giving) and benefits (getting) in the workplace, leads to the development of PERs. Aside from the interesting theoretical implication for how PERs develop, re-affirming the distributive nature of PERs extends the budding research on negative EORs to include distributive-based phenomena. In doing so, this finding contributes to mapping the negative EOR domain and understanding some of their potential dimensions.

In framing the discussion surrounding dimensions, or types of negative EORs, PERs, as a distributive phenomenon, can be differentiated from other negative EOR constructs, such as POC (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012)- an interactional-based phenomenon. To exemplify the importance of this point from an organisational justice literature perspective, the different dimensions of justice can be understood through their causes. Accordingly, distributive justice is primarily determined by justice of decision outcomes (e.g. Leventhal, 1976) in terms of compensation or reward (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992); procedural justice is determined by the justice of the processes that lead

to outcomes, including lack of bias, representation and ethicality (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal et al., 1980); and interactional justice is the product of respectful and sensitive treatment, or the “interpersonal treatment people receive as procedures are enacted” (Colquitt, 2001: 386).

This comparison between justice and negative EORs poses the possibility that the negative EOR domain might also be best captured by conceptualising the different causes of the constructs. Given the relative newness of the concepts of POO and POC, little is known about their development and their antecedents. So this thesis provides the first empirical investigation of the antecedents of a negative type of EOR, and has initially established its distributive foundation. In light of the definition of POO as “an employee’s belief that the organization obstructs, hinders or interferes with the accomplishment of his or her goals and is a detriment to his or her well-being” (Gibney et al., 2009: 667) and of POC as “the employee’s perception that the organization holds him/her in contempt, has no respect for him or her personally and treats him or her in a manner that is intentionally inhumane” (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012: 141) it is likely that these constructs represent another type of underlying phenomenon, perhaps an interactional one, with their own unique antecedents. Thus, confirming that an effort-reward imbalance has a direct effect on PERs contributes to mapping the negative EOR constructs upon their distinct causes.

### Insignificant findings

*Abusive supervision does not lead to PERs as hypothesised.* The findings in this study negate the earlier hypothesis about the supervisor’s role, according to which abusive supervisors, to the extent that they were viewed by the employee as representing the organisation, contributed to the development of PERs. Such was found not to be the case. These results are particularly surprising given the evidence from past research for the

impact of supervisory treatment on the development of employee perceptions of their EOR. Drawing on the personification argument (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007), which highlighted the obligations and responsibilities that organisations hold for their agents, such as supervisors (Eisenberger et al., 1986), the POS literature had shown that employee perceptions of a supervisor's support contribute to employees' perceptions of support from their organisation (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006).

Although the idea of anthropomorphism whereby an employee attributes human characteristics to an organisation is reinforced in organisational support theory, it has not been a subject of inspection in other EOR contexts (Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Indeed the fact that abusive supervision was not found to lead to PERS might have important implications, as it provides preliminary support for negative asymmetry of outcomes of positive and negative relationships.

Taking a step back to explain this conclusion, a prevalent view in the social exchange literature, and as a result in OB research, which draws heavily on the tenets of social exchange, has been that negative relationships are polar opposites of positive relationships. Sahlins (1972) saw reciprocity in terms of a continuum, with generalised (that is to say positive) reciprocity on one end, and negative reciprocity on the other. Yet, if this were true and PERs were indeed a mirror opposite of POS, then one would expect that they would have the same antecedent, only in mirror opposites. In other words, if POS is engendered by positive treatment from the organisation and from the supervisor, then by the same token, we would expect PERs to be caused by negative treatment from the organisation and from the supervisor. The fact that my findings show that there is no causal relationship with PERs on the supervisory level, provides initial support for the negative asymmetry perspective, according to which positive and negative events are not polar opposites, but distinct entities.

### Unexpected findings

*Significant direct effect of perceived greed of the organisation on PERs.* An interesting finding was that perceived greed of the organisation had a direct effect on PERs. In fact, it was stronger than the effect of effort-reward imbalance. This result suggests the possibility that workplace exploitation need not actually be experienced in order to be perceived, and reinforces the notion that blame attribution, or a cognitive appraisal of an offense (Aquino et al., 2001), is in itself sufficient to give rise to PERs. In other words, a belief that an employer is motivated by greedy intent is an independent predictor of PERs.

A potential explanation for this can be drawn from the literature on narrative psychology, which focuses on the meaning and interpretations that individuals provide for events (Crossley, 2000a, 2000b), and is concerned with the stories that individuals tell themselves about events that shape their beliefs and experiences (Murray, 2003). There is even evidence that these narratives can become more powerful predictors of attitudes and behaviours than the actual event. For instance, post-traumatic stress research suggests that the story that individuals tell themselves about an event can engender a post-traumatic experience, an impression which can perhaps be corrected by updating information about the event (Ehlers, Hackmann & Michael, 2004). There is even evidence to suggest that interpretations of events can be made without any direct evidence of their truthfulness. For instance, conflict research has shown that groups have clashed over stories that they tell themselves and believe regardless of whether they are in fact true (Eidelson & Eidelson, 2003).

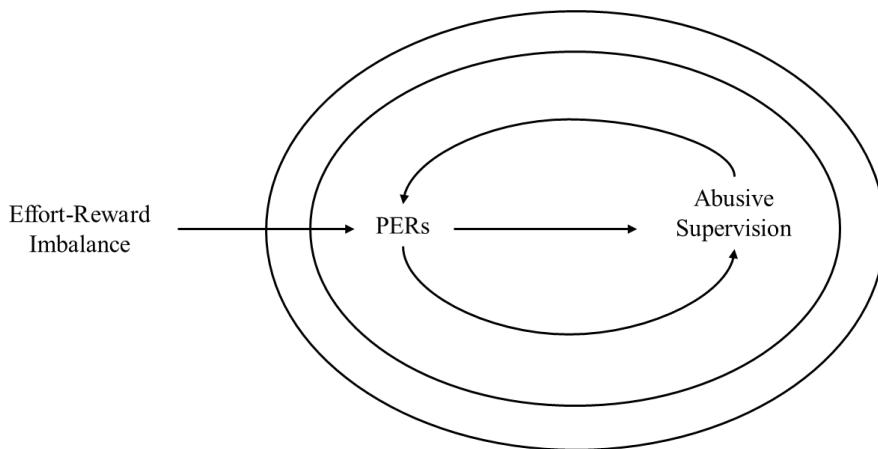
*Significant direct effect of PERs on abusive supervision.* A coincidental finding, which followed a test of an alternative model of reverse causality of antecedents of PERs, was

that abusive supervision measured in Time 1 did not predict PERs measured in Time 2, but rather, that PERs measured in Time 1 predicted abusive supervision in Time 2 (but not effort-reward imbalance, perceived greed, or supervisory embodiment in Time 2). This finding is thought-provoking as it implies that when an employee experiences PERs, it might somehow bring about subsequent abusive supervision, which did not exist before PERs were experienced.

Two possible explanations exist for this finding. The first rests on the idea of the displacement of negative emotions (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939; Miller, 1941; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) and the ensuing negative reciprocation of the supervisor. The concept of displacement refers to people's tendency to respond to a negative event or events indirectly, by expressing hostility toward a more available target (Tepper, Henle, Lambert, Giacalone & Duffy, 2008). Despite the risk of upsetting superiors, supervisors are more convenient targets than the organisation, as they are organisational representatives with whom the employees are in direct contact.

Second, PERs create negative reciprocity on the employee's part which manifests itself in problematic workplace behaviours such as reduced effort or performance. The supervisor then might negatively react to this deterioration and become what the employee perceives as an abusive supervisor. In either case, this might generate a 'vicious cycle' of negative reciprocal exchanges as the supervisor reacts to the begrudging employee, culminating in employees' view of the supervisor as abusive. Over time, through their mistreatment and control over resources abusive supervisors might, consciously or unconsciously, deepen and further strengthen employees' perceptions of exploitation. This interpretation of the finding is illustrated in Figure 5.3.

*Figure 5.3. Speculated Relationship between Variables in the Current Study*



### 5.3.1 Limitations

Although an effort was made to alleviate challenges associated with this study, a couple of limitations remain<sup>4</sup>, which include: (a) the generalisability of the results, and (b) the comprehensiveness of the model and variables included in the study.

The first limitation has to do with the nature of the sample and the organisations in which the respondents were typically employed. These are doctors working in medical institutions, most of which are publicly funded. The issue that arises from this specific setting is the generalisability of the results. For instance, blame attributions of employees working in the public sector might be different from those of employees working in the private sector, such that public sector employees might attribute blame to factors that are external to the organisation, like the government which is responsible for resource allocation. Indeed past research has shown that whether organisations operate in the state

<sup>4</sup> This section discusses limitations specific to this study. The broader limitations of this thesis are detailed in chapter 7.

or in the private sector has an effect on attitudes and behaviours of employees such as attitudes and behaviours (Zeffane, 1994; Naff & Crum, 1999; DeSantis & Durst, 1996).

Thus, the findings of this study should be carefully interpreted, and research in different settings is required before generalising the conclusions to other populations or samples.

A second limitation has to do with the comprehensiveness of the model, which is limited by the determinate number of variables included: an array of potential additional antecedents was not accounted for in this preliminary investigation. However, as this study provides a first attempt to test the antecedents of PERs, it was felt safer to choose variables that had already been investigated in the OB literature. As PERs bear resemblance to existing constructs in that it is a subjective, organisation-based phenomenon, a good starting point was investigating antecedents that were previously investigated. This limitation as well as others can be addressed in the future.

### 5.3.2 *Future Research*

Several potential routes for future investigation are proposed. These are: (a) investigating other potential antecedents to PERs, (b) use of other types of samples, (c) further exploring the role of perceived greed of the organisation as a stand-alone antecedent of PERs, and (d) additional research into the relationship between abusive supervision and PERs. These suggestions are expanded upon in turn.

#### Investigating other potential antecedents to PERs

Due to the scope of this thesis as well as measurement considerations, many potential antecedents of PERs were not taken into account in the current study. However, other

variables, whether on the individual, job, group or organisational levels, may contribute to the development of PERs among employees.

*Antecedents on the individual level.* Many individual differences have been found to have an impact upon employees' perceptions, attitudes to and behaviours within organisations, and these might influence the development of PERs as well. The plethora of individual differences allows for many potential research directions. Two useful metrics of differences are those that pertain to personality and those that are involuntary. A prominent personality feature that has the potential to influence perceptions of PERs is negative affectivity (e.g. Watson & Clark, 1984). Aquino and Bradfield (2000) state that, "high negative affectivity persons are more likely to make hostile attributions or to interpret stimuli more negatively" (p. 534). If, therefore, individuals are predisposed to perceive and interpret events as negative, then it seems intuitively true to say that they will be more likely to experience PERs. Another example of a personality feature that can predict PERs is a tendency towards internalising, rather than externalising problems, which has been found to make people more susceptible to abuse and victimisation by others (Hodges & Perry, 1999). It would, therefore, be interesting to explore whether internalising work-related problems or issues related to workplace relationships predicts PERs, as it makes these individuals more likely targets.

Involuntary attributes, such as age and gender, may well be correlated with the development of PERs in some people rather than others. Past research has convincingly shown that these variables impact attitudes and behaviours in the organisational context. Indeed in the construction sample a positive and significant correlation was found between age and PERs, possibly because age has a "constraining influence on alternative employment" (Cohen, 1992: 542). As older employees' employment options are likely to

be fewer or even non-existent, they might be more likely to view their current work relationship as exploitative, precisely because they have no way of ‘getting out’ of the situation. In other words, their lack of wider opportunity may translate into default negative perceptions. Thus past research as well as the current finding in regards to the correlation between age and PERs provides incentive for further investigation of this relationship.

Gender can also sway perceptions of exploitation. Based on the results of the MTurk sample, in which a significant positive correlation was found between being female and perceiving exploitation, and based on prior research, being female might contribute to negative workplace experiences (Crothers, Lipinski & Minutolo, 2009), and therefore possibly to PERs. One explanation for this is that women still have fewer employment opportunities (Angle and Perry, 1983), which makes them more likely to be exploited. Another related reason is that women tend to have lower job status (Cohen, 1992), making them less powerful players in their relationship to their organisation, and thus more subject to exploitation. From a psycho-social perspective, female employees tend to put value on empathetic workplace relationships (e.g. Cundiff & Komarraju, 2008). Precisely because this value is under attack in exploitative relationships, their perceptions are by default more attune to lacks in this regard.

*Role-related predictors of PERs.* Research to date suggests that the contract status of the employee, such as contracted, temporary or part-time work, and the characteristics of the job, such as role ambiguity and role conflict, can have a significant impact upon the employee’s work-related perceptions and attitudes.

The contract status held by an employee, a permanent versus a contractual position, for example, might have bearing on whether the employee is subject to exploitation, or

perceives it as such. As contractual employees are often paid less than their permanent counterparts for performing the same job (Kalleberg, Reskin & Hudson, 2000), and as the hire of such employees represent a flexible employment strategy of organisations (Purcell, 1998), which allow the hiring and firing of employees at will, such employees might be more likely to feel exploited by their employers<sup>5</sup>.

However, a note of caution is necessary here, as some research has nuanced these broad points considerably. Pearce's (1998b, 1993a) research is a case in point. Pearce found that contracted, non-permanent employees, who typically enjoy less job security than permanent employees, did not, in fact, display significant differences in help behaviours, organisational commitment, and other attitudes from permanent employees. This seems counter-intuitive but we would do well to note this piece of research. Furthermore, Pearce (1998b) provides a compelling account of the tension between such contracted and non-contracted employees, such that the permanent staff may come to resent the contingent employees for replacing permanent staff, and may actually feel threatened by them. Therefore a mixed permanent and non-permanent employment setting may paint a different picture in terms of the processes that lead to the development of PERs.

Next, role ambiguity and conflict as originally outlined by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) are job-level characteristics that might also influence PERs. Role ambiguity, or a lack of necessary information on the job, results in a lack of clarity about the position and its responsibilities (Schmidt, Roesler, Kusserow & Rau, 2014). Role conflict, which occurs when there are inconsistent expectations of an individual's

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<sup>5</sup> Short-term contracts may not easily lend themselves to the examination of PERs due to the exploitative relationship's ongoing exchange element. However, some contracted employees may remain with an organisation for a substantial amount of time, or repeatedly work with the same organisation, hence allowing for an EOR to develop. This renders contracted employees relevant in the investigation of the antecedents of PERs.

behaviour (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970), leads to psychological conflict and distress due to the employee's inability to fulfil simultaneously all of the roles expected of him or her (Schmidt et al., 2014). In combination with each other, role ambiguity and role conflict have been recorded as contributing to role stress, and consequently to a host of dysfunctional outcomes (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983). This physical and mental work overload might result in PERs as the employees evaluate the effort they put into the job as inordinate.

*Social or group-level indicators.* Research into social comparison and relative deprivation may well enable us to understand more about the social and group-level indicators for PERs. Relative Deprivation Theory (Martin, 1981; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984) emphasises relative reward (Sweeney et al., 1990), and the discontent felt by individuals who believe that they have been deprived of something (a reward) to which they think they are entitled (Walker & Smith, 2002). An important condition that must exist for the relative deprivation process to occur is social comparison (Festinger, 1954) because people might view themselves as deprived depending on how they compare their outcome or situation to that of the people around them (Tyler & Lind, 2002). Experienced deprivation is therefore relative because there is a lack of a universally agreed upon scale of rewards (Moore, 1978).

When individuals engage in social comparisons and conclude that they are deprived, they might develop perceptions that they are exploited. This comparison to a referent other intensifies the feeling of resource-loss especially because within groups who work together, where there are established rules and beliefs about rewards which "dictate proportionate relationships between individuals' investment in a task and the rewards they receive for performing it. As long as rewards [...] are roughly equal within a group, people

will feel that they are receiving just treatment" (Moore, 1978: 43). However, when employees receive different rewards for performing the same tasks or more demanding ones, they might perceive themselves to be relatively deprived and develop perceptions of exploitation.

*Organisational-level antecedents.* Precursors to PERs on the organisational level other than effort-reward imbalance need to be taken into consideration. The organisation's structure, which often impacts attributes, such as flow of organisational communication and degree of centralisation, is such an example. Since Worthy (1950) published a highly cited paper on 'flat' versus 'tall' organisations, the effects of such hierarchical structural differences on employee perceptions and attitudes have been extensively researched (e.g. Porter & Lawler, 1964; Anderson & Brown, 2010). 'Flat' organisations are those which have a less hierarchical, less centralised structure in which higher management is consequently more accessible.

A possible worthwhile endeavour would be to assess the development of PERs in organisational structures that are flatter than that of the typically very hierarchical medical institutions in which the resident doctors in the current sample are employed. A prediction based on the ability to directly communicate with upper management (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1997), would be that 'tall' organisations contribute to PERs, whereas 'flat' ones might inhibit their development. As flatter structures allow for more direct communication between top management and employees, then justifications for employees' outcomes can be provided directly, possibly mitigating negative effects, such as PERs.

'Flat' organisations have also been found to allow for self-actualisation and provide more autonomy than 'tall' organisations (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1975). This

broader span-of-control over one's job might be inversely related to PERs. Considering organisational structure in relation to PERs might thus be important for understanding its antecedents. While examining organisational structure from the perspective of communication and self-actualisation does not, evidently, exhaust all the possibilities for potential organisational-level antecedents, they are merely a recommendation for future research.

To conclude, having described some potential variables and characteristics that can guide future investigation of the antecedents of PERs, I shall now discuss prospective research from another angle, that is to say the use of different samples.

#### Examining other types of samples

The sample selection can greatly impact the results of a study (Vella, 1998). Therefore, it is important to test hypothesised relationships in more than one sample in order to reduce sample selection bias and increase the representativeness and generalisability of a study's results. As the sample employed in the current study was predominantly comprised of public sector employees, an equally relevant project would be to explore the antecedents of PERs in the private sector setting. Moreover, samples with a lower average level of education than that of doctors could also be tested, as the high level of education of all the respondents in the current sample is unusual and perhaps unrepresentative of most working environments. These propositions are elaborated upon below.

*Different sector.* Naff & Crum (1999) maintain that sector type is associated with the development of different attitudes and behaviours. We could infer from this that whether an organisation is publicly or privately funded may also impact employees' development of PERs. Having already established the potential importance of blame attributions (e.g.

Martinko, 1995) in the development of PERs earlier in this chapter, it is highly plausible to argue that these very attributions might be impacted by the way that the organisation is funded, because it influences the locus of causality (Martinko, 1995), or the internal versus external causal explanations that people give to events (Rotter, 1966). Accordingly, it seems plausible to argue that if organisations are funded by government, then an external attribution of blame may dominate employees' perceptions, which vindicates the organisation in the eyes of its employees. Alternatively, when organisations are privately funded, employees are more likely to perceive them as having control over their own policies and resources, and as a result, hold the organisation itself responsible for negative experiences and outcomes.

Nevertheless, the findings of this study actually show that doctors, most of whom work in public hospitals, experience higher levels of PERs ( $M= 3.25$ ) than their counterparts from the MTurk ( $M= 2.80$ ) and construction workers' ( $M= 3.20$ ) samples who work mostly in private companies. Yet, as these results may be sample-specific, future research on the impact of sector type on PERs may still be a worthwhile endeavour. An important characteristic of this sample, the consistently and unusually high level of education of all the respondents, may have influenced the results. Therefore, another type of sample worthy of future investigation is one which considers not only respondents with very high levels of education, as described below.

*Lower level of education.* Cohen (1992) suggests that relationships between antecedents and their outcomes in the organisational setting might differ across occupational groups, and offers an educationally-based categorisation of difference, which distinguishes between 'blue-collar' or low-status occupations, that often coincide with lower levels of education, and 'white-collar' high-status occupations, that often coincide with higher levels

of education. Although not all jobs and roles fall neatly into these two categories, and although organisations are very often comprised of individuals of varying educational backgrounds to accomplish different roles, the sample of doctors is homogenous in this respect. All of the respondents hold an M.D. by definition, and thus belong to the highly educated, high-status group, who have the prospect of a stable and in some cases well-paid career ahead of them. The results accordingly may well have been coloured by this factor. Thus it would be necessary to explore the causes of PERs in other educational and job status contexts as well, especially considering that low job status and lower levels of education are associated with low wage labour (e.g. Fershtman & Weiss, 1993) and perhaps also, by extension, more sensitive perceptions of exploitation.

Having provided examples of the utility of researching antecedents of PERs in other types of samples, the next two suggestions for future lines of inquiry are based on the unexpected results in this study pertaining to the direct effect of employees' perceived greed of the organisation on PERs and the reverse effect discovered between abusive supervision and PERs.

#### Perceived greed as an antecedent of PERs

The findings in this study suggest that employees' perceptions of an organisation's greed are positively associated with PERs and, in fact, seem to have a stronger effect than an effort-reward imbalance. This raises some interesting future research questions, such as: do attributions of greed inevitably lead to the development of PERs? In other words, can employees attribute greedy motives to the organisation, but not develop PERs?

One way to tackle these questions is by the conjecture of possible outlets that employees can use to vent their frustrations with their organisation, which they perceive as greedy, and that can consequently thwart the development of PERs. In her research,

Dhensa-Kahlon (2014) has shown that talk is a mechanism that employees use for recovery from a negative experience. It is plausible that talk might also help prevent, or at least alleviate the development of decidedly negative experiences and relationships. Talk is indeed fundamental to many therapeutic approaches today, as classically captured by Freud's theory of abreaction (Breuer & Freud, 1895). Thus, talk might not only serve as a recovery apparatus in the aftermath, but also as a buffer to the development of PERs.

Support for this contention can be found in the 'buffering effect' drawn from the social support literature (e.g. Cohen & McKay, 1984). The buffering effect occurs when the negative effects of stressful events and environments are mitigated by strong interpersonal relationships, most likely through talk. There is some good evidence to support the buffering hypothesis, especially when interpersonal resources are available (Cohen & Wills, 1985), and when the source of social support is work-related (e.g. Halbesleben, 2006). Thus, it may be an alluring line of investigation to examine just how and in what circumstances interpersonal relationships either within or external to work, guard individual employees against the full experience of PERs.

#### Unknotting the connection between abusive supervision and PERs

The second surprising finding in this study, that supervisor treatment does not in itself shape employees' perceptions about an exploitative relationship with the organisation, but rather that abusive supervision is an outcome of PERs, suggests that future research needs to explore the relationship between abusive supervision and PERs with longitudinal data to examine reciprocal effects. In other words, the replication of this finding would help to ascertain the relationship uncovered here.

If further support is provided for this relationship, whereby PERs lead to abusive supervision, then it would be helpful to promote research on the notion of negative

asymmetry (Labianca & Brass, 2006) in the workplace. As mentioned earlier, the theory of a negative asymmetry of relationships holds that negative relationships are not the mirror opposite of positive ones and they have distinct nomological networks (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). As Lewicki, McAllister & Bies (1998) state: "Whereas positive-valent and negative-valent constructs may be systematically negatively correlated, their antecedents and consequences usually are separate and distinct" (p. 448). This is clearly revealed in the significant difference between my finding that abusive supervision is an outcome not a cause of PERs, and the findings in the organisational support literature that mistreatment from the supervisor is an antecedent of low POS rather than an outcome of it. Such divergent findings can have far-reaching implications, not only for the debate between the view of relationships as existing along a continuum versus the negative asymmetry view, but also because, as stated previously, negative relationships might have a stronger explanatory power over attitudes and behaviours than positive ones.

The direct effect of PERs on abusive supervision also points to the need for further theorising and investigation into the exact means by which this process occurs. I accounted for this finding by the idea of displacement (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007), or more specifically, by 'displaced negative reciprocation' (Livne Ofer, Coyle-Shapiro & Shore, working paper) from the organisation to the supervisor. But other explanatory mechanisms should also be investigated in this context. The escalation principle, for example, captures a relationship which begins with a trigger event or events and leads to multiple interrelated dynamics (Woods & Patterson, 2001). This explanation offers a more generalised reciprocation perspective and might also account for the finding. So in the case where an employee experiences PERs, his or her negative attitude triggers negative supervisor behaviour, which then goes on to trigger in the employee acute perceptions of abusive

supervision. The cycle once begun is difficult to end: the dynamics of the relationship spiral downward.

#### **5.4 Conclusion**

Although still an embryonic account, this chapter has provided some detailed insight into the development of PERs. One important result is the corroboration of the finding in the previous chapter – that employees experience PERs, even in high-status professions, such as the medical profession. Another key finding is that abusive supervision does not significantly contribute to the development of PERs, as is the case in POS and the contribution of supportive supervision to the development of such perceptions. I interpreted this as evidence for negative asymmetry, indicating that positive and negative EORs are indeed distinct and separate constructs, and that, as Labianca & Brass, (2006) argue, “the evolution of negative relationships may be very different from positive relationships” (p. 599) . Thus, the finding further supports the distinctiveness of PERs as a phenomenon in itself. It cannot be defined as the mere lack of organisational support, or indeed another way of talking about low POS. It is a construct that needs to be considered on its own terms.

Having identified some antecedents of PERs, and equipped with a better understanding of what might cause and what might not cause them, I now move on to investigating the consequences of PERs.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **OUTCOMES OF PERCEIVED EXPLOITATIVE EMPLOYEE-ORGANISATION RELATIONSHIPS**

## 6.1 Introduction

“[...] if you wrong us shall we not revenge?”

—William Shakespeare, *The Merchant of Venice* (1596/1868: 37)

“Most subordinates conform [...] not because they have internalized the norms of the dominant, but because a structure of surveillance, reward, and punishment makes it prudent for them to comply”

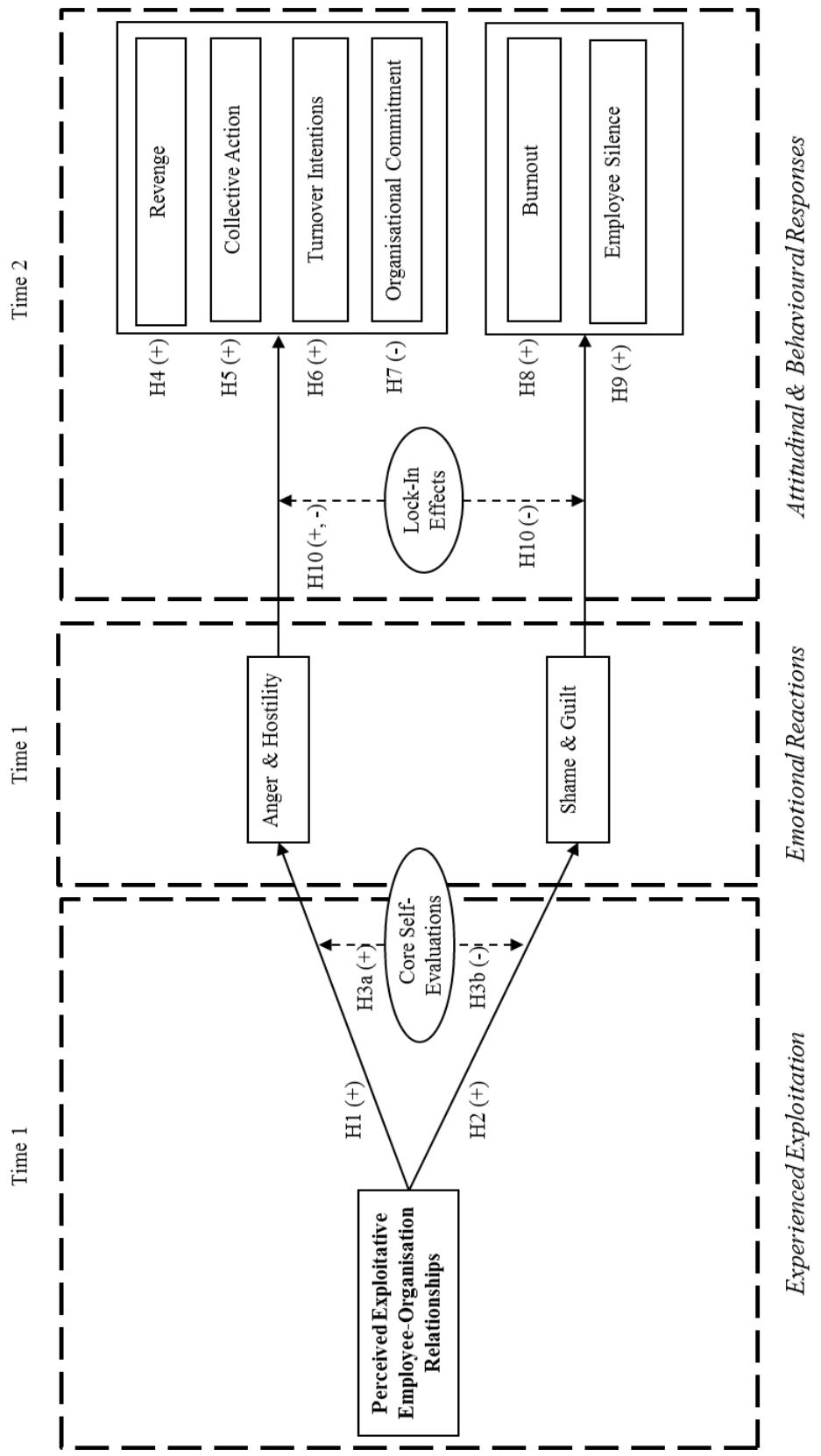
—James C. Scott, *Domination and the Arts of Resistance* (1990: 193)

Ranging from revenge to compliance, these quotations demonstrate the complexity and diversity of potential responses among weaker agents to mistreatment by stronger agents. This chapter complements the discussion of the antecedents of PERs, by focusing on the outcomes associated with the phenomenon. The goal of researching the outcomes of PERs is twofold. First, gaining insight into the repercussions of PERs can extend our limited knowledge of the outcomes of negative EORs. Examining such outcomes is an important task, particularly because negative events exert a stronger and longer lasting influence over outcomes than good events do (Baumeister et al., 2001). Second, examining the outcomes of PERs helps integrate the phenomenon into the wider organisational literature.

This chapter draws on two prominent theories in order to map the potential range of consequences of PERs. The first is Affective Events Theory (AET: Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which emphasises emotions as resulting directly from experienced events and regards them as major drivers of behaviour. As negative events have a pronounced role in

evoking negative emotional reactions (Taylor, 1991), AET provides the starting point for the examination of the consequences of PERs. Second, the Causal Reasoning Framework (Martinko et al., 2002), which links emotional and behavioural outcomes to causal attributions that individuals make about their unfavourable outcomes, can help to explain the variability in the outcomes of PERs. In combination, these two theories provide the underlying rationale for the chosen outcomes presented in Figure 6.1, which depicts the hypothesised model to be tested, and they are further elucidated in the coming sections.

*Figure 6.1. Hypothesised Outcomes of Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*



### 6.1.1 *Emotional Reactions to Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships*

This section explores the direct link between the experience of PERs in the workplace and emotional reactions. It also adopts the view of emotions as discrete categories (e.g. Roseman, Spindel & Jose, 1990), which is important given that the activation of different sets of emotions might have very distinct impacts on attitudinal and behavioural consequences. The section begins with a broader discussion of emotions in the organisational context, and then targets the specific discrete emotions which PERs are hypothesised to produce.

Emotions have been defined as adaptive reactions to the stimulus of environmental demands (Elfenbein, 2007). Emotions are distinct from cognitions, which are judgements or appraisals about work situations (Lee & Allen, 2002). They also differ from moods. Although emotions and moods are both affects, moods have less specific causes or precipitating events (Lee & Allen, 2002) whereas emotions have more clearly defined triggers (Frijda, 1993) and are often viewed by researchers as triggered states (Dickerson, Kemeny, Aziz, Kim & Fahey, 2004).

Different workplace factors have been noted by researchers for their contribution to producing emotions. Brief and Weiss (2002) provide examples of such factors, which include stressful events and organisational rewards and punishments. The authors note the extensive effect that factors endogenous to the workplace have on emotions, and talk about the working environment providing a veritable pool of opportunities for emotional reactions to surface. They also pinpoint the organisation as the main source of potential emotional surge, and state that “the most negative job experiences were shown to be organizationally related” (Brief & Weiss, 2002: 288). This research highlights the emotion

created by work- and organisation-related factors, rather than external factors potentially introduced by spill-over effects from other arenas such as family life.

Drawing on AET, emotions are posited to be direct outcomes of workplace events, which precipitate processed rational appraisals and behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Fitness, 2000). The AET thesis is that positive-inducing emotional events in the workplace are distinguishable from negative-inducing events and can greatly impact employees' perceptions, attitudes and behaviour (Wegge, van Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006). The prediction in AET that emotions, being immediate personal reactions, can fully mediate the relationship between a precipitating event, or events, and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes is supported by brain function and neural systems research (e.g. Izard, 1993; LeDoux, 1995). This line of research backs the argument that emotions are immediate and direct outcomes of triggers from a Darwinian evolutionary perspective, according to which these 'gut' reactions serve a function to individuals by helping them cope with the surrounding and avoid threats in the environment (Ashkanasy, Härtel & Zerbe, 2000).

In narrowing down the discussion to negative events, I have upheld the view that there is an axiomatic association between a sense of harm-doing and the need to place blame and hold the blameworthy accountable. As Aquino et al. (2001) write: "blame is assigned when a person feels wronged" (p. 53). Two discrete groups of emotions have been linked in the organisation literature and the emotion psychology literature to perceived harm-doing: anger and hostility, and shame and guilt (Strawson, 2008). These two sets of emotions are discrete as they have different activation levels (e.g. Weingart, Bear & Todorova, 2009), such that while the emotions of anger and hostility are generally viewed as proactive due to the proactive behaviours they are associated with, the emotions

of shame and guilt are viewed as passive, and as prompting more passive behaviours (Tangney, Wagner, Fletcher, & Gramzow, 1992).

These two emotional categories also diverge in their outward versus inward orientation, or focus, (Lazarus, 1991; Weiner, 1985, Barclay et al., 2005), such that shame and guilt are inward- or self-focused (Dickerson et al., 2004), while anger and hostility are outward- or other-focused (Barclay et al., 2005; Tedeschi & Felson, 1994; Gilbert & Miles, 2000). The dimensions along which these discrete emotions differ—activation level and focus—go hand in hand because as drivers of action, outward-focused emotions are also more proactive than the inward-focused ones, which are likely to have more of an impact on the individual than on his or her surroundings. That these two dimensions would include the same emotions reinforces this division between anger and hostility and shame and guilt, and buttresses their discreteness.

The causal reasoning framework (Martinko et al., 2002) not only helps explain these differences in focus between the two sets of emotions, but also accounts for why PERs might lead to such emotional arousal. While the link between PERs and each set of emotions is explicated below, the causal reasoning framework teaches us that a disparity in emotional reactions to PERs is due to the attributions that individuals make for their outcomes. Individuals tend to blame themselves when they make internal, stable attributions for failure or negative outcome, and blame others when they make an external attribution for failure or negative outcome (Gilbert & Miles, 2000).

Having described the general mechanism by which PERs generates an emotional arousal, in theory, and the framework for understanding when certain emotions are activated, I shall now turn to describing the relationship between PERs and each emotional category in further detail, as well as to highlighting how individual personality differences might lead certain emotions to surface rather than others.

### Anger and Hostility

Given the direct link between a stimulus and an emotional reaction, it can be said that anger and hostility are examples of such reactive mechanisms, preceding even cognition. Aristotle points to the impulsive nature of anger: “an impulse, accompanied by pain, to a conspicuous revenge for a conscious slight directed without justification towards what concerns oneself” (cited in Miller, 2001: 532). Likewise, Nietzsche (cited in Reginster, 1997) observed that anger is often felt before one understands the reason for the felt anger. Bacon’s (1909, cited in Miller, 2001) observation that the reaction of anger can be disproportionate to the triggering event, as the contempt associated with the offense may put “an edge upon anger, as much or more than the harm itself” (p. 532), strengthens this view of the impulsive nature of anger.

Traditionally researchers have viewed anger and hostility as distinct constructs based on the view that anger is as an emotional phenomenon, whereas hostility is an attitudinal one (e.g. Buss, 1961; Spielberger, 1988; Berkowitz, 1993). However more recently researchers have tended to take the view that hostility is a multifaceted construct that involves affect (Eckhardt, Norlander, & Deffenbacher, 2004), and consequently, treat anger and hostility as synonymous and as emotions that consist of “feelings that vary in intensity, from mild irritation or annoyance to fury and rage” (Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, & Crane, 1983). This perspective is supported by findings that the two phenomena tend to occur concurrently (Eckhardt et al., 2004). Indeed many psychometric measures of hostility include elements of feelings of anger (Spielberger et al., 1983). Following these researchers, and for the purpose of simplicity and parsimony, I adopt a similar approach.

Why would PERs lead to anger and hostility? Based on two theoretical frameworks, the conservation of resources theory and the relational model perspective, I

maintain that PERs threaten two inherent needs of individuals: (a) to preserve their resources, and (b) to preserve their sense of 'self', or in other words, maintain a positive self-image. First, conservation of resources theory (Hobfoll, 1989) stresses that people have a stable need to attain, protect, and build resources, and that a potential loss of these valued resources poses a threat to this need, thus provoking the reaction of anger (Lane & Hobfoll, 1992). PERs obstruct individuals' motives to obtain resources, because under conditions of exploitation, the ratio between input and outcome is minimised. The importance of attaining and conserving resources is also echoed in social exchange theory, which views exchange of resources as a fundamental form of interaction between people (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theorists have also made the connection between such resource deprivation and the emotion of anger (Homans, 1961). Accordingly, anger might serve the function of signalling to the organisation dissatisfaction with treatment, actions or outcomes (Tavris, 1982).

Second, from a relational model perspective, exploitation can be an affront to "the sense of self-respect that people acquire through treatment with respect and dignity" (Tyler, 1994: 852). The resulting psychological distress (e.g. Spencer & Meyers, 2006) can elicit strong emotional reactions that can surpass the emotional reactions generated by positive events (Baumeister et al., 2001). As adaptive emotional reactions, anger and hostility provide a means for relieving such psychological distress (Aquino et al., 2006), because they involve a rejection of negative treatment and negative labelling by another and the preservation of a positive sense of 'self' through self-empowerment (Ellsworth & Gross, 1994). Empirical evidence supports the idea that anger and hostility may have an empowering function: such emotions, for example, have been found to be related to high levels of self-assurance and even physical strength and bravery (Izard, 1991). Therefore it is hypothesised that:

*H1: Perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships are positively related to employees' emotions of anger and hostility.*

### Shame and guilt

“I am the master of my fate, I am the captain of my soul”, wrote William Ernest Henley in his influential poem, *Invictus* (Henley, 1888). These words echoed through the generations, so to speak, reflecting, or perhaps shaping, the proactive ‘can do’ approach that has evolved in many modern cultures and societies. In a cultural system which holds the belief that individuals control their own destiny, failure is viewed as a product of one’s own doing, of one’s own fault (De Botton, 2004). This internal attribution of a disappointing outcome (Martinko et al., 2002) can thus result in feelings of shame and guilt. Even when a negative outcome is attributed to external factors by the individual, shame and guilt can possibly arise for blaming external factors to begin with, rather than assuming personal responsibility.

Just as with the claim for the distinctiveness of anger and hostility, some researchers have viewed shame and guilt as two distinct emotions. Tangney & Dearing (2002), following Lewis (1971), contend that the difference between shame and guilt surrounds the role of the ‘self’. According to this view, while “shame involves fairly global negative evaluations of the self (i.e. ‘who *I* am’) [...] guilt involves a more articulated condemnation of a specific behaviour (i.e. ‘what *I* did’)” (Tangney & Dearing, 2002: 24).

Nonetheless despite these differences, there is an argument to say that the two can be considered as synonymous (Barclay et al., 2005) or at least highly complementary. In any case, the two emotions are usually experienced together because guilt “often gives way to an undesired identity” (Menesini & Camodeca, 2008: 190), which amounts to shame.

Additionally, individuals might feel shame on account of having been victimised, as well as guilty for passively allowing themselves to become victims in the first place (Gilligan, 2003). Moreover, both emotions are directed inwardly toward oneself as opposed to others, and deal with a discrepancy between ideal self and actual self (Lewis, 1971), and they are often grouped under the same category of emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Tangney & Dearing, 2002). In keeping with this theoretical perspective, therefore, as well as recent discussions of shame and guilt in empirical research (e.g. Barclay et al., 2005), the two are treated synonymously in this study.

At first blush, it might seem counterintuitive that victims of exploitation experience shame and guilt, considering that the harm was perceived to be inflicted upon them by the organisation. However, there are two potential explanations for the relationship between PERs and such emotions. The first explanation is based on the work of Skinner (1996) and the argument that shame and guilt are coping mechanisms to deal with a very real sense of helplessness and vulnerability, which is difficult for the mind to grasp. By developing explanations that the harm done was somehow one's own fault, the victim achieves an illusion of control. Skinner (1996) points out, that individuals can report retrospective control over a negative event or outcome. Retrospective control refers to people's perception that there is a connection between their behaviours and their undesired outcomes (Thompson, 1981) leading to thoughts of retrospective competence, such as "I could have acted differently, but didn't". Yet if these justifications are accompanied by "doubt in one's capacities to exercise controlling responses to such negative events in the future, retrospective 'control' can lead to [...] guilt and shame" (Skinner, 1996: 560). Thus, according to this perspective, shame and guilt are a result of a coping mechanism 'gone wrong'.

A second account for the link between PERs and the emotions of shame and guilt draws on the view that these emotions are adaptive functions that act as behaviour regulators by promoting prosocial behaviours and preventing future transgressions (Menesini & Camodeca, 2008). By exhibiting the physical manifestations of shame and guilt, such as “a turning away of the face, avoidance of contact, shrinking, downcast eyes, slumped posture, blushing, mind going blank, and arrested behaviour” (Wilson, Drozdek & Turkovic, 2006: 124), victims (unconsciously) attempt to signal to the offender that they have committed an offense in the implicit hope that they empathise and get involved (Van Stokkom, 2002). Indeed, the sincere expression of defencelessness associated with such emotions has been noted as an effective way to prevent others from ‘playing’ with one’s emotions (Van Stokkom, 2002). Aside from behaviour regulation, the involvement of the offender can also “serve as evidence that offenders care about victims, and this reaffirmation may be reassuring to the victim” (Van Stokkom, 2002: 348) as it can alleviate the sense of disapproval that engendered such emotions in the first place (Braithwaite, Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2008).

The emotions of shame and guilt, which occur when one “feels the self negatively evaluated” (Scheff, 1988: 401) especially by an authority figure (Braithwaite et al., 2008) are thus likely in the case of PERs, whereby an individual feels undervalued and disapproved of by the organisation, an authority figure, in comparison to which employees feel ‘small’, worthless and powerless (Tangney, Miller, Flicker & Barlow, 1996). The following hypothesis is hence put forth:

*H2: Perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships are positively related to employees' emotions of shame and guilt.*

### 6.1.2 *The Moderating Role of Core Self-Evaluations*

As depicted in figure 6.2, the emotions of anger and hostility, and shame and guilt have different orientations, being outward or inward, proactive or passive. They were also said to be generated by different causal attributions—whether the employee placed blame on exogenous factors, such as the organisation in the case of anger and hostility, or on internal factors such as his/her own character, performance or personality in the case of shame and guilt. Thus, the question that this section seeks to address is: is there an underlying individual difference, which drives the direction that an individual will undertake in the face of PERs, and which determines the blame attributions that the individual is likely to make?

One example of a higher-order personality trait that might have a strong explanatory power given its breadth is Core Self-Evaluations (CSE: Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997). CSE is more relevant for the current context than other aggregate measures, such as The Five Factor Model, or The Big Five (Costa & McCrae, 1992) given the traits that it measures which are: self-esteem, self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control (Judge et al., 1997), and their potential theoretical link to the emotional reactions to PERs of anger, hostility, shame and guilt. The traits evaluated by CSE touch upon the varying dimensions of such emotions. For instance, self-esteem relates to one's overall self-evaluation, or sense of self-value (Harter, 1990); self-efficacy entails one's belief in one's own ability to perform or achieve goals (Locke, McCleary, & Knight, 1996; Ormrod, 2006); neuroticism involves a tendency to focus on one's negative characteristics or aspects (Watson, 2000), and locus of control relays one's beliefs about the extent to which one can control life events (Rotter, 1954, 1966). Locus of control is said to be internal

when individuals believe that they can control events, whereas an external locus of control captures individuals' beliefs that events are beyond their control, as they are controlled by external, environmental factors. Taken together, these traits indicate whether an individual has an overall positive, proactive self-concept, or a negative, more passive one, and can consequently impact an individual's tendency to react to PERs with angry and hostile emotions, or with shameful and guilty ones.

To explain this matter further, individuals with a high CSE, generally have a more positive self-perception. Specifically, they are high on self-esteem and self-efficacy, but low on neuroticism, and have an internal locus of control in terms of their ability to impact their lives. On the contrary, individuals with a low CSE generally hold a more negative self-view. They tend to be lower on self-esteem and self-efficacy, higher on neuroticism and have an external locus of control. Consequently, individuals low on CSE are more likely to make stable, internal attributions for failure, rendering them prone to self-blame, which is associated with shame and guilt (Gilbert & Miles, 2000). Indeed, Graham and Juvonen (1998) found that individuals with low self-esteem tend to engage in self-blame, significantly more than individuals with a high self-esteem. Individuals with a low CSE are also more likely to react more passively to negative events because a low sense of self-efficacy "reduces individuals' belief in their ability to remedy the causes of negative outcomes" (Martinko, Douglas, Harvey & Gundlach, 2007: 269). These responses are in line with the emotions of shame and guilt which have been viewed as passive and even submissive (Gilbert, Pehl, & Allan, 1994).

By contrast, individuals with a high CSE are more likely to resort to anger and hostility, as the experience of PERs contradicts their positive self-image thereby creating cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962). Another reason for this positive relationship is provided by Baumeister et al. (1996) who report that the more inflated the individual's

self-perception, the more prone that individual is to encountering threats and therefore to experiencing anger and hostility. Anger and hostility are also more outward-focused, proactive emotions than shame and guilt (e.g. Miller & Lynam, 2006) because they seek to bring about change by overtly signalling discontent with the current state of affairs (Barclay et al., 2005). Believing in oneself and in one's ability to elicit change makes individuals with a high CSE more likely to assume these proactive emotions. Putting these arguments together, it is hypothesised that:

*H3(a): Core self-evaluations moderates the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and emotional outcomes, such that the higher an individual's self-evaluation the more he/she is likely to feel anger and hostility.*

*H3(b): Core self-evaluations moderates the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and emotional outcomes, such that the lower an individual's self-evaluation the more he/she is likely to feel shame and guilt.*

#### *6.1.3 The Mediating Role of Emotions*

Affective events theory goes beyond the triggering event-emotion arousal relationship and predicts that workplace events lead to emotional reactions, which, in turn, lead to work attitudes and behaviours (Judge, Scott & Ilies, 2006). Thus, the AET model separates the affective-emotional component from the other two components of cognition and behavioural intentions which are presented in classic models of attitude, such as the tripartite model (e.g. Bagozzi, 1978; Breckler, 1984). Accordingly, AET places affect as

an antecedent of workplace attitude (Zhao et al., 2007). As Zhao et al. (2007) state, “affect plays a central mediating role for the effect of the event on other outcomes such as attitude” (Zhao et al., 2007: 654). In addition to attitudes, AET also posits that affect precipitates behavioural outcomes. The link between emotion and attitudes and behaviours might be so primal that Lazarus (1991) maintains that emotion encapsulates a physiological response due to the need to vent it. From an evolutionary perspective, this need to vent emotion might serve the purpose of communicating needs efficiently (Panksepp, 1992; Plutchik, 1980).

However, AET is only one of several theoretical frameworks which place emotion in a mediating position between the stimuli, or events, and resulting attitudes and behaviours. An early account for this is given by Aristotle, who describes emotion as serving a function – the determination of behaviour (in Power & Dalgleish, 2008). For instance, anger has the function of retaliation (or the propensity for it) and fear has the function of a fight or flight response. More recent literature has also revisited the role that emotions might play, especially regarding negative events. For instance, as the name of the theoretical framework suggests, the Frustration Aggression Hypothesis (Dollard et al., 1939; Miller, 1941) regards the emotion of frustration as a central antecedent to aggressive behaviour. Similarly, the Elaboration Likelihood Model (Douglas, Kiewitz, Martinko, Harvey, Kim & Chun, 2008), which captures processes that lead to aggressive behaviour in the workplace, places an emphasis on negative emotions as a broad category, and presents them as antecedents to aggressive behaviour. In combination, all of these theoretical frameworks provide ample theoretical support for the mediating role of emotions.

Zhao et al. (2007) suggest a mechanism by which emotions shape attitudes and behaviour. The authors maintain that emotions influence the way people think about events and their subsequent behaviours in two central ways. First, they impact the content of

one's thinking by making it selective with regards to the information which is recalled and construed. In this sense, it can create what Tversky and Kahneman (1973) refer to as the availability bias. Second, affect impacts the process of thinking in an attempt to reduce the negative emotions, for example by facilitating different thinking styles. This second point presents the functional side of emotions. The significance of the events and the magnitude of their consequences in the mind of employees might also impact the strength of the emotions experienced and indirectly, attitudes and behaviours. In attacking the individual's inherent needs for self-preservation and resources, PERs might indeed have such a significant effect on attitudes and behaviours through emotions.

Having established the mediating role of emotions, I now turn to describing the relationship between PERs and their posited attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. These outcomes can be grouped into two categories, according to the mediating emotions. As a result of the difference (earlier discussed) between externalisation and internalisation of blame, employees will undertake different kinds of action, such that when employees make external attributions of responsibility then they may embark on a negative outward-focused course of action. As Barclay et al. (2005) state, "outward-focused emotion is associated with directing action against the perpetrator" (p. 631). On the other hand, when employees make internal attributions of blame, then inward-focused behaviour may result.

Therefore, and building on the research of Barclay et al. (2005) and Martinko et al. (2002) it is maintained that: (a) the outward-focused emotions of anger and hostility lead to outward-focused attitudes and behaviours. These behaviours are directed at the organisation, which is the target of the blame attribution. (b) The inward-focused emotions of shame and guilt lead to inward-focused attitudes and behaviours. In this case, as blame is internalised, the outcomes are expected to be self-directed.

### Organisation-directed outcomes

Several organisationally-directed outcomes are explored here and include revenge, collective action, and turnover intentions. These outcomes were chosen as they are both outward-focused and directed at the organisation, and represent more proactive courses of action that are characteristic of the emotions of anger and hostility. Another attitudinal measure commonly employed is organisational commitment, which is also incorporated into the analysis with the expectation that it will negatively correlate with the affective variables.

*Revenge.* According to social exchange theory, inequitable relations such as PERs are likely to lead to negative reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) sees the two central demands of the norm of reciprocity as universal and as including (a) the returning of help to those that have helped us and (b) the withholding of harm from those who have helped us. Gouldner also mentions negative norms of reciprocity and sees them as retaliatory forms of behaviour “where the emphasis is placed not on the return of benefits but on the return of injuries” (Gouldner, 1960: 172). Therefore, the negative norm of reciprocity suggests that harm prompts the return of injury (Gouldner, 1960; Sahlins, 1972).

Different forms of retaliation and retaliatory behaviours have been noted in the literature. The literature includes constructs such as counterproductive, deviant, antisocial and dysfunctional workplace behaviours (Neuman & Baron, 1997; Vardi & Weiner, 1996; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Martinko et al., 2002; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Lee et al., 2005). The behaviours captured in the construct of revenge overlap with some of the behaviours that characterise the above constructs, and it is chosen here as it is more precise but still broad enough to apply to different workplace contexts. Revenge is also chosen

over another type of retaliation, retaliation by withdrawal (Miller, 2001), because it epitomises an outward-focused response, which is more aligned with the outward-focused emotions of anger and hostility, whereas withdrawal behaviours (both physical and psychological) include the withholding of desired behaviour (Lehman & Simpson, 1992; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh & Kessler, 2006).

Revenge refers to cases in which the victim becomes the perpetrator and tries to injure the organisation (Michalak, 2010). The motivation behind acts of revenge is usually an attempt to 'even the score' (Miller, 2001). In SET this would be seen as an endorsement of the 'tit for tat' maxim or the 'eye for an eye' principle. These refer to equivalent retaliation, according to which a perpetrator should be penalised to the same degree as the original injury inflicted. As maintained by Miller (2001), emotional states such as anger (Heilman, Lucas & Kaplow, 1990), are capable of leading individuals to behave in harmful ways. Examples of possible harmful behaviours that 'even the score' in the organisational context include theft (Greenberg, 1993, 2002; Greenberg & Scott, 1996), sabotage (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), violence (Folger & Skarlicki, 1998; Neuman & Baron, 1997) and 'bad- mouthing' or publically embarrassing the employer (Tripp et al., 2007).

While revenge may be an outward manifestation of angry and hostile emotions, it might also serve a functional purpose for the employee. Leith and Baumeister (1996) illustrate this principle by showing that negative affect increases an individual's propensity towards risk-taking behaviours, such as revenge, in the hope that it might somehow reap rewards. Put differently, through revenge behaviours an employee can signal to the organisation the anger and discontent with an unfavourable outcome (Barclay et al., 2005), in the hope of improving the situation. This explanation touches upon the mediating link of anger and hostility between PERs and revenge. As Barclay et al. (2005) state:

“emotions are part of the relationship between the experience of injustice and the tendency to retaliate (p. 629). In light of the above, it is hypothesised that:

*H4: Anger and hostility mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and employee revenge.*

*Collective action.* Collective action is a form of voice that has also been identified in the literature as collective voice (e.g. Dowding & John, 2006; Campbell, Dowding & John, 2007). Collective action is usually undertaken in order to actively attempt to better working conditions (Farrell, 1983), and to reinstate the employment contract (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). Collective action occurs when organisational members act for the collective good. Often there is a representative of the group, whose goal is also improving the group’s condition. This differs from individual action in which one attempts to improve his or her own condition (Wright, Taylor, & Moghaddam, 1990).

Collective action is in question here because of its traditional link to exploitation via the association with labour and production (Brewer, 1987). For many theorists, such as Elster (1978, 1982a, 1982b, 1983) and Roemer (1982a, 1982b, 1982c, 1983), collective action is inseparable from the notion of exploitation, and as Brewer (1987) writes, “the existence and perception of exploitation is central to the possibility and desirability of revolutionary collective action” (p. 91). Given a situation of economic or other form of injustice, the objective of collective action is the collective attempt to improve upon the conditions of a group with a collective disadvantage, and consequently of the individuals within that group. It is the collective element, the achievement of a critical mass, which offers an effective way to force an organisation into sustainable behavioural change (Marwell & Oliver, 1993). Hence, aggregate voice, or collective action, may have implications on a grander scale and the consequences for the organisation are thus greater.

It is necessary to expand somewhat more upon the mechanism by which exploitation brings about collective action. The links between collective action and anger have been probed by researchers such as Martin, Brickman and Murray (1984), Folger (1987) and Van Zomeren, Spears, Fischer and Leach (2004). Thus, anger is a well-established predictor of collective action (Miller, Cronin, Garcia & Branscombe, 2009), and collective action, in turn, has potentially great utility for the group and the individual. Thus anger has a utility of its own in creating a situation where collective action is more likely to occur.

Collective action serves as an expressive mechanism to the individual following the experience of negative affect (Miller, 2001), or as an emotion-focused coping mechanism (Van Zomeren et al., 2004). The group setting of a collective form of action allows individuals to 'let off steam' without bearing the consequences associated with individual action. It also allows one to engage with others who are experiencing the same perceptions of exploitation and the same consequent negative emotions, and this sharing can provide an individual with a sense of social support (Gamson, 1992) and solidarity. Accordingly, it is hypothesised that:

*H5: Anger and hostility mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and collective action.*

*Turnover intentions.* Turnover intentions, or a voluntary will to exit the organisation (Tett & Meyer, 1993) are an important attitudinal variable because they have been repeatedly shown to predict actual turnover (e.g. Van Dick et al., 2004; Allen, Weeks, & Moffitt, 2005), which is an undesirable outcome for organisations because of the high costs associated with it. Formulas developed to estimate turnover costs often consider separation costs, replacement costs, training costs and costs associated with lost

productivity (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000). These costs can be very high in certain industries and positions, even in entry-level positions (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000), and therefore organisations try to minimise them.

Employees who feel exploited and believe that they are not receiving adequate compensation for their contributions might have the intention to leave the organisation for better prospects. Equity theory (Adams, 1965) proposes that individuals feel compelled to react to perceptions of unfair distribution of outcomes in relationships. Finding alternatives outside the organisation that provide more equitable relationships are only one prospect, however. As Carrell and Dittrich (1978) suggest, leaving the organisation is also simply a way of eliminating the sense of inequity.

Research that examines the effect of dissatisfaction, or unfair treatment from the organisation on turnover confirms these claims. For instance, Turnley & Feldman (2000) found that PC violations positively relate to exit. Several studies have also demonstrated the relationship between job dissatisfaction and exit (Withey & Cooper, 1989; Farrell and Rusbult, 1992) and found that job dissatisfaction is positively related to high turnover (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978; Porter & Steers, 1973; Price, 1977; Vroom, 1964).

While it is widely accepted that negative events are an antecedent of voluntary turnover (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner, 2000), less is known about the effect of negative emotion, such as anger and hostility, on intent to leave (Harlos, 2010). Nonetheless, the limited existing theoretical and empirical evidence points in this direction. From a theoretical standpoint, researchers have maintained that leaving the organisation might not only represent a way to reduce a sense of inequity (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978), which is associated with PERs, but it can also be a way to reduce the negative emotions (i.e. anger and hostility) associated with perceived exploitation. As Harlos (2010) writes, leaving the

organisation addresses one's "desire to alleviate unpleasantness associated with anger" (p. 50). According to this explanation, voluntary turnover is a form of self-protection, or a coping strategy to deal with negative emotion. Indeed the organisational coping literature, which centres on employees' "cognitive and behavioral efforts to deal with experiences that tax or exceeds one's resources" (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986: 993) such as PERs, describes emotions as undergirding an individual's choice of coping strategy. From an empirical standpoint, although existing data is sparse, a few studies that were conducted found that event-related anger influences turnover intentions (Harlos, 2010; Booth & Mann, 2005; Glomb, 2002). Consequently, the following hypothesis is put forth:

*H6: Anger and hostility mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and turnover intentions.*

*Organisational commitment.* Organisational commitment as a global factor (e.g. Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Mowday et al., 1979; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 2013; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001) has been defined as "the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter et al., 1974: 604). Such commitment involves: (a) assuming the organisation's goals and values, (b) a determination to employ great effort for and on behalf of the organisation, and (c) a desire to remain an organisational member and maintain the relationship with the organisation (Mowday et al., 1982). In keeping with the view of Barclay et al. (2005), organisational commitment is viewed here as both an attitude and behaviour, and categorised as an outward, or organisation-focused evaluation and set of behaviours, because it is both directed at and affects the employing organisation.

Unlike turnover intentions, organisational commitment is a desirable and even crucial factor for organisations as it is associated with a host of resulting behaviours such as employees' compliance, their prosocial behaviours, and reduced likelihood of their leaving the organisation (e.g. O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) list some of the potential causes of reduced organisational commitment which include job characteristics such as role overload and insufficient salary. Therefore, when positive factors are not properly satisfied (as in the case of PERs) organisational commitment is likely to lessen.

The probable inverse relationship between PERs and organisational commitment can be explained by the idea that when employees believe that the organisation is exploiting them, then they are also likely to believe that the organisation is not committed to them as individuals, but rather, that it is committed to its own goals, as in a zero-sum game. Meyer and Allen (1991) maintain that employee commitment is a result of reciprocation for organisational investments. Thus when the organisational investments are unsatisfactory to the employees, as with PERs, they no longer have an obligation to reciprocate, and are less or no longer committed.

There is also support for the contention that the PERs-commitment relationship is mediated by negative emotions. Penley & Gould (1988) contend that there is a direct relationship between anger and lower commitment to the organisation based on the premise that organisational commitment involves an emotional attachment to (Rashid, Sambasivan & Johari, 2003) and care for the organisation (Bozeman & Perrewé, 2001). This attitude represents a positive emotion towards the organisation. Felt anger, on the other hand, is a negative emotion. However, research shows that positive emotions and negative emotions directed at the same source do not tend to coincide and that they are, in fact, mutually exclusive (Diener & Iran-Nejad, 1986). In other words, if an employee feels

deeply angry towards the organisation, he or she cannot simultaneously feel an emotional attachment to it. Hence the following hypothesis is put forth:

*H7: Anger and hostility mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and organisational commitment.*

### Self-directed outcomes

*Burnout.* Burnout is an umbrella term which refers to three main components: (a) emotional exhaustion, or a depletion of emotional resources, (b) depersonalisation, or detachment and disengagement from the job, and (c) diminished personal accomplishment, which is a tendency to hold a negative self-evaluation (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Burnout manifests itself in the vulnerable state of the individual in the first instance, and it includes symptoms of fatigue, depression, anxiety, cynicism and withdrawal (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Demerouti et al., 2001). Burnout may also have a ripple effect on the collective group of employees and indeed the organisation.

As an unmet employee expectation for certain job conditions (Jackson, Schwab & Schuler, 1986), a PER can cause burnout. In the Job Demands-Resources model of burnout (Demerouti et al., 2001), high job demands are postulated to increase exhaustion, and a depletion of job resources is expected to increase disengagement, which ultimately leads to employee burnout. The effort that an employee puts into the job coupled with the limited resources, and the gap between them, are also characteristic of PERs, providing support for the possible association between the two constructs.

In examining the relationship between shame and guilt and burnout, we would do well to note that the manifestations of burnout are both self-directed (as opposed to organisationally directed) and passive, in that they do not involve exerting behaviour or

action. Understandably, burnout is highly dysfunctional not only for organisations, but especially for the individual (Jackson & Maslach, 1982; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Shirom, 1989). Recalling an earlier point in the discussion, we can suggest that behaviours that are passive and self-directed, and therefore self-destructive, often have to do with an internalisation of a blame attribution, and a psychosocial experience of shame and guilt. Previous research has indeed linked these emotions with burnout (e.g. Chang, 2009).

The direct effect of shame and guilt on burnout may also have to do with the fact that the experiencing of these emotions in itself can lead to burnout. Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) have shown that employee-focused emotional labour, which involves the constant need to regulate feelings and emotional expression is an antecedent of burnout. As Fineman (2000) argues in the introduction to his work, when an individual is consumed by shame and guilt, there might be internal and external motivation to remove or better manage these emotions as they are thought to “screen the actor from an accurate reading of the situation” (p. 11). However, this constant management of the emotions involves the compromise of “the true, essential, self” (Fineman, 2000: 6) in an attempt to comply with the organisation. Managing feelings of shame and guilt is an emotional labour which may well lead to burnout. Thus PERs may have an indirect effect on the likelihood of burnout via the emotions of shame and guilt. Hence, it is hypothesised that:

*H8: Shame and guilt mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and employee burnout.*

*Employee silence.* PERs reflect an employee’s perception of disadvantage, powerlessness and inequity. These perceptions provide an impetus to voice grievances in order to communicate to the organisation the negative and imbalanced perception of the relationship experienced by the employee and to try and better the situation. However, the

shame- and guilt-prone individual is postulated to remain silent despite PERs. Silence is a passive form of behaviour as it is characterised by withholding, rather than exerting, behaviour. As stated by Van Dyne, Ang and Botero (2003), when people are silent, they are not actively communicating. The definition of employee silence, which is withholding, rather than expressing, ideas, information and opinions relating to improvements in the workplace (Van Dyne et al., 2003), reinforces the passivity of the phenomenon.

The literature on employee silence provides different explanations for what motivates it. Examples of such motivations include fear, disengagement and conformity. They might be fearful of expressing a potentially unwelcome or unpopular opinion. They might be disengaged because they are convinced that they are unable to make a difference by speaking or acting. Or they might stay silent so as to conform to normative or social pressures (Morrison & Milliken, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2003)<sup>6</sup>.

These motivations for silence represent risk-averse and self-protective behaviours. It is thus not surprising that the two individual factors that have been found to impact silence tendencies most profoundly are self-esteem and locus of control (Fontenot-Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). Self-esteem captures not only beliefs about oneself, but it also captures individuals' concerns with self-presentation (Baumeister, Tice & Hutton, 1989). Therefore individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to express and voice their thoughts, whereas individuals with low self-esteem, who are oriented towards self-protection, are more likely to remain silent because speaking up puts them in a position of vulnerability (Fontenot-Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). LePine and Van Dyne's (1998) finding that self-esteem is significantly and positively related to expressive behaviour, supports this view.

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<sup>6</sup> It can be added that silence might also be resorted to after individuals have already tried other more overt responses which have failed. Thus, silence may be a last resort, in itself a statement of resistance.

With regard to LOC, individuals with an internal LOC are also reported as having higher self-efficacy (Phillips & Gully, 1997) and as being more proactive in undertaking coping, planning and problem-solving behaviours, while individuals with an external LOC have been shown to resort more to passivity and helplessness (Fontenot-Premeaux & Bedeian, 2003). This framework would suggest that while individuals with an internal LOC are more apt to voice their opinions because they believe in their ability to influence and change their environment, individuals with an external LOC, who do not believe in their ability to impact their surroundings, are more likely to resort to a strategy of silence. Fontenot-Premeaux and Bedeian (2003) also point to self-monitoring, or “the extent to which people monitor the appearances of self that they display” (p. 1539), as impacting silence, such that those with high self-monitors have a high self-awareness and are likely to be careful in voicing possibly unwanted opinions.

These arguments suggest that the emotions of shame and guilt are positively related to employee silence. The discussion presented earlier in this chapter surrounding CSE concluded that while high self-esteem, and internal locus of control are associated with outward-focused emotion such as anger and hostility towards the organisation following PERs, low self-esteem and an external LOC are associated with inward-focused emotions such as shame and guilt. Shame and guilt were also described as more passive emotions than anger and hostility which are more likely to be associated with passive behaviours.

The relationship between shame and guilt and silence can also be explained through Fontenot-Premeaux and Bedeian's (2003) conversation surrounding self-monitoring, and the tendency of individuals that are high self-monitors, with a high self-awareness, to choose silence over voice. Similarly, the emotions of shame and guilt have been labelled self-conscious emotions, which entail and require self-awareness (Rochat, 2003; Lewis, 1995). Therefore, individuals who feel shame and guilt surrounding an experiences or

experiences of exploitation are likely to keep silent due to their elevated consciousness and self-awareness. So it can be said that shame and guilt are drivers of an employee's choice to remain silent about PERs:

*H9: Shame and guilt mediate the relationship between perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships and employee silence.*

#### 6.1.4 *Lock-in Effects as Moderators of the Relationship between Emotional Outcomes and Attitudinal and Behavioural Consequences*

The term lock-in captures the dependency of the employee on the organisation and on his or her job. Three different potential reasons for this dependency are considered here. The first two are incorporated into Rusbult and Buunk's (1993) investment model, and include an employee's investment in the relationship with the organisation, and the availability and quality of alternatives. The third is drawn from body of literature on employees' sense of calling. Taken together, these situational and individual variables can help explain why some of the attitudinal and behavioural consequences, described in earlier sections in this chapter, are muted or amplified given negative emotional arousal under the condition of PERs.

##### The investment model

In Rusbult and Buunk's (1993) investment model, there are two major causes of employee dependency on their organisation. The first is the size of the investment of resources into the relationship by the employee. Investment size can be defined as "the resources an employee has put into a job that become intrinsic to that position (e.g. job tenure, effort expenditure, non- portable training, familiarity); and the original extraneous resources that have become inadvertently linked to a job (e.g. convenient housing and travel

arrangements, friends at work, non-vested retirement funds)" (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992: 205). According to the model, the more invested an employee is, the more dependent he or she is upon the organisation. The second cause of an employee's dependency on the organisation according to the investment model is the number and quality of employment alternatives available to the employee. Thus a lack of desirable alternatives leads to dependency, such that the fewer alternatives there are available to an employee, and the poorer the quality of the alternatives is, the more dependent the employee is upon the organisation.

### Sense of calling

Some individuals view work as a personal calling (e.g. Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler, & Tipton, 1985; Hall & Chandler, 2005; Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). An employee's sense of calling refers to one's feeling that he or she is destined to fill a certain role in the occupational division of labour "by virtue of particular gifts, talents, and/or idiosyncratic life opportunities" (Bunderson & Thompson, 2009: 38). Individuals who have this sense of calling are willing to make sacrifices of both a personal nature and of pay or advancement opportunities in favour of their chosen line of work. In a paper which focuses on the sense of calling among zookeepers, Bunderson & Thompson (2009) explain that individuals choose to make such sacrifices because rejecting their destiny would be seen as a moral failure. The writers go on to link exploitation to calling by stating that calling makes an individual vulnerable to exploitation because compensation and working conditions are construed by these employees as another sacrifice necessary for the fulfilment of their calling. Consequently, employees with a sense of calling are more likely to be 'locked-in' to their organisations due to their commitment to their line of work,

because leaving an organisation might be tantamount to abandoning the calling of one's life.

### Lock-in effects and outcomes

Whether due to a sizable investment in the organisation, a dearth of attractive alternatives, or a sense of calling, employees that are 'locked-in' may behave differently from employees who are less dependent on their organisation because they have more to lose by a termination of the relationship. For example, such employees are more likely to react constructively even when work conditions decline (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992), because when employees are locked-in they may be more hesitant to display negative behaviours that could compromise their jobs, and are more likely to assume attitudes or behaviours that enable them to stay.

Interpreting these propositions and integrating them into the context of the specific workplace outcomes included in the model, we can suggest that employees who are 'locked-in' are less likely to engage in revenge behaviours, even when they experience emotions of anger and hostility. This is not only because they see revenge behaviours as dysfunctional, illegitimate forms of punishing the offender (Booth & Mann, 2005), but also because engaging in such behaviours would entail risking their job, something that they are highly averse to doing. A similar argument can be made for burnout. Burnout, as we have seen, is characterised by exhaustion, reduced interest in work and consequently, reduced job performance (e.g. Taris, 2006). That such behaviours can compromise one's job is confirmed by research which links diminished performance with involuntary turnover (Shaw, Delery, Jenkins & Gupta, 1998). Consequently, lock-in effects are expected to weaken the relationship between felt emotions and the outcomes of revenge and burnout.

Employees that are ‘locked-in’ might also try harder to improve their situation and conditions in legitimate ways that entail little risk of involuntary turnover, because the silence strategy is unlikely to lead to any form of change (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Social choice theory, which is concerned with “relationships between individuals’ preferences and social choice” (Fishburn, 1973: 3), focuses on ways in which organising information and action in the face of adversity lead to decisions and outcomes acceptable on an aggregate level (Sen, 1986).

Collective action might thus be particularly salient when a group of employees are locked-in because individual action entails a greater level of risk than action on a group level, and is therefore particularly unattractive to the vulnerable ‘locked-in’ individual. Not only does the critical mass achieved by group collective action increase the likelihood of securing desirable change, but at the very least, the individual employee cannot be singled out for further mistreatment or involuntary turnover. His or her strength lies in numbers. This relationship between group membership and risk-taking behaviour has indeed been noted in the past (e.g. Lonergan & McClintock, 1961). Therefore lock-in effects are likely to increase collective action tendencies and, by contrast, reduce employee silence.

Lock-in effects are also expected to be negatively related to turnover intentions and positively related to organisational commitment given the restriction of movement between organisations of ‘locked-in’ employees. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) explain this influence of lock-in effects on turnover intentions and organisational commitment by viewing lock-in effects as ‘sunk costs’ that lead employees to become committed. The ‘sunk cost’ fallacy describes a phenomenon whereby individuals justify increased investment (organisational commitment in this case) in a line of action that is not worthwhile for them,

simply because the cost outweighs the benefit (as in the case of PERs), having invested so much already.

This argument has received some empirical support. For instance, commitment to the organisation was found to be positively related to investment size, and turnover to be negatively related to it (Rusbult, Johnson & Morrow, 1986; Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). Moreover, more available alternatives were found to lead to reduced commitment (Strube, 1988; Rusbult et al., 1986), and more high quality alternatives lead to increased turnover (Rusbult et al., 1986). A similar impact of calling on commitment and turnover intentions was also discovered (Cardador, Dane & Pratt, 2011). Accordingly, the following hypothesis is presented:

*H10: Lock-in effects moderate the relationship between emotional outcomes and attitudinal and behavioural consequences, such that the more 'locked-in' the employee (higher employee investment size, fewer and lower quality available alternatives and stronger sense of calling), the lower the revenge, turnover intentions, burnout and silence, and the higher the collective action tendencies and organisational commitment of the employee.*

While the outcomes described in this section are not exhaustive of all the potential outcomes of PERs, they provide an initial insight into some of the dysfunctional correlates of PERs for the organisation as well as for individuals. The next section sets out to test these hypothesised relationships.

## 6.2 Methods

### 6.2.1 Participants and Procedures

The sample and procedures used in this study are the same as those used in the previous chapter. However, as shown in figure 6.1, in this case PERs and emotional outcomes were assessed using Time 1 data, whereas the attitudinal and behavioural responses (and the moderators of the hypothesised relationships) were measured using Time 2 data.

### 6.2.2 Measures

Employees provided ratings of PERs, of affects (anger/hostility and shame/guilt) and of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (revenge, collective action, turnover intentions, organisational commitment, burnout, and silence). Data regarding CSE and lock-in effects (investment size, alternatives and calling), as well as personal information, including age, gender and job tenure were also collected.

*Perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships.* PERs were measured using the 14-item scale developed as a part of this thesis and used in the previous chapter.

*Collective action tendencies.* Collective action tendencies were measured with three items adapted from Van Zomeren et al. (2004), a sample item being “I would participate in a demonstration against my organisation”. Answers were recorded on a 5-point agreement scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*).

*Employee silence.* Employee silence was measured using 5 items adapted by Tangirala and Ramanujam (2008) from Van Dyne et al.'s (2003) employee silence scale. Respondents were asked to what extent they agreed or disagreed with the statements. A sample item was "I chose to remain silent when I had concerns about [my hospital]". All ratings were on a 5-point scale from 1 = *never* to 5 = *very often*.

*Core self-evaluations.* Core self-evaluations were measured using the core self-evaluations scale (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2003). Core self-evaluation is a higher order factor for individual differences, such as self-esteem and locus of control. Responses were recorded on a 5-point agreement scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). A sample self-esteem based item was "I am confident I get the success I deserve in life", and a sample locus of control item was "I determine what will happen in my life".

*Lock- in effects.* Calling was measured separately from investment size and alternatives, due to the different orientations and motives behind them. While investment size and quality and availability of employment alternatives are both incorporated into the investment model and reflect more calculative judgements about tangible resources, calling captures an intangible resource that cannot be quantified in the same way. Thus, investment size and quality and availability of employment alternatives were measured in the same way as described in chapter 4, and by averaging mean scores, while an employee's sense of calling was measured using Bunderson and Thompson's (2009) context-free version of the calling scale. Sample items include "The work that I do feels like my calling in life" and "I was meant to do the work I do". Respondents were asked to

rate their agreement with the calling items on a 7-point scale ranging from (1 = *strongly disagree* to 7 = *strongly agree*).

*Control Variables.* As in chapter 5 and for similar reasons, *age, gender and job tenure* were measured as control variables. Gender was recorded as a categorical variable (1 = male, 2 = female), whereas age and job tenure were recorded as continuous variables.

### 6.2.3 Analytic Strategy

Structural equation modelling was conducted in order to test the hypotheses. This was done using AMOS version 21.0 (Arbuckle, 2012). The explanation for this choice of analytic method was presented in chapters 3 and 5.

### 6.2.4 Results

Table 6.1 presents the descriptive statistics, correlations and reliabilities (Cronbach alpha) for all the variables in the study. First, PERs were positively and strongly correlated with the emotions of anger and hostility ( $r = .798, p < .01$ ) and shame and guilt ( $r = .442, p < .01$ ). Second, PERs displayed significant correlations with some of the attitudinal and behavioural variables: PERs were positively correlated with revenge ( $r = .346, p < .01$ ), collective action ( $r = .460, p < .01$ ), turnover intentions ( $r = .516, p < .01$ ), burnout ( $r = .524, p < .01$ ) and employee silence ( $r = .271, p < .01$ ). PERs were also negatively and strongly correlated with organisational commitment ( $r = -.615, p < .01$ ). Third, PERs were negatively correlated with the dispositional variable CSE ( $r = -.303, p < .01$ ) and the situational variable lock-in effects ( $r = -.267, p < .01$ ).

Table 6.1. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations and Reliabilities

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Age	32.96	4.59	-														
2. Gender	1.44	0.49	-.052	-													
3. Job Tenure	2.34	0.92	.494**	-.041	-												
4. PERs	3.25	1.36	-.113	.106	-.035	<b>(.95)</b>											
5. Anger/Hostility	3.08	1.56	-.077	.069	-.043	.798**	<b>(.88)</b>										
6. Shame/Guilt	2.37	0.47	-.117	.087	-.170*	.442**	.455**	<b>(.86)</b>									
7. Revenge	1.30	0.61	.144	-.012	.103	.346**	.332**	.305**	<b>(.96)</b>								
8. Collective Action	3.21	0.93	-.034	.065	-.012	.460**	.432**	.110	.186*	<b>(.92)</b>							
9. Turnover Intentions	2.34	1.49	-.043	-.011	-.007	.516**	.595**	.437**	.347**	.223**	<b>(.88)</b>						
10. Burnout	2.81	0.60	-.097	.000	-.044	.524**	.571**	.652**	.345**	.197*	.596**	<b>(.89)</b>					
11. Org. Commitment	3.22	0.61	.021	-.094	.026	-.615**	-.613**	-.397**	-.324**	-.253**	-.488**	.566**	<b>(.84)</b>				
12. Employee Silence	2.47	0.76	-.047	.015	.013	.271**	.238**	.461**	.084	.002	.202**	.397**	.193*	<b>(.90)</b>			
13. CSE	3.48	0.58	.087	-.157	.076	-.303**	-.271**	-.663**	-.127	.050	.290**	.554**	.305**	.432**	<b>(.85)</b>		
14. Calling	5.04	1.13	.009	.021	.113	.022	.022	-.203*	-.018	.156	-.172*	.298**	.220**	-.053	.231**	<b>(.88)</b>	
15. IA	3.15	0.72	.037	.117	.015	-.267**	-.309**	-.182*	-.156	-.362**	-.439**	-.332**	.450**	-.195*	.084	.054	<b>(.66)</b>

Notes:

<sup>a</sup> N = 139.<sup>b</sup> Reliabilities (Cronbach alphas) are presented in boldface along the diagonal.<sup>c</sup> Gender: 1=Male, 2=Female.<sup>d</sup> PERs = Perceived Exploitative Employee-Organisation Relationships; Org. Commitment= Organisational Commitment, IA= investment size and quality and availability of employment alternatives.<sup>e</sup> \*\*p < .01, \*p < .05.

### Results of hypotheses

Before presenting the results of the hypothesised direct, indirect and interaction effects, the results of the model fit are presented. The measurement model was assessed with the same fit indices presented in chapters 4 and 5. As shown in Table 6.2, two models were compared – a model with controls, and one without the controls. The model without controls provided the best fit for the data ( $\chi^2/df = 3.51$ , RMSEA = .14, CFI = .89, TLI = .85 and SRMR = .09). These results approached good fit and merited the examination of the structural model.

*Table 6.2. Fit of Hypothesised Model of Outcomes*

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\chi^2/df$	$\Delta \chi^2(df)$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
	(NNFI)						
1. With controls	702.18(116) *	6.05	237.54(8)	.19	.44	.42	.15
2. Without controls	70.14(20) *	3.51	73.56(5)	.14	.89	.85	.09

Notes:

<sup>a</sup>  $N = 139$ .

<sup>b</sup>  $*p < .05$ .

<sup>c</sup> Control variables included age, gender and job tenure.

Next, tables 6.3-6.8 present the results of the hypotheses. The first set of hypotheses centred on direct effects and predicted a positive relationship between PERs and anger and hostility (H1), and PERs and shame and guilt (H2). H3 predicted that CSE would moderate the relationship between PERs and anger and hostility (H3a), and between PERs and shame and guilt (H3b). As shown in Table 6.3, H1 and H2 were supported ( $\beta = .761$ ,  $p < .01$ ;  $\beta = .359$ ,  $p < .01$  respectively), and as shown in Table 6.4, H3 was not supported ( $\beta = -.041$ ,  $p = \text{ns}$ ;  $\beta = -.049$ ,  $p = \text{ns}$  respectively).

*Table 6.3. Hypothesised Direct Effects*

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
PERs	→	Anger/Hostility	.761	.063	.000
PERs	→	Shame/Guilt	.359	.025	.000

*Table 6.4. Hypothesised Interaction Effect of PERs and CSE on Emotional Reactions*

Interaction		Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
PERs x CSE	→	Anger/ Hostility	-.041	.063	.475
PERs x CSE	→	Shame/ Guilt	-.049	.084	.493

Indirect effects of PERs on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes were also predicted via anger and hostility and shame and guilt. In focusing on the anger and hostility path, PERs were expected to be positively related to revenge (H4), collective action (H5), turnover intentions (H6), and negatively related to organisational commitment (H7). The shame and guilt path predicted a positive effect of PERs on the outcomes of burnout (H8), and employee silence (H9). These hypotheses were tested using the bootstrapping technique (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; 2008) suitable for testing indirect effects and superior to other significance tests, such as the Sobel test, in that it makes no assumptions of normal distribution that are inappropriate for mediated effects (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

As shown in Table 6.5, H4 was supported ( $\beta = .136$ , 95% CI [.073, .199]), and so were H5 ( $\beta = .205$ , 95% CI [.111, .292]), H6 ( $\beta = .250$ , 95% CI [.124, .382]), H7 ( $\beta = -.161$ , 95% CI [-.213, -.105]), H8 ( $\beta = .463$ , 95% CI [.281, .623]), and H9 ( $\beta = .626$ , 95% CI [.426, .850]). This suggests that the emotions of anger/hostility and shame/guilt significantly mediated the association between PERs and these attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. This can be concluded because zero is not in the 95% confidence interval

(Preacher & Hayes, 2004) indicating that the indirect effects are indeed significant at  $p \leq .05$ .

*Table 6.5. Indirect Effects of PERs on Behavioural and Attitudinal Outcomes (with Bootstrap Confidence Intervals)*

Independent Variable	Mediator Variable	Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	S.E.	P
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Revenge	.136	.073	.199	.037	.003
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Collective Action	.205	.111	.292	.054	.002
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Turnover Intentions	.250	.124	.382	.081	.005
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Organisational Commitment	-.161	-.213	-.105	.033	.002
PERs →	Shame/ Guilt	→ Burnout	.463	.281	.623	.102	.003
PERs →	Shame/ Guilt	→ Employee Silence	.626	.426	.850	.131	.002

While the direct effects of PERs on the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes were also significant (as shown in Table 6.6), the model which includes the mediation effect provided a substantially better fit for the data than the model without the mediation effect (as shown in Table 6.7). Thus, it can be concluded that emotions partially and significantly mediate the relationship between PERs and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

*Table 6.6. Direct Effects of PERs on Behavioural and Attitudinal outcomes*

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	B	S.E.	P
PERs →	Revenge	.169	.036	.000
PERs →	Collective Action	.339	.052	.000
PERs →	Turnover Intentions	.423	.088	.000
PERs →	Organisational Commitment	-.214	.034	.000
PERs →	Burnout	.166	.034	.000
PERs →	Employee Silence	.156	.047	.000

*Table 6.7. The Association between PERs and Attitudinal and Behavioural Outcomes: Comparison between Model with and without Mediators*

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\chi^2/df$	$\Delta \chi^2(df)$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI (NNFI)	SRMR
1. With Mediation	70.14(20)*	3.51	-	.14	.89	.85	.09
2. Without Mediation	438.24(76)*	5.76	368 (56)	.19	.55	.52	.18

Next, interaction effects were postulated, such that lock-in effects (bearing in mind that calling was measured separately from investment size and alternatives) were predicted to affect all of the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (H10). As shown in Table 6.8, only partial support was found for this hypothesis. The only significant interaction discovered was the interaction effect of anger/hostility and investment size/alternatives on collective action ( $\beta = .481, p < .01$ ).

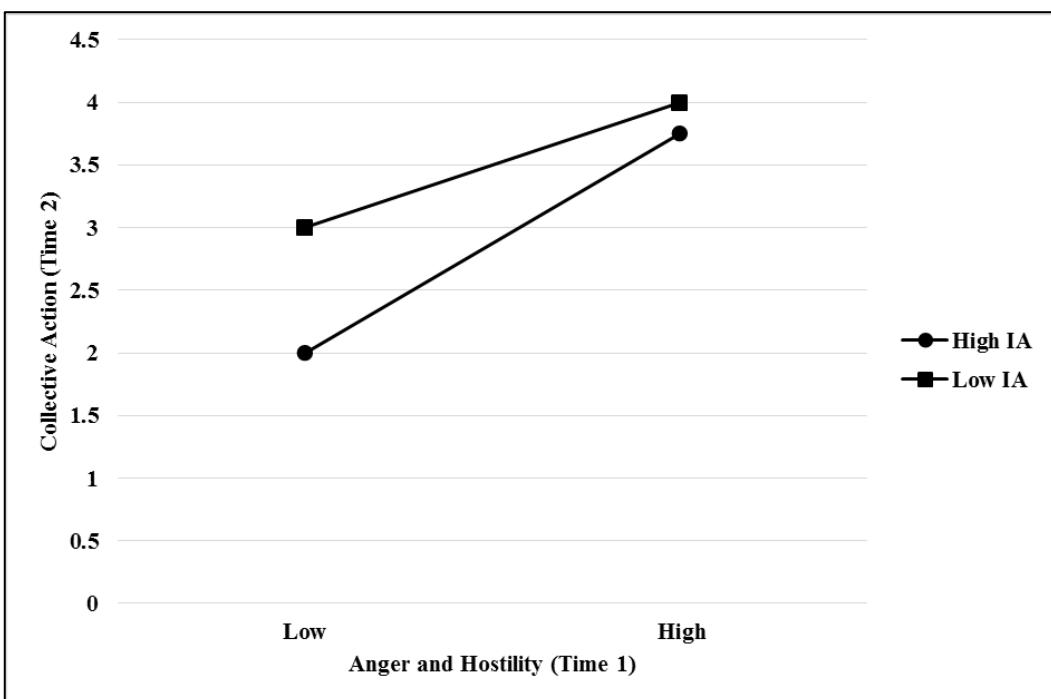
*Table 6.8. Hypothesised Interaction Effects*

Interaction	Dependent Variable	$\beta$	S.E.	P
Anger/ Hostility x Calling	→ Revenge	.084	.048	.318
Anger/ Hostility x Calling	→ Collective Action	.096	.087	.293
Anger/ Hostility x Calling	→ Turnover Intentions	.001	.128	.990
Anger/ Hostility x Calling	→ Organisational Commitment	-.108	.055	.218
Shame/ Guilt x Calling	→ Burnout	-.167	.041	.056
Shame/ Guilt x Calling	→ Employee Silence	.112	.049	.136
Anger/ Hostility x IA	→ Revenge	.090	.015	.289
Anger/ Hostility x IA	→ Collective Action	.481	.023	.000
Anger/ Hostility x IA	→ Turnover Intentions	.132	.037	.109
Anger/ Hostility x IA	→ Organisational Commitment	.059	.015	.464
Shame/ Guilt x IA	→ Burnout	-.037	.037	.602
Shame/ Guilt x IA	→ Employee Silence	.050	.051	.515

Note. IA = Investment size and number and quality of alternatives.

The plot for this interaction effect is presented in Figure 6.2. As shown, the relationship between anger and hostility in Time 1 and collective action in Time 2 was stronger for individuals who were highly invested and had few and/or lower quality alternatives.

*Figure 6.2. Interaction Plot for Anger and Hostility, Investment Size and Alternatives, and Collective Action*



*Note. IA = Investment size and (quality and number of) employment alternatives.*

#### Alternative cross-check

As it was hypothesised that the proactive emotions of anger and hostility lead to proactive outcomes, while passive emotions lead to passive outcomes, the contrary relationship between proactive emotions and passive outcomes and passive emotions and proactive outcomes was also tested in order to rule out this possibility. In combining the findings

shown previously in Table 6.5 and below in Table 6.9, it can be seen that the results were in the hypothesised direction, such that proactive emotions were associated with proactive outcomes, but not with passive ones, and passive emotions were associated with passive outcomes, but not with proactive ones. None of the results of the cross check yielded significant results.

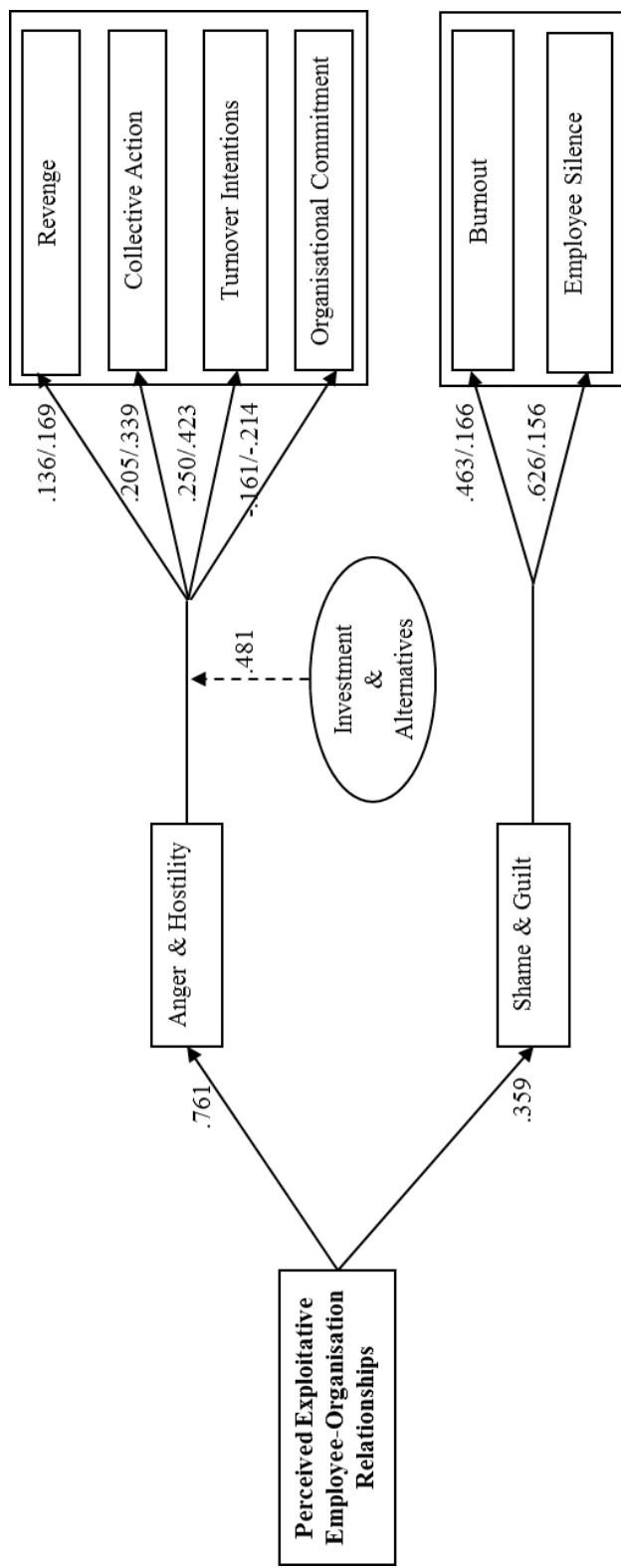
*Table 6.9. Results of Test of Alternative Indirect Effects*

Independent Variable	Mediator Variable	Parameter	Estimate	Lower	Upper	S.E.	P
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Burnout	.050	-.002	.108	.033	.114
PERs →	Anger/ Hostility	→ Employee Silence	.003	-.067	.083	.045	.938
PERs →	Shame/Guilt	→ Revenge	.033	-.151	.212	.110	.826
PERs →	Shame/Guilt	→ Collective Action	-.164	-.451	.084	.165	.315
PERs →	Shame/ Guilt	→ Turnover Intentions	.332	-.060	.719	.240	.189
PERs →	Shame/ Guilt	→ Organisational Commitment	-.007	-.151	.160	.096	.978

### Summary of results

The model presented in Figure 6.3 summarises the results of all the significant relationships and path coefficients. The next section includes a discussion of the results presented in this chapter.

Figure 6.3. Hypothesised Model of Consequences of PERS with Path Coefficients and Parameter Estimates



*Note. Parameter estimates shown on the left are for indirect effects and coefficients on the right are for direct effects.*

### 6.3 Discussion

This chapter sought to answer the question: What are the consequences of PERs for the individual employee and for the organisation? The key finding in this chapter is that PERs are consequential for individuals and organisations, and emotions significantly contribute to these consequences. This finding drives this discussion by highlighting the implications for the broader literature.

#### Consequences of PERs

The finding that not only do PERs have a significant and strong influence on emotions, but also that emotions facilitate the relationship between PERs and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes place these affective reactions at centre stage in this discussion. Accordingly, I (a) highlight the importance of examining the role of emotions with respect to negative EORs, (b) discuss how the findings provide further support for negative EORs as discrete separate entities from positive or neutral EORs, and (c) examine how the findings prompt the need to investigate how discrete negative emotions engender different attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

*The role of emotions in consequences of negative EORs.* The findings in this chapter highlight the role of emotions as catalysts of individual and organisational consequences to experienced exploitation. Consistent with emotion-focused theories, such as AET, which emphasise the role of emotions following events as central to the prediction of attitudes and behaviours, as well as with past research which shows that negative emotions in the workplace influence negative behaviours and non-constructive interactions (e.g. Izard,

2013), the current results provide support for the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between PERs and their consequences. This discovery is significant as it highlights the role of emotions in negative EORs, a role which has been underplayed by the emphasis on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes in organisational research (Weiss et al., 1999), and where emotions research does exist, by focusing on its effect on more positive EORs. For instance, while the role of organisational support in fulfilling socio-emotional needs of employees and in contributing to positive affect has been hypothesised and supported (George & Brief, 1992; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), surprisingly little research attention has been given to the role of emotions with respect to more negative EORs. Thus the findings presented in this chapter help integrate the literatures on emotions and negative EORs and deepen our understanding of the consequences of negative EORs.

*Negative EORs as discrete entities.* In recalling the negative asymmetry position (Taylor, 1991), which argues that negative relationships can have greater explanatory power over workplace outcomes than positive relationships (Labianca & Brass, 2006), it can be concluded that the current findings complement those in chapter 5 and further support the negative asymmetry position. One of the arguments that underlie the negative asymmetry stance is that positive (or neutral) and negative events or relationships have different antecedents and outcomes (Lewicki et al., 1998). Indeed the role of emotions uncovered in this study, which differs from their role as described in research of more positive or neutral EORs, demonstrates this point.

While the role of emotions is less prominent in research focusing on positive or neutral relationships, it seems that they are central to the consequences of PERs. For example, in the organisational justice literature several studies have considered the role of

emotions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Skitka, Winquist & Hutchinson, 2003; Weiss et al., 1999). A meta-analysis on this topic has concluded that justice does not have a differential influence on positive and negative affect (Colquitt et al., 2013: 216). In contrast, the strong association of PERs to different negative affects contradicts this conclusion, and consequently this inference may not apply to more extreme negative EORs. Thus, in complementing the findings of chapter 5, which pointed to negative asymmetry via differentiated processes that lead to the development of positive (e.g. POS) versus negative (PERs) relationships, the findings in this chapter further support the asymmetry through a differential effect of positive (or neutral) and negative EORs on emotional outcomes.

*Discrete negative emotions as drivers of distinct outcomes.* Another contribution of the findings is clarifying and extending our understanding of the effect of *discrete negative emotions* on attitudinal and behavioural consequences. Discrete emotions following workplace events have been investigated in the past via broad categories of positive and negative emotions (Weiss et al., 1999). Less extensive, is the research on discrete negative emotions. The findings in the current study point to the importance of such an investigation- PERs can generate two discrete sets of emotion that spur a differential set of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes: anger and hostility lead to increased revenge, collective action, turnover intention and reduced organisational commitment, whereas shame and guilt lead to burnout and employee silence.

Delving into discrete emotional reactions rather than emotions as a broad category can have implications for the broader EOR literature as well by unmasking potentially dominant outcome paths of different EOR types. In the current study, for example, PERs were found to be strongly predictive of anger and hostility. This result is consistent with

findings presented in chapter 4 in which anger and hostility were the highest correlates of PERs in two independent samples, and in which PERs were found to be more highly correlated with these emotions than any other independent variable measured. Therefore, PERs might be strongly associated with a specific set of outcomes, which anger and hostility have been found to influence (e.g. Robinson & Bennett, 1995; Neuman & Baron, 1998; Glomb, 2002). Thus, this study suggests that uncovering discrete sets of emotions and their relationships with predictor variables can help provide a more fine-tuned understanding of the EOR.

### Insignificant interaction effects

Surprising and somewhat disappointing was the discovery that CSE and calling had no bearing on the results, and the effect of the moderators proposed based on Rusbult and Buunk's (1993) investment model was limited. Potential explanations for these results have to do with measurement issues and the constraints of this research in terms of unmasking more complex relationships. The moderators measured in this study, that is, CSE and lock-in effects (calling, investment in a relationship and number and quality of employment alternatives) are discussed in turn.

*Core self-evaluation.* In this study I sought after a higher order personality variable to help explain why some individuals might feel anger and hostility following PERs, whereas other might feel shame and guilt. CSE was chosen as it captures personality characteristics that might be particularly relevant to PERs and to the hypothesised emotional reactions, as CSE reflects an individual's self-perception (Judge et al., 2003). Yet, contrary to this theorisation, no significant moderation effect was found, a result which seems to suggest that individual differences in personality traits such as self-esteem and locus of control

have no bearing on whether employees will react to PERs with the outward-focused proactive feelings of anger and hostility, or with the inward-focused, more passive feelings of shame and guilt. This result is surprising as it clashes with the literature on these emotions, which has recurrently pointed to an association with the CSE traits (e.g. Baumeister et al., 1996; Gruenewald et al., 2004; Harder & Lewis, 1987).

A possible explanation is that the assessment of CSE as a global measure masks more fine-tuned relationships between CSE traits and emotional reactions to PERs. Judge et al.'s (2003) basis for developing the direct measure of CSE, which was utilised in the current study, is that there are distinct conceptual similarities among the traits. Individuals high on self-esteem are also considered to be high on self-efficacy, low on neuroticism and have an internal locus of control, and those low on self-esteem are also considered to be low on self-efficacy, high on neuroticism and have an external locus of control. However, as the trait-bandwidth debate (e.g. Moon, 2001; Bergner, Neubauer & Kreuzthaler, 2010; Moon, Livne & Marinova, 2013) teaches us, often different traits of the same latent construct operate in opposite directions, which suppresses their individual impact on outcomes.

To illustrate, individuals high on CSE typically have a high self-esteem and an internal LOC. But what if these facets of CSE happen to influence the emotion of anger in opposing directions, such that self-esteem is positively related, but internal LOC is negatively related to anger? Simply measuring high CSE might yield an insignificant result and would thus mask this relationship. This example supports the notion that not all the CSE traits are necessarily interchangeable (Johnson, Rosen & Levy, 2008). However, as this investigation is beyond the scope of this thesis, in the future, researchers can examine the relationship between CSE upon its component parts and PERs, as described in further detail later in this chapter.

*Calling.* An employee's sense of calling represents commitment to self-transcendent personal meaning (Markow & Klenke, 2005). This strong pledge was expected to override negative and dysfunctional emotions of anger, hostility, shame and guilt triggered by the actions of the organisation, due to the employee's commitment to the higher cause, to which the individual contributes through organisational membership. This theoretical logic led to the prediction that a sense of calling would act as an organisational lock-in effect which would influence the individual's behaviour, such that a high sense of calling would weaken the relationship between an employee's negative emotion and revenge, turnover intentions, burnout and silence, but would strengthen the relationship between negative emotions and collective action and organisational commitment. However, this prediction was not justified by the evidence: calling was found not to interact with any affective reaction to PERs to predict attitudinal and behavioural outcomes.

An explanation for this non-finding is the limited nature of the chosen sample. It is notable that the respondents in the sample had a relatively high sense of calling and that there was low variability in the responses to calling (to recapitulate,  $M = 5.04$ ,  $SD = 1.13$ ). Therefore, the chosen sample can potentially explain the non-significant effect. To put this more clearly, the doctors in the chosen sample work mostly in public medical organisations where compensation is low in comparison to the high investment of time and emotional resources into the job. Knowingly entering such a profession might mean that many doctors enlist not because of the financial rewards of the job, but because of some intrinsic motivation, such as a desire to help others, or a sense of calling. Therefore, if most of the respondents have a high sense of calling, the likelihood of finding an effect is reduced.

*The investment model.* Another unexpected result was the insignificant interaction of investment size and number and quality of employment alternatives with emotions to

predict most of the attitudinal and emotional outcomes. To reiterate, employees that have invested many resources into their EOR and have few or unattractive alternative employment prospects were expected to hold different attitudes and engage in different behaviours than those less invested such that employees that are more locked-in were presumed to be less likely to engage in risky dysfunctional behaviours that could risk their job, such as revenge, and more likely to engage in constructive behaviours, such as commitment. Yet this interaction effect was only supported with regards to the prediction of collective action and not the other outcomes. Indeed, it was found that the more locked-in the respondent was due to a sizable investment and/or few or unattractive alternatives, the more likely he or she was to engage in collective action.

Once again, examining the characteristics of the chosen sample might shed some light on this result. A possible reason is that the typical organisational structure and the professional norms in the sample are set up in such a way to favour collective action when employees seek change but are unable to leave their jobs or positions. This explanation is feasible as the vast majority of the sample reported belonging to a professional union. Resorting to collective action in light of PERs might thus be canonical in this sample.

### 6.3.1 *Limitations*

As mentioned in chapter 5, limitations pertaining to the thesis as a whole are fully described in the next chapter. A limitation specific to this study was that the outcome variables measured were not exhaustive of all the potential outcomes of PERs. One reason for this is a theoretical one. It is difficult to encompass a host of outcomes that can be explained by an underlying theory or framework, particularly in an exploratory investigation utilising a new measure. The second reason is methodological and has to do

with the restrictions of sample size and structural equation modelling; as model fit usually improves with larger sample sizes and fewer variables, it was also a practical consideration to include a finite number of dependent variables.

### 6.3.2 *Future Research*

While this study helped develop the understanding of the consequences of PERs for both individuals and organisations, further research is required. The results in this chapter provide support for several promising directions of investigation. These include the research of: (a) the role of temporal changes in emotions and consequently, in attitudes and behaviour, (b) outcomes of PERs beyond those that were explored here, and (c) further examination of moderators of the relationships predicted in this chapter.

#### Effects of time on outcomes of PERs

One possible direction is the investigation of the role of time and its impact on short-term versus long-term outcomes. The idea that time can allow changes to unfold and thus has a bearing on outcomes has been raised and supported by researchers, such as Dobrow (2007). Particularly relevant to the results presented in this chapter is the effect of time on emotions. There is some empirical evidence to suggest that time effects both the nature and intensity of emotions. In their research on students' feelings of stress and coping at examination times, Folkman and Lazarus's (1985) findings suggest that time can play a crucial role in determining emotion, as changes occurred across three different measurements, representing three different stages. In the current study emotions were measured using Time 1 data, as were PERs, whereas the remaining outcomes were measured in Time 2. This raises an interesting question surrounding the stability or

changes in these outcomes over time. How long-lived are the emotions that PERs stir, and do they lessen over time? How are attitudes and behaviours affected by such possible changes? Seeking answers to such questions might be an interesting research direction in the future.

### Additional outcomes of PERs

A second research endeavour would redress the issue of the limited number of outcomes included in the current model due to the restriction of the scope of this thesis as well as practical considerations, such as questionnaire length. There are undoubtedly additional emotional, attitudinal and behavioural consequences to be considered. The examination of paranoia as a result of experienced exploitation, for example, could provide a fruitful research avenue. Defined as “a form of heightened and exaggerated distrust that encompasses an array of beliefs, including organizational members’ perceptions of being threatened, harmed, persecuted, mistreated, disparaged, and so on, by malevolent others within the organization” (Kramer, 2001: 6), it is plausible to argue that paranoia could result from employee distrust in the organisation and its motives due to an experience of PERs. It could well have further implications for the individual and the organisation through its potential to subsequently engender a host of dysfunctional outcomes, such as suspicion behaviours (Chan & McAllister, 2014).

Moreover, it would be potentially valuable to investigate additional discrete emotions that PERs may lead to, such as sympathy. Sympathy might represent a different set of emotions, which could be categorised along dimensions distinct from the inward-versus outward-focused dimensions of emotions like shame and anger. Izard (2009) sees the emotion of sympathy as departing from the emotions of shame and anger on the basis of a ‘fundamental’, or ‘basic’ divide. Emotions like anger are basic in the sense that they

are fundamental to human evolution, whereas emotions like sympathy are an “emotion interacting dynamically with perceptual and cognitive processes to influence mind and behaviour” (Izard, 2009: 8). Sympathy thus differs from other sets of emotions in being more intentional, “controlled” or “manipulated” (Izard, 2009). PERs might provide a surprising and interesting frame of reference for the analysis of a sympathy spectrum. While it might seem counterintuitive to suggest that individuals who feel exploited can feel sympathy towards their offender, as stated previously, research has suggested that this emotion is driven by the need for negative state relief, as a way of coping with a difficult situation, or as a means for relief of distress (Tsuang et al., 2005; Aquino et al., 2006).

Outcomes of PERs can also be framed in terms of their spill-over effects onto other work or non-work related contexts. Previous research suggests that emotional borders between work and family are permeable, and that negative emotion can flow in both directions. For instance, empirical evidence supports the existence of a negative spill-over from family to work (Dilworth, 2004; Krouse & Afifi, 2007), as well as from work to family (e.g. Hoobler & Brass, 2006). Displaced aggression within organisations, that is, between employees and co-workers and between supervisors and employees, has also been accounted for and supported (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Aryee et al., 2007; Skogstad, Matthiesen & Einarsen, 2007). Accordingly, future research could explore the extent to which the effects of PERs spill over to employees’ life outside work.

#### Further examination of moderators of the predicted relationships

The disappointing results of the chosen moderators in this chapter provide impetus for further investigation. One direction is using a different measure of CSE. For instance, following lessons from the trait bandwidth debate mentioned earlier in this chapter, according to which measurement at the facet level can predict certain outcome variables

more precisely than measurement at the broader factor-level, an aggregate, as opposed to a global, measure of CSE can be used. Such aggregate scales to measure each trait separately exist, and might provide significant findings, as the traits have unique effects (Johnson et al., 2008).

Another possibility is to test additional individual or situational differences that have been found to impact similar outcomes in past research. Negative affectivity is one example of a dispositional variable that can impact the strength of outcomes of PERs. Aquino and Bradfield (2000) suggest that “high negative affectivity persons are more likely to make hostile attributions or to interpret stimuli more negatively” (p. 534). Such a tendency can lead to stronger emotional reactions and further outcomes.

An example of an external situational variable is past history, or the effects of past experiences of the individual on the attribution of meaning and reaction to future events. These effects might be far reaching, such that the interpretation of events experienced in the present are influenced by the memory of past events, or even by the imagination of a possible future unfolding of a chain of events, derived from re-engaging in past memories (Damasio, 2003). Researching the effects of such factors could be an interesting future path for investigation.

#### 6.4 Conclusion

“But the Hebrew word, the word *timshel* — ‘Thou mayest’ — that gives a choice. It might be the most important word in the world. That says the way is open. That throws it right back on a man. For if ‘Thou mayest’ — it is also true that ‘Thou mayest not’.”

—John Steinbeck, *East of Eden* (1952/1992: 303)

This final empirical chapter has sought to further explore the potential outcomes of PERs. The findings presented both replicate and extend some of the findings in chapter 4. The chief finding is that the experience of PERs is quite an emotional one, and particularly, an angry one. The importance of this finding lies not only in the negative emotional experience for employees, but also in the effect of emotions on organisationally-directed negative behaviour. Whether these behaviours are resorted to as the only 'weapons of the weak' (Scott, 1985), or whether they are individual choices made by employees, as Steinbeck implies, it can be concluded that the detrimental outcomes of PERs are certainly undesirable for both employees and their organisations.

I now turn to the next chapter which concludes this thesis by highlighting the contributions and implications of the findings to theory and practice, and by summarising the limitations of this work, as well as recommendations for future research.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **DISCUSSION**

## 7.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis was to expand the employee-organisation relationship literature to account for more extreme negative forms of relationships by focusing on the perceived exploitation of the employee by the organisation. This preliminary investigation of the construct of perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships was guided by several research questions: (a) what are PERs? Specifically, how are PERs to be defined and measured? (b) Does the phenomenon of PERs exist in organisations? (c) Are PERs distinct from other constructs? Is the phenomenon that PERs capture already captured by other existing constructs in the literature? (d) What are the antecedents of PERs? Lastly, (e) what are the consequences of PERs for the employee and the organisation?

Data from five samples were collected in order to seek answers to these questions, and the results were presented in chapters 4-6. This chapter commences with a summary of the main findings of this thesis and will proceed to a discussion, synthesising the nature of the contribution that this research makes to the field, as well as mapping out some directions for further research.

## 7.2 Summary of Findings

Chapters 4, 5 and 6 comprised the empirical chapters of this thesis. Chapter 4 focused on the development and evaluation of a new measure for PERs, chapter 5 concentrated on

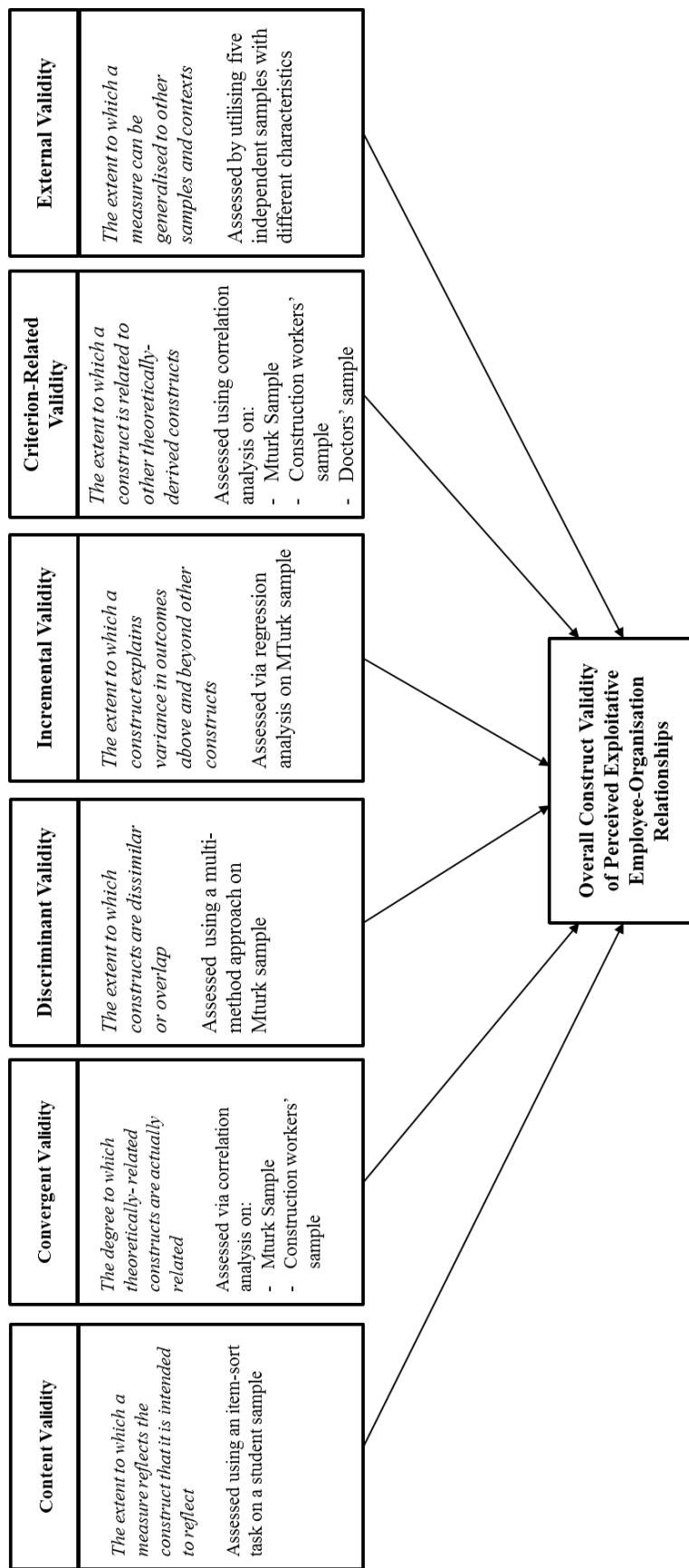
testing a model of potential antecedents of PERs, and chapter 6 centred on evaluating the consequences of PERs. The main findings of each chapter are detailed below.

#### Chapter 4 – The development and evaluation of the PERs scale

In chapter 4, I outlined the stages undertaken for the development and evaluation of the PERs scale. The contribution of this chapter to this thesis is threefold. First, I was able to verify the consistently high reliability and validity of the PERs scale, providing support for its use in the subsequent chapters. The very high reliability of the scale in all the samples supports the notion that the measure indeed captures the phenomenon of interest. Meanwhile, finding evidence for different types of validities of the scale provides strong support for its overall validity. Figure 7.1 summarises the different validity types that were examined and the samples used to assess them. As shown, the establishment of content, convergent, discriminant, incremental, criterion, and external validities, all contribute to the overall construct validity of PERs.

Second, the variability in respondents' reported experience of PERs was demonstrated. This variability was manifested in that the PERs measure captured low to high perceptions of exploitation in the samples employed. Variability is desirable because "a measure cannot covary if it does not vary. If a scale fails to discriminate differences in the underlying attribute, its correlations with other measures will be restricted and its utility will be limited" (DeVellis, 2012: 89).

Figure 7.1. The Contribution of Different Validity Types to the Overall Construct Validity of PERS



*Note. The doctors' sample is not described in chapter 4, but results of the assessments carried out in chapters 5 and 6 replicate and provide further support for the construct validity established in chapter 4.*

Third, PERs were found to have high explanatory power such that they contributed to the prediction of attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, and were the primary predictors of the emotional variables measured. That PERs incrementally explained variance in these affective variables above and beyond the variance explained by other established constructs, also points to the potential importance of PERs as capturing an extreme form of a negative EOR.

### Chapter 5 – Antecedents of PERs

In Chapter 5, I used the newly-developed scale to test a theoretical model of the antecedents of PERs. The results presented in this chapter have several implications pertaining to PERs as a distributive phenomenon, the role of abusive supervision, as well as that of attributions that employees make about the organisation's greed.

First, I found that imbalanced relationships, in which the employee perceives that his or her contributions outweigh the reward received from the organisation, are critical to the development of PERs. This finding corroborates the view that PERs are a distributive phenomenon largely driven by employees' perceptions of an effort-reward imbalance. Establishing that PERs are an essentially distributive phenomenon, in contrast to other types of phenomena, is important because it can drive future research directions. As the justice literature teaches us, the differentiation between distributive phenomena and other types of constructs, such as procedural or interactional ones, is imperative as it relates to different organisational practices and has a differential bearing on outcomes (e.g. Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Knowing that PERs are distributive can thus impact the choice of theoretical frameworks and constructs with which PERs are examined.

A second contribution pertains to the unexpected finding that abusive supervision does not predict PERs as hypothesised. While this result should be interpreted with care, it

can nonetheless entertain the idea that negative and positive EORs have different antecedents, hereby reinforcing the discreteness of these relationships and supporting the negative asymmetry view. As Labianca and Brass (2006) state: “the formation of negative relationships is not the mere opposite of the way positive relationships form” (pp. 599-600).

The unexpected finding regarding the influence of employee attributions of greedy motives to the organisation also merits attention. Contrary to the hypothesised moderating effect, the findings support the direct main effect of attributions of greed on PERs. This suggests that greed attributions influence PERs, a finding that departs from the traditional research on blame attributions, which emphasises the retrospective internal versus external explanations individuals make for their outcomes (e.g. Brewin & Shapiro, 1984; Crant & Bateman, 1993).

A potential explanation for this finding is the information-seeking bias, according to which individuals seek information that confirms their prior beliefs (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Thus, if employees already believe that their organisation is greedy, they might seek out evidence from their own experiences that leads them to believe that they are being exploited. This explanation also helps extend and complicate our understanding of attributional mechanisms, because traditionally research has focused on the retrospective attributions of causality following an experience or event, and here I am proposing the possibility that attributions can impact an employee’s subsequent perceptions and experiences.

### Chapter 6 – Consequences of PERs

The purpose of chapter 6 was to explore the range of outcomes generated by PERs, their focus, as well as their contribution to the overall construct validity of PERs. First, I

showed how a range of emotions mediated the relationship between PERs and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. The finding that PERs lead to different sets of discrete emotions of different orientations suggests that an emotional reaction to the devaluation element inherent in PERs might vary among individuals based on their personality or other individual differences. For instance, the outwards-focused emotions of anger and hostility can represent an individual's rejection of the organisation's negative evaluation in order to preserve a positive self-evaluation and in order to empower oneself (Ellsworth & Gross, 1994). Conversely, the inward-focused emotions of shame and guilt signify an internalisation of this devaluation and a negative evaluation of oneself (Tangney & Dearing, 2002). Whether an individual employee is inclined towards one set of emotional reactions over another can depend on individual differences such as self-esteem (Harter, 1990).

This result and its interpretation represents an advance on prior conceptualisations of organisation-based emotional reactions which were based predominantly on justice and fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), and which did not explain a variety of negative emotions. This justice-based approach focuses particularly on anger as a reaction to a violation of some moral standard (Folger, 1987; Judge et al., 2006), as evidenced by the labelling of this emotion as "moral outrage" (Bies, 1987). As Watson (2000) states, "when we are treated unfairly by another person, we feel anger and annoyance, not guilt and nervousness." (p. 39). The findings in this thesis indicate that the emotional outcomes of a negative EOR are more nuanced, and do incorporate emotions beyond anger.

The findings also reinforce and extend the multi-focal perspective, which maintains that individuals want to retaliate against the source of harm (Folger, 1993; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). While the chief sources of harm-doing against the employee conventionally examined are the organisation, the supervisor, or peers, chapter 6 suggests that employees

themselves can be another source, by inflicting self-harm. This is alluded to by the finding that if an employee views him or herself as the source of harm, then reprisal will take place against the self. Indeed, in the longitudinal study of doctors, some of the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes were directed outwardly, towards the organisation (revenge, collective action, turnover intentions, organisational commitment), whereas other consequences were inward-focused (burnout, silence). The inward-focused outcomes are self-defeating behaviours because they lead to non-optimal courses of action (Leith & Baumeister, 1996) and can be conceptualised as reprisal of the employee against him or herself. These behaviours were also found to be the consequence of the inward-focused emotions of shame and guilt, suggesting that these outcomes are a result of the individual having blamed him or herself for the outcome (Gilbert & Miles, 2000). Thus, the finding that when individuals blame themselves the response will be more inward-focused extends the multi-focal debate beyond reprisal against external sources through revenge and retaliation, for example, to understand the more covert process of reprisal against oneself.

Lastly, the results in chapter 6 further support the external validity of PERs. While chapter 4 presents the PERs scale assessment outcomes, it was necessary to replicate results in order to increase confidence about the construct validity (Hinkin, 1998). Thus, some of the outcomes measured in chapter 6 were also measured previously. In discovering that the hypothesised relationships were indeed upheld in different organisational contexts, I was in a position to provide greater evidential support for the external validity of PERs.

### 7.3 Overall Contribution to the Organisational Behaviour Literature

This thesis contributes to the OB literature in four major ways. First, it extends the EOR research beyond its traditional boundaries to account for more negative relationships. Second, this thesis sheds light on the development of PERs, and by association, on the development of negative EORs. The third contribution is that it highlights and investigates the role of emotions in the EOR, (and, *en passant*, contributes to the literature on emotions). The final contribution is that it extends and deepens our understanding of the consequences of negative EORs and points to the potential far-reaching implications of this line of research. These contributions are discussed, in turn, in the following sections.

#### *7.3.1. Extension of the EOR Literature to Account for More Negative Relationships*

The key motivation for examining exploitative employee-organisation relationships was the view that established constructs in OB literature, which focus on the relationship between employees and their organisations, do not capture all of what there is to be said about negative relationships. Established literatures ranging from POS to more global views of the EOR, such as the employment relationship model by Tsui et al. (1997) capture different phenomena from PERs. For its part, POS research has placed strong emphasis on benevolent organisational intentions (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012), and while the employment relationship model has examined imbalanced relationships (underinvestment and quasi-spot contract), it has done so from an organisational perspective rather than from the perspective of individual perceptions. Therefore PERs fill a gap in these established literatures. Findings in this thesis, such as the different process by which PERs develop, or

their explanatory power over certain outcomes, different to those drawing on social exchange theory (e.g. POS, and PC breach) suggest that PERs might characterise an EOR of a different nature than those captured in past research.

The different ‘nature’ of a negative EOR, such as PERs, can be explained by Ballinger and Rockmann’s (2010) conceptual framework. These authors assert that some relationships are nonreciprocal and thus operate under different rules than relationships that operate under the reciprocal nature of social exchange. Reciprocal relationships may become nonreciprocal by a change in the rules guiding these relationships, which, the authors argue, occurs through a “phase-shift” following an “anchoring” event or events. These events represent a negative set of exchanges, which result in a nonreciprocal relationship. Ballinger and Rockmann maintain that anchoring events are more likely to occur when an individual is highly dependent on a source (i.e. the organisation), when the outcomes for the individual go counter to his or her expectations, and when the actions of the source are perceived to be controllable. Similar conditions were also associated with PERs in this thesis, such that some subjects of PERs might be dependent on the organisation, or locked-in, that they felt their rewards to be insufficient, and that they attributed their exploitation to greedy motives, implying volitional and intentional behaviour of the organisation. This parallel suggests that PERs can capture a relationship which is outside the rules of traditional reciprocal exchange.

Further support for this is provided by the current findings that PERs have the capacity to predict certain outcomes, specifically emotional ones, perhaps more so than other constructs, as the findings in this thesis suggest. That negative emotional arousal is so strongly associated with PERs increases the likelihood that PERs capture a distinct form of EOR. According to Ballinger and Rockmann (2010), negative events in a relationship are engrained in an individual’s autobiographical memory and are recalled more frequently

than positive events. These memories are associated with high levels of affective arousal. Therefore, the negative emotions that PERs are related to, indicate the potential for a more negative form of relationship.

While it can be maintained that the negative EOR domain has already been occupied by the more recent constructs of POO (Gibney et al., 2009) and POC (Shore & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012), as a budding field of inquiry only a very small amount of research has been done to date, and the various differences between these constructs and PERs suggest that this research domain is far from theoretical and empirical saturation. For instance, POO differs from PERS on conceptual grounds as well as on their respective scope, and the results of initial investigations presented in chapter 4 provided empirical support for this differentiation. With regard to POC, although an operable measure does not exist to date, much can still be said about the points of departure from PERs. Examples of such differences range from the goal or utility to the organisation gained from the mistreatment, which is defined and clear in the case of PERs, but ambiguous to employees in the case of POC, to the type of phenomenon captured by each concept – a distributive-based notion of PERs versus the broader domain of cruelty, which has an underlying interactional foundation.

In light of such differences, it becomes apparent how little we know about negative EORs, and how much potential variability exists in such relationships. Negative relationship types indeed may be more numerous and the relationships themselves possibly more complex than positive relationships given that negative relationships make stronger demands on cognitive processing due to the heightened importance that individuals place on negative information (Labianca & Brass, 2006; Peeters & Czapinski, 1990; Kahneman & Tversky, 1984). PERs thus extend the negative EOR domain by offering another form of negative relationship that has been unaccounted for in the EOR agenda.

### 7.3.2 *Understanding the Development of PERs and of Negative Employee-Organisation Relationships*

By seeking to understand how PERs develop, and what their unique antecedents are, the investigation in this thesis helps to support the discreteness of negative relationships by pointing to their differential development in comparison to the development of positive relationships, and recognise the need to further investigate the antecedents of PERs.

First, in supporting the thesis that positive and negative EORs are different and develop differently, this work sheds light on how a negative EOR might develop. This is important as SET constructs have been more limited in their ability to explain very negative relationships that do not necessarily abide by the norm of reciprocity and have evolved into non-reciprocal ones (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010). As the authors state, “exchange relationships can change between reciprocity-based and non-reciprocity-based forms through a ‘punctuated equilibrium’ process where the relationships reach these states through the course of one exchange or a short sequence of exchanges marked by extreme emotional and instrumental content” (p. 373).

In retrospect, we could speculate that negative EORs might escalate through such a “punctuated equilibrium”, indicating that anchoring events (Ballinger & Rockmann, 2010), which then become deeply engrained into one’s memory (Conway & Pleydell-Pearce, 2000), radically shifting the rules of the exchange, have occurred. Such a prediction about the deterioration of an EOR would be consistent with Brass and Labianca’s (2006) statement that “negative relationship development is a much faster process” (p. 599) than the slower, more gradual development of their positive counterparts. And such a prediction too could be mapped onto PERs which may also play out as a fast deterioration process.

While further research is required surrounding the processes that lead to negative versus positive EORs, the preliminary findings in this thesis support the differential development of negative relationships compared to positive ones. Whereas PSS contributes to POS (Eisenberger et al., 2002; Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006), abusive supervision was not found here to contribute to PERs, providing initial evidence that negative EORs are not mirror opposites of positive ones.

Second, the unexpected finding, that attributions of organisational greed predict PERs, shows that we must be prepared to find other additional unexpected antecedents of PERs. Although some suggestions were made in chapter 5, the social context should be stressed here, as it might be an important factor in shaping PERs. Building on the work of Lind (2001) and Martin (1981) it is possible to argue that individuals who perceive themselves as having been singled out for unfair treatment shift away from what Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) label “group mode” towards an “individual mode” characterised by the individual’s promotion of self-interest, and maximisation of self-gain.

Nonetheless, the relationship between PERs and collective action as uncovered in this work suggests a more nuanced relationship between the individual and the group in relation to PERs. As collective action signals that exploitation has occurred, or was perceived to have occurred on a group level, there is room to suspect that variability in PERs is caused by other factors, such as individual differences, or inconsistencies in causal attributions among individuals. In other words, not all perceptions of exploitation can be explained by an individual’s sense of deprivation compared to others, as unionism and collective action imply that others feel exploited as well, and that they are often willing to get together to seek resolution. So, Ballinger and Rockmann’s thesis of a shift from “group mode” to “individual mode” may not always hold true. On the contrary, the shift from “individual mode” of perception to “group mode” is just as, if not more important. In

collective action, we observe how individual perceptions of exploitation gather strength from being part of the collectivity. Individual employees get together in collective action so as to seek information that confirms prior beliefs (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), especially where high emotional arousal is concerned (Leary, 2007), and under these circumstances employees who have a heightened sense of exploitation unite (e.g. in a labour union, or strike action) and reinforce their own perceptions all the more. This process points to the potential development and reinforcement of PERs due to individuals' need to confirm prior beliefs (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Greenwald, 1980). Thus the dynamics of collective action are also important not only as outcomes of PERs, but also for understanding the development of PERs in the workplace.

### 7.3.3 *The Role of Emotions*

Understanding more about the influence of emotions in the organisational context is an important task given the effect of emotions on organisational processes and on individuals' ability to "navigate through the basic problems that arise in social relations" (Barclay et al., 2005: 629). This thesis extends our understanding of emotions in two ways: (a) in contributing to the emotions literature by offering a resolution to an ongoing debate surrounding the conceptualisation of emotions, and by contributing to the understanding of the development of emotions, and (b) by developing and extending the synthesis of the emotions and organisational literatures through the identification of the mediating role of emotions in the event-outcome relationship, and highlighting a range of attitudinal and behavioural consequences of such emotional arousal following PERs.

### Contribution to the literature on emotions

The construct of PERs and insights into their development gained from this thesis can benefit the existing literature on emotions, which has been divided by a debate between two conceptualisations of positivity and negativity. The first is the bipolar approach, which views affects as existing along a continuum ranging from positive to negative, and the second is the bivariate approach, which offers an orthogonal explanation surrounding the distinctness of positive and negative emotion (Feldman, Barrett & Russell, 1998; Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997; Rook, 1984).

PERs can bridge the gap between the two accounts which have separated researchers, by postulating that emotions can shift from the bipolar approach, which holds the “assumption that people form a global bipolar judgment of others that can be captured by such terms as ‘like’ and ‘dislike’ that are on opposite ends of a continuum”, to the bivariate approach, which emphasises the path slant, or the view that positive and negative aspects of emotions are independent (Labianca & Brass, 2006).

While some researchers have sought reconciliation between the two approaches (Feldman, Barrett & Russell, 1998; Cacioppo, et al., 1997), most work is conventional in categorising aspects of affect into those that can be conceptualised as orthogonal and those that are on a continuum (Labianca & Brass, 2006). This thesis, by contrast, raises the idea that affects can change over time from being bipolar to being bivariate in nature following changes to the relationship from positive or neutral to negative. That is, an individual’s repeated judgement of “dislikes” following perceptions of exploitation, (which resonates with the bipolar view of emotion), can make way, in time, for an orthogonal path perspective, in which emotions are associated with either an overall positive or an overall

negative relationship, rather than with a diagonal, bipolar perspective, in which relationships range along a continuum.

How might this shift occur in practice? Let us suppose that the “dislike” end of the continuum is reinforced, possibly by recurrent mistreatment and/or by the individual’s tendency to repeatedly rehearse and recall negative events (Conway, Singer & Tagini, 2004), which embed the negative emotions more deeply in the psyche. In those circumstances, even if a change in the nature of the relationship with the transgressor occurs for the better (objectively speaking), this change is accompanied by a detachment from any positive emotion that might have existed in the past towards the offender, which means that the individual is no longer able to experience positive emotion towards that offender. As Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) note, negative emotion associated with negative events mute positive emotions because of the ability of negative emotional arousal to “lead to a reduction in the evaluation of new information” (p. 380). So whilst objectively the relationship may improve (the organisation may stop offending/exploiting), subjectively the relationship is experienced as negative because of past engrained associations. This emotional approach is indicative of the orthogonal view, suggesting that a shift has occurred from the experience of negative emotion towards the target as a part of a wide potential set of emotions (bipolar approach) to the emotional experience in the relationship as purely negative. If these speculations are correct, PERs can add to the development of emotions literature and help to bridge the bivariate-bipolar divide.

### Synthesising the emotions and organisational behaviour literatures

In this thesis, uncovering the role of emotions as mediating the relationship between PERs and their consequences, extends our understanding of their importance to organisational behaviour research and of the need to further integrate these literatures.

Few studies within EOR research have examined the influence of emotions on the events-outcome relationship. Thus most of our knowledge is based on the work of Barclay et al. (2005) and Zhao et al. (2007). Zhao et al. (2007) focused on violation and mistrust and their mediating role in the relationship between PC breach and attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, such as job satisfaction and turnover intentions. This thesis expanded the investigation of the mediating role of affects such as anger, hostility shame and guilt and other outcomes. Although Barclay et al. (2005) measured the same set of discrete emotions; they believed that only outward-focused emotions mediated the relationship between event and outcome. This thesis thus extends the work of these authors by discovering that both sets of emotions (anger/hostility, and shame/guilt) mediated the relationship between PERs and the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes measured.

In combining emotions and OB research, extrapolations from the findings in this thesis can also be made about the strength of the outcomes of PERs. When considering both the suppressing effect that emotions have on cognitive processing and the negativity bias hypothesis (Rozin & Royzman, 2001), this suggests that more negative events magnify the intensity of the felt emotion. Therefore, the outcomes elicited by PERs indirectly via emotions are all the stronger. This is because emotions might lead to more impetuous action, as Cacioppo and Gardner (1999) state: “higher forms of human existence — mentation, rationality, foresight, and decision making — can be hijacked by the pirates of emotion” (p. 194). The support found in this thesis for the indirect effect of PERs on attitudinal and behavioural outcomes via negative emotions coupled with the negativity in the experience of PERs potentially renders the eventual outcomes ever stronger.

Moreover, the research on outcomes of negative emotions has been limited to several variables, the leading example being retaliation (e.g. Barclay et al., 2005; Stouten, De Cremer, & van Dijk, 2006). Retaliation as an outcome of negative emotions has dominated organisational research; it has been well-established in the literature, for example that the emotion of anger engenders a desire for retribution (Tepper et al., 2008). As this desire to hold the blameworthy to account and vent the feelings of frustration and anger has proved itself to be so strong, researchers have examined and documented a displacement mechanism by which individuals express their anger against another party if they are unable to retaliate against the source of harm (e.g. Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Tepper et al., 2008). It is easy to see why revenge in the context of the workplace has captivated researchers: at it is extreme, it has dramatic, sometimes violent and even, in the worst cases, fatal manifestations. However, although important, it is not the sole outcome of negative emotions, and one of the contributions of this thesis has been to extend the investigation of the effects of emotions to other outcomes as well.

Also noteworthy is that studies that have incorporated discrete emotions have tended to focus on outward-focused emotions and mainly on anger (with a few exceptions, such as Barclay et al., 2005). In this thesis, the research of discrete emotions is extended to inward-focused emotions. To reiterate, shame and guilt were found to fully mediate the relationship between PERs and the outcomes of burnout and employee silence (chapter 6). The differential outcomes of inward versus outward-focused emotions reinforce the importance of looking at discrete emotions as opposed to a general assessment of positive versus negative emotions in relation to PERs and negative EORs. This has a parallel in the justice literature, where Barclay and Kiefer (2014) determine that although the division of positive and negative emotions provides a more useful framework for the assessment of overall justice perceptions, it is much more appropriate to look at discrete emotional

reactions when considering the dimensions of individual justice perceptions. As PERs are a much more specific concept than overall justice in that they represent a particular type of negative EOR, their investigation is likely to yield more precise results through the research of discrete emotions. The assessment of overall negative emotion as an outcome of PERs might hence mask more fine-tuned relationships between PERs, discrete emotions and their differential outcomes.

The concept of PERs can thus help integrate and more fully incorporate the existing research of emotions into organisational research, and unsurprisingly so, given the extent to which problems in the workplace affect personal sensibilities. The investigation of such emotions in the context of PERs has yet to reach its full potential, but a start has definitely been made.

#### *7.3.4 Outcomes of PERs*

The result that the relationship between PERs and all the attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (revenge, collective action, turnover, organisational commitment, burnout, and employee silence) was significant furthers the relatively unconvincing investigation of the outcomes of negative EORs. So far, our limited empirical knowledge of such outcomes is based on the association that has been established between perceived organisational obstruction, and exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (Gibney et al., 2009), or the EVLN framework (Hirschman, 1970; Rusbult, Zembrot & Gunn, 1982). These associations, whilst important, do not exhaust the range of potential outcomes of negative EORs, and thus one of the tasks of this research has been to show a fuller range of outcomes of negative EORs.

In finding support for hypothesised relationships between PERs and diverse outcomes, the view that negative EORs can yield a potentially large range of outcomes is reinforced. This is important as it suggests not only that PERs can impact the *strength* of the experienced consequences, but also their *variability*. As Rozin and Royzman (2001) state, “negative entities are more varied, yield more complex conceptual representations and engage a wider response repertoire” (p. 296). Rozin and Royzman (2001) provide an account to explain why negative relationships might promote a more differentiated set of outcomes. The authors maintain that such responses help individuals express their degree of discontent and “signal appropriate action” (p. 311) to the offender.

Upon closer examination of the outcomes of PERs uncovered in the current study, it can be seen that these outcomes range in their degree of harm, or level of toxicity, their outward/inward orientation, and potentially in their ‘knock-on’ effect.

The most obvious and toxic outcome for the organisation is revenge. This outcome may in itself be nuanced and varied in terms of what the victim gains, or hopes to gain, by it, and what forms revenge may take. Following revengeful acts it can be asked, are the victim’s perceptions of exploitation healed? Or felt to be justified? From the organisation’s standpoint it can be asked what the organisation stands to lose by it? The answers to these questions can also impact future interactions with the organisation in a probable downward-spiralling, rather than upward spiralling effect.

Turnover is another overt and potentially toxic result of PERs. An individual with a perceived grievance leaves the organisation; the questions then are: has he or she communicated his/her perception to others? Is there an element of social contagion (Schoenewolf, 1990) whereby he or she influences the emotions and behaviours of others in the organisation? The organisation also stands to lose people, resources and skills.

While less tangible and overt, the reduced levels of organisational commitment engendered by PERs can have a ripple effect on other outcomes, like job performance (Vandenbergh, Bentein & Stinglhamber, 2004) and turnover (e.g. Cohen, 1993). Less touched upon in this thesis, however, is the event in which employees are exploited and locked-in, without the ability to leave. How would the relationship between PERs and organisational commitment then change, if at all? Would employees, as cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) predicts, change their attitude to concur with their behaviour (of staying in an exploitative relationship) in order to justify this course of action to themselves?

On the surface burnout is a personal problem as it has an inward orientation, but the outcomes for the organisation are potentially very real and serious, especially if more than one individual is involved. González-Morales, Peiró, Rodríguez and Bliese (2012) examined how burnout can transfer from the individual level to the organisational one, not through contagion and personal contact, but through employees' shared perceptions about their colleagues' degree of burnout, or what the authors term 'collective burnout'. They found that such perceptions of collective burnout led to actual burnout, supporting the ability of this inward-focused outcome to affect others, and consequently, the organisation as a whole.

Employee silence could be mistakenly overlooked precisely because it does not draw attention to itself and is not expressive. Is it therefore a problematic outcome for the organisation? I would argue that it is, not only on an individual level but also on an organisational one, as the culture of discontent – even silent discontent – can spread and become subversive and problematic.

In the hope that organisations are increasingly recognising and aiming at the health and vitality of their workplace culture, the healthy perceptions of their employees therefore

matter. PERs might fundamentally damage workplace cultures, starting from the individual's perception and fanning out.

#### 7.4 Practical Implications

"Always recognize that human individuals are ends, and do not use them as means to your end."

— Immanuel Kant, (quoted in Popper, 1945/2012: 98)

This study is not a study of abstracts and wishful thinking: its implications for practice are real and genuinely important. The first pertains to lessons that organisations can learn about how PERs develop, in order to understand how to prevent them occurring, or at the very least, minimise the possibility. The second implication relates to the extent of the repercussions of PERs, which can further organisations' understanding of the *importance* of mitigating and halting such employee perceptions. Lastly, the practical aspects to the organisation of not only withholding exploitative practices, but also of actively investing in employees, are considered.

##### Preventing the development of PERs

Workplaces need to tackle the problem of exploitation, real or imagined, before it becomes an insurmountable problem. As Ballinger and Rockmann (2010) note, once a negative relationship has been established, the new exchange 'rules' are not easily overturned and may represent a new enduring state.

To prevent PERs from occurring, employers need to make sure to recalibrate, and if necessary, repair the effort-reward balance in the employee's favour. Distributive concerns are usually quantifiable: simply put, increased compensation relative to the employee's investment in his/her job can very often abolish any feeling of being exploited or short-changed.

Managing employees' causal attributions (Weiner, 1986), however, might prove to be a more difficult task, as such perceptions are intangible and might involve regaining a lost trust in the organisation and its motives (Tomlinson & Mryer, 2009). In this case, lessons from the interactional justice literature (e.g. Folger & Bies, 1989) can be applied. As we have earlier seen (Colquitt, 2001: 390), organisations' fairness and just practices are important factors in mitigating employee perceptions by influencing the attributions that employees make for the responsibility and controllability of the organisation over the outcomes (Barclay et al., 2005). In the case of PERs, it might well be the case that organisations might be able to better manage employee perceptions and thwart the development of PERs, by providing employees with adequate explanations for the actions of the organisation and for the consequent outcomes for employees (Shapiro, Buttner & Barry, 1994). In doing so, employees may be less inclined to develop their own explanations (e.g. greed) for the behaviour of their organisation.

Thus, by reducing employees' perceived gap between their input and outcome, and by managing employees' perceptions of the motives behind the organisation's actions, the toxic development of PERs might be halted.

#### Understanding the potential far-reaching implications of PERs

The importance of nipping the development of PERs in the bud becomes ever more apparent when considering the consequences of PERs to both individuals and

organisations. The outcomes associated with PERs show that when employees perceive the organisation as exploitative, this can drive behaviours that are undesirable and costly for organisations (either directly, or indirectly through negative emotions). Thus, even if organisations are not motivated to behave justly towards their employees, they have a very practical interest in trying to limit the possibility of their feeling aggrieved.

The explanations provided for some of the findings in this thesis also raise the possibility that PERs can have potentially far-reaching implications that are beyond the emotional, attitudinal and behavioural consequences hypothesised here. When employees perceive their relationship with the organisation as exploitative, although speculative, the displacement process discussed in chapter 5 suggests that it might also damage the employee-supervisor relationship. Sequentially, abusive supervision has been found to elicit additional negative outcomes for employees, such as reduced citizenship behaviours (Aryee et al., 2007), lowered job and life satisfaction, and psychological distress (Tepper, 2000). Abusive supervision and its effects have been reported to amount to almost \$24 billion annually in the U.S. (Tepper, Duffy, Henle & Lambert, 2006).

If, as speculated here, PERs indeed lead to abusive supervision, then organisations can benefit from understanding these potentially far-reaching and costly implications. Thus, organisational attempts to cut costs in the remuneration of employees may backfire and ultimately, the organisation stands to incur greater cost due to the greater likelihood of abusive supervision and its implications.

### Investment in employees pays off

Organisations might not only consider the negative impact of exploitative practices, but also the benefits of the opposite- investment in employees. Paradoxically, organisations might gain from further investment in their employees, as implied by the heading of this

section, which nods to the title of Tsui et al.'s (1997) paper on the employment relationship.

Expanding upon this point, rational choice theory would suggest that organisations and employees have a similar goal in that both strive to increase their benefit in the most cost-effective way (see Becker, 1976 for an early account). One way for organisations to maximise net profit is by minimising expenses (such as reducing employee compensation), and one way for employees to minimise expenses is by reducing investment (Adams, 1965). However, organisational attempts to save on account of employees may be a self-defeating path to go down as employee productivity and efficiency can decline at a point in which the employee feels that his or her input-output ratio is imbalanced (Flynn, 2003).

Using the classical analogy of the paradox of saving (Keynes, 1937) it can be argued that instead of cutting down on resources to employees, resources should be replenished and amplified in order to reap benefits. To clarify, the paradox of saving points to the fallacy during times of recession that saving will lead to increased future saving. Instead, spending will ultimately lead to saving through economic growth due to consumption. Therefore organisations need to resist the temptation to exploit their employees, if for no other reason than in order to eventually increase organisational profits. In short, organisations have an economic interest in how their employees perceive them.

## 7.5 Limitations

Despite attempts to minimise the challenges with which I was confronted, like all research, this work is still subject to several limitations. The limitations of this thesis are: (a)

common method bias, (b) generalisability of the findings, and (c) issues pertaining to the longitudinal design and measurement. These challenges are discussed below.

### Common method bias

The methodologies used in this thesis are hypothetically exposed to common method bias, which occurs when variance can be accredited to the measurement method rather than to the constructs represented by the measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The presence of common method bias can lead the researcher to misleading conclusions. Although there are techniques to measure the extent to which common method variance might be a problem (e.g. Harman's single factor test, according to which if a single factor emerges in the analysis then the study is inflicted by a substantial amount of common method variance), such tests were not applied, as even if multiple factors emerge in the test "this is not evidence that the measures are free of common method variance" (Podsakoff et al., 2003: 889).

Instead, different measures were undertaken in order to mitigate the effects of such biases. For instance, the effect of common-source, or self-report bias was alleviated through a temporal separation of measurement, in other words by a time lag between measurement of the independent and dependent variables. Social desirability bias, which refers to respondents' tendency to edit their responses in order to be socially desirable, was lessened by ensuring respondents that I would be the only person with direct access to the data, and by conveying to them my interest in aggregate, rather than individual responses. Common method produced by item context, such as order effects and priming effects were mitigated by counterbalancing the question order, and bias produced by item characteristics, such as item ambiguity or scale format and anchors, was contained by improvements based on results of pilot studies.

### Generalisability of the findings of the longitudinal study

A challenge that researchers frequently face involves the question of whether findings that pertain to relationships between constructs are “generalizable to different populations, measures and circumstances” (Scandura & Williams, 2000: 1252). In light of past empirical research, which has found that characteristics that are specific to respondents in certain occupational groups lead to differences in outcomes between these groups (e.g. Irving, Coleman & Cooper, 1997), we must ask whether the doctors’ sample employed in the longitudinal study has unique characteristics, which may not be representative of the general population. Accordingly, it can be envisaged how the very profile of doctors, being educated and generally middle-class might influence perceptions of exploitation and their outcomes.

Nonetheless, the generalisability challenge was somewhat curtailed in that the MTurk and construction workers’ samples measured several of the constructs that were also measured in the longitudinal study. As some of the relationships discovered in the doctors’ sample were replications of those found in these other two samples, this instils confidence that some of the findings apply at least to these three employment groups. Having said that, while these results may maximise the representativeness of the sample survey to the population units studied (Scandura & Williams, 2000), there is still no certainty that the research findings are generalisable to other populations, and this task is left to future research on PERs.

### Longitudinal measurement issues

A potential limitation to do with the longitudinal research design involves the data collection in two points in time, which was chosen due to the constraint posed by attrition

rates. As mentioned in chapter 3, some researchers argue that the more measurements the better (De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman & Bongers, 2003), and that 3-waves should be the minimum for longitudinal research (Singer & Willet, 2003). Nonetheless, many researchers rely on 2-wave data sets to draw inferences (e.g. Coyle-Shapiro, Morrow, Richardson, & Dunn, 2002; Tekleab et al., 2005) adopting a more contingent approach that takes into consideration characteristics specific to each study, such as goals, change trajectory and data saturation. As many of the doctors in the longitudinal sample were residents who would move from their residency to fellowships or indeed permanent posts elsewhere, the chosen measurement seemed a sensible choice.

## 7.6 Future Research

As a new topic in the OB literature, PERs requires further examination in the future. Three suggestions for future research are proposed here. The first two, namely, (a) investigation of the evolution of PERs as well as (b) their stability over time, can benefit OB research more generally, because the question of process development and the temporality of different EOR types is a general weakness in the OB literature (Langley, 1999). A likely reason for this is that the OB literature is heavily influenced by exchange theories that tend to focus on immediate interactions, and to overlook the effect of an exchange on subsequent exchanges (Fromkin & Snyder, 1980; Coyle- Shapiro & Conway, 2004). The third suggestion relates to (c) examining additional outcomes of PERs and their development. This task is important not only for understanding the implications of perceived exploitation, but also for a more comprehensive view of the EOR.

### 7.6.1 Gaining Insight into the Evolution of PERs

One area that was not addressed in this investigation relates to the development of PERs. This topic can be tackled in the future from two angles. The first is the process by which PERs develop. Although PERs were defined as a relationship consisting of employees being *repeatedly* taken advantage of, whether the set of events that lead to the development of PERs occurs gradually over time, or whether they develop through a much faster process (Wiseman & Duck, 1995) is yet to be determined. The second is considering additional factors that may impact the development of exploitation perceptions, such as job and organisation type. These ventures will be an interesting subject for future examination and are detailed below.

#### The process by which PERs develop

Little is known about the process by which both positive and negative events develop (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Sparrowe & Liden, 1997). Langley (1999) addresses this shortcoming by proposing a process theory approach, which attempts “to capture sequences of events involving multiple parties, where the timing between events varies and data is diverse” (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004: 22). As a negative EOR, the examination of the process by which PERs develop and the investigation of their stability can shed light on the development of this phenomenon.

The limited existing literature on the development of positive relationships, such as friendships, has speculated that such positive relationships develop gradually over time (Labianca & Brass, 2006). This is because, according to social penetration theory (Altman & Taylor, 1973), the progression from superficial interaction in narrow fields to deep

interaction in broader ones takes time, as it involves shifts in cognitive appraisals surrounding worthwhileness in terms of rewards and costs of exchange.

The development of negative relationships, in contrast, may not abide by the same ‘rules’. As mentioned earlier, the negative asymmetry debate maintains that “the formation of negative relationships is not the mere opposite of the way positive relationships form” (Labianca & Brass, 2006: 599-600), such that while positive relations are evolutionary, negative ones may well be, after a fashion of speaking, revolutionary. Perhaps here too the point of negative asymmetry applies. If negative relationships have a totally different ‘ecosystem’ to positive relationships, then, as has been suggested in recent research, negative relationships may develop via a much faster process characterised by a rapid deterioration (Wiseman & Duck, 1995). In other words, negative relationships may be started by an abrupt event or interaction and from there spiral downward definitively.

Ballinger and Rockmann’s (2010) account of the development of negative relationships explains why this might be so. According to the authors, a relationship plagued with negative events leads to suspicion, to increased sensitivity to future events and to an increased likelihood for making internal attributions for disappointing outcomes. The negative emotional arousal associated with such negative events, which is more likely to be memorised and recalled than positive affect following positive events (Tversky & Kahneman, 1974; Ariely & Zauberman, 2003), eventually leads to an anchoring event or events. Such events escalate the tension of the relationship rapidly and can be described as a “Popeye” effect (McLean, Parks & Kidder, 1994), a catastrophe function, whereby when accumulated injustices or wrongdoings reach a certain threshold, a change in cognition and behaviour can be drastic. This drastic change has been called a “phase-shift” (Lind, 2001) and marks a turning point in a relationship and a change in the rules that govern it. Once the rules have been changed, the nature of the relationship has changed.

Thus, in the future researchers need to investigate the development of positive and negative relationships in terms of time. Ballinger and Rockmann's (2010) perspective can be a useful starting point. To use these authors' analogy, while positive relationships may develop more gradually, and can be comparable to climbing a ladder, whereby each step represents an exchange or interaction which was mutually satisfying for both parties and deepens the commitment between them (Rusbult, 1983), negative relationships might develop by fast deterioration like "chutes", or sliding down a slippery slope. Examining the evolution of PERs in terms of time can provide a good case study for the development process of negative EORs.

#### The impact of job and organisation type on PERs

"I think it might be useful to ask more questions separating out "work" from "the company" as well as looking at how the organization is funded. My job treats us poorly in terms of benefit and workload because we are entirely dependent on state funding, which is frequently cut. Also, in a human services job, I feel strongly motivated to be ethical and competent in my work, regardless of how the agency treats me, while I would not feel the same way if I were working in a factory or something where poor job performance would not affect anyone but the company".

*—A comment added by a respondent from the MTurk sample*

The development of PERs may be dependent on the type of job performed by an employee. For instance, contingent or contracted workers who are with a company for a fixed time and are paid either hourly or by the job are compensated differently from regular employees who might get paid less than contracted workers, but enjoy more job security and greater fringe benefits (Pearce, 1993a). From a relative deprivation perspective (Martin, 1981; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984) these different forms of compensation may have

a bearing on the development of PERs. Additional examples include interns, who are usually employed for a fixed time like contracted workers, but in contrast are often paid less than regular employees, adjunct faculty in universities who do the brunt of the teaching but are under-privileged, insecure, and employed merely on a termly basis, and volunteers, who experience uncertainty pertaining to their role in organisations, more so than regular employees who face more clear and explicit expectations from organisations (Pearce, 1993b). Once again, these differences in compensation between interns and regular employees, or disparities in organisational expectations of different kinds of employees, can impact PERs. Consequently, accounting for the type of job performed is important for the understanding of the development of PERs and could well provide a fruitful line of inquiry for future research.

Whether an organisation is privately or publicly funded can also differentially impact PERs because of dissimilarities in the internal versus external attributions made by employees. As demonstrated in the comment from a respondent from the MTurk sample above, when employees feel exploited in a private organisation, they are more likely to attribute their outcomes to the volitional and intentional actions of the organisation, such as greed, but when they feel exploited in a public organisation, which is reliant on government funding, then PERs are less likely to develop because the resources available for distribution are perceived to be limited by external forces which are beyond the control of the organisation. Consequently it can be said that organisation type can impact employees' blame accountability, and as highlighted in this thesis, these differences in attribution can be very important for understanding how certain EORs form. Research in this domain can add clarity to the role of internal versus external attributions and their impact on PERs.

### 7.6.2 *Investigating the Stability of PERs over Time*

The question of whether perceptions of exploitative EORs are stable or change over time also remains unanswered in this work. A possible direction to guide future research on this topic is provided in the work of Ballinger and Rockmann (2010), who maintain, based on the work of Conway et al. (2004) that once a negative relationship has formed it is durable and resistant to reversion or change. As previously explained, this is because the new script set by the new rule of the relationship “is durably encoded into autobiographical memory” (p. 379) which incessantly changes the lens with which the parties view their relationship and evaluate subsequent events.

However, that negative relationships are condemned to remain that way may not apply in all cases and different factors may play a role in determining whether employees’ perceptions of such relationships fluctuate or remain stable. In the future, researchers can address this issue from the perspective of the literature on relationship repair and forgiveness (McCullough et al., 1997), or from that of the career stages literature (e.g. Levinson, 1986).

Indeed the research in the field of relationship repair teaches us that through different mechanisms, organisations can remedy employees’ damaged perceptions of the organisation. Relationship repair has been said to occur “when a transgression causes the positive state(s) that constitute(s) the relationship to disappear and/or negative states to arise, as perceived by one or both parties, and activities by one or both parties substantively return the relationship to a positive state” (Dirks, Lewicki & Zaheer, 2009: 69). This task, however, is a difficult one as it involves overturning three factors recurrently identified in the literature as impacted by a transgression: trust, negative affect

surrounding the transgression, and negative exchange following the transgression (Dirks et al., 2009).

Nonetheless different mechanism to achieve this goal have been proposed and include distrust regulation, or steps to prevent future trust transgressions, trustworthiness demonstration, or the active demonstration of integrity (Gillespie & Dietz, 2009), as well as substantive actions, such as penance (Bottom, Gibson, Daniels & Murnighan, 2002) and voluntary monitoring systems (Nakayachi & Watabe, 2005). Therefore, one factor that can potentially influence the stability of employees' perceptions of exploitative EORs is the organisation's willingness and ability to restore the relationship. Whether PERs bring a relationship to the point of no return, or whether steps can be undertaken to remedy the situation can be an interesting route for further investigation.

Another possible way to explore the stability of PERs over time rests on career stages research, which points to the likelihood of changes in work attitudes of employees throughout their career due to changes in psychological and sociological needs across the different stages (Levinson, 1986; Cron & Slocum, 1986; Schalk, 2004). Research in different disciplines ranging from sociology to psychology has traditionally viewed one's career as comprised of four stages: exploration, establishment, maintenance, and disengagement (Cron & Slocum, 1986). Empirical findings largely support this terraced career view. For instance, career stage was found to impact outcomes like job performance, organisational commitment, and intentions to stay or leave the organisation (Morrow & McElroy, 1987; Cron & Slocum, 1986).

Yet the effect of career stage on employees' perceptions and relationships with their organisations is less researched, and therefore PERs provide an opportunity to examine how such employee perceptions change along one's career. A short example using the case of medical doctors to set the scene can illustrate how PERs might be

susceptible to change over the course of a career: one can well imagine how an intern or resident, who is made to work many night shifts and holidays, to do the ‘dirty work’ that more tenured specialists avoid, all the while earning but a meagre salary for the privilege of working in a prestigious medical establishment, might feel exploited. However, these perceptions may not be stable over one’s career, and with tenure, such perceptions of exploitation might dwindle. To paint a contrary picture, a tenured public sector doctor, emotionally worn by the recurrent sights of illness, earning little compared to his many years of training, expertise and long hours at the hospital, with few prospects of promotion, might also feel short-changed. Given these examples, it can be seen that there is much to be learned about changes in PERs and any research into their disappearance, reappearance, or stability over time may yield surprising and potentially important results.

#### *7.6.3 Examining How Outcomes of PERs Develop and Considering Additional Ones*

Just as we can benefit from investigating the development of PERs, we can also gain from understanding more about the evolution of outcomes over time. I alluded to this in the longitudinal study, but this was inevitably limited. More research is needed on how outcomes evolve or abruptly change in the case of individuals or the collective body of employees. To reiterate the example of silence, employees might resort to this response after the failure of other responses to PERs; or indeed collective action might be tried as a resort after the failure of more discreet responses. Thus, investigating how certain consequences develop can help paint a more comprehensive picture of the outcome process of PERs.

Turning to additional consequences, several suggestions in terms of specific discrete emotions (paranoia, sympathy) were presented in the discussion of chapter 6

however additional, and perhaps broader, implications can be mentioned here. For example, referring to their follow-up research into the outcomes of POO, Gibney, Zagenczyk, Fuller, Hester, and Caner (2011) found that obstruction impacts the way employees define themselves in relation to the organisation and leads to cognitive separation in identities, or disidentification. The notion of disidentification echoes Marx's commentary about human alienation, which he linked to the notion of exploitation; it reflects people's estrangement from their work due to the loss of their power to determine their life and destiny and their loss of control over the very product of their labour (in Tedman, 2004 and Fay, 1983). In fact, this sense of alienation might have serious consequences, given its components of powerlessness, normlessness and social isolation (Dean, 1961). Such alienation could be the outcome of PERs and might be the explanatory mechanism by which PERs lead to the outcomes we have described in this study, as well as other potential outcomes that have yet to be linked to perceptions of exploitation.

Another is based on Shore and Coyle-Shapiro's (2012) proposition that POC is linked to employees' health and well-being, which manifests itself in stress, anxiety and depression. A similar linkage between health and PERs is probable, particularly in light of the theoretical framework and empirical support provided by Siegrist (1996) and Siegrist and colleagues (1990; 2009) for the adverse health effects of an effort-reward imbalance on an employee. As an ERI was found in this thesis to be a determinant of PERs, it is highly likely that the stress associated with exploitation exposes such individuals to real health risks.

Thus, research into additional consequences of PERs as well as into the processes by which these consequences transpire can provide a potentially fruitful path of investigation.

## 7.7 Conclusion

Perhaps a few words are appropriate here about the genesis of this thesis. This journey began with investigations surrounding the dark triad of personality, namely Narcissism, Machiavellianism and Psychopathy – a popular research topic several years ago (and equally important today). I was surprised to discover the disproportionate over-representation of such types in the leadership of organisations, which exceeds their low percentage in the general population (1%), and which suggests that these individuals succeed in the workplace and manage to work their way up the hierarchical ladder. It occurred to me that the prevalence of this phenomenon probably does much to perpetuate systematic exploitation, and must have a negative impact on employees. Interestingly, there is one trait which is characteristic of all of these personality types – they are all exploitative, and in their lack of empathy, disregard others' wants and needs.

At that point in time, the only form of negative EOR had been POO (POC appeared on the scene in 2012). Although an exciting research avenue in its own right, it did not seem to capture that underlying exploitative feature incumbent in the dark triad. Therefore I decided to take on the task of investigating the nature of workplace exploitation, and in doing so, to provide the gateway for understanding more extreme negative EOR forms. In expanding the EOR literature to include PERs, and in exploring the antecedents and outcomes of such relationships, support was found for the negative asymmetry perspective, which stresses the importance of investigating negative workplace phenomenon due to their strong impact.

By introducing the new concept of perceived exploitative employee-organisation relationships, and integrating such negative relationships into the OB literature, several

new and interesting discoveries were made that provide support for exploitative EORs as an exciting future research domain. This thesis sheds light on our understanding of the phenomenon of PERs by pointing to its distributive basis, to the paramount importance of attributions for the formation of PERs, and to the resulting negative emotional reactions associated with them.

In presenting both theoretical and practical implications in this thesis, a case was made for the integration of PERs into EOR research. The confirmation of the presence of PERs in different organisational settings, and a preliminary examination of its antecedents and outcomes provides a good starting point for researchers to continue investigating the topic. Although this thesis has added value to our understanding of workplace exploitation, it has also shown “how little we know of what there is to know”, as Ernest Hemingway writes in *For Whom the Bell Tolls* (1941/1994). It is to be hoped that the theorising and the findings in this thesis will pave a path for much-needed future research into the phenomenon of exploitation in the contemporary workplace.

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## **Appendix 1**

Email Text to ‘Snowball’ Sample

Houghton Street  
London, WC2A 2AE  
United Kingdom

The Department of Management  
The Employment Relations and  
Organisational Behaviour Group

Dear participant,

I am Ephrat Livne, a PhD candidate at the London School of Economics and Political Science. My research focuses on exploitative relationships between employees and their organisations. The goal of this particular study is to understand what it means to be exploited and what types of actions of the organisation constitute exploitation. In order to explore this topic I would like to get your insights into your experiences on the job and your opinions about the topic.

In order to do so, please take the time to respond to me with the following questions:

1. In your opinion, what constitutes an exploitative relationship between the organisation and its employees?
2. Give an example or examples of situations in which you think your organisation exploited you or your colleagues?

Your participation is voluntary and your response to the questions implies consent. I appreciate that this is a sensitive topic and assure you that the information you provide will be held in strict confidence. I am the only one with direct access to this data, and your name, email, or any other personal data will NOT be made available to anyone but me. All of your answers will remain completely confidential and participating in this study will have no impact on your job. Your participation is crucial for this study and I look forward to hearing back from you soon.

Sincerely,  
Ephrat Livne  
PhD candidate • London School of Economics • [e.livne@lse.ac.uk](mailto:e.livne@lse.ac.uk)

## **Appendix 2**

Table 4.4. Agreement Matrix for First Attempt at Categorisation of PERs

Incidents

Table 4.4. Agreement Matrix: 1<sup>st</sup> Attempt at Categorisation of PERS Incidents

		Researcher						
		General	Resources	Credit-Taking	Scape-Goating	Well-Being	Feeling Insignificant	Total
Assistant	General	<b>22</b>	0	0	0	0	0	22
	Resources	0	<b>33</b>	0	0	0	0	33
	Credit-Taking	0	3	<b>16</b>	0	0	0	19
	Scapegoating	0	0	2	<b>10</b>	0	0	12
	Well-Being	5	4	0	2	<b>8</b>	0	19
	Feeling Insignificant	1	7	1	0	0	<b>10</b>	19
Total		28	47	19	12	8	10	124

*Note. The numbers along the diagonal (in boldface) represent the number of incidents in agreement between the researcher and the assistant.*

## **Appendix 3**

Table 4.5. Agreement Matrix for Second Attempt at Categorisation of  
PERs Incidents

Table 4.5. Agreement Matrix: 2<sup>nd</sup> Attempt at Categorisation of PERS Incidents

		Researcher						
		General	Resources	Credit-Taking	Scape-Goating	Well-Being	Feeling Insignificant	Total
General		<b>23</b>	0	0	0	0	0	23
Resources		0	<b>39</b>	0	0	0	0	39
Credit-Taking		0	3	<b>16</b>	0	0	0	19
Scapegoating		0	0	2	<b>11</b>	0	0	13
Well-Being		0	1	0	1	<b>15</b>	0	17
Feeling Insignificant		0	1	1	0	0	<b>11</b>	13
Total		23	44	19	12	15	11	124

Note. The numbers along the diagonal (in boldface) represent the number of incidents in agreement between the researcher and the assistant.

## **Appendix 4**

Table 4.6. Cohen's Kappa Statistic for First and Second Agreement Attempts

Table 4.6. Cohen's Kappa Statistics for 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> Agreement Attempts

	Number of Agreements	% of Agreements Expected by Chance	Number of Agreements Expected by Chance	% of Agreements Expected by Chance	Kappa ( $k$ )	SE of Kappa	95% Confidence Interval
1 <sup>st</sup> Attempt	99	79.84%	24.3	19.6%	0.75	0.044	0.663-0.835
2 <sup>nd</sup> Attempt	115	92.74%	25.5	20.55%	0.91	0.029	0.851-0.966

## **Appendix 5**

### The Item-Sort Task



Houghton Street  
London, WC2A 2AE  
United Kingdom

The Department of Management  
The Employment Relations and  
Organisational Behaviour Group

Dear student,

My name is Ephrat Livne and I am a PhD candidate in Management at the London School of Economics and Political Science. My research focuses on the relationship between employees and their organizations, and for this purpose I am developing a measure for a new construct.

Please participate in my research and help me construct my scale by filling out this survey, which is called an item-sort task. Its goal is to sort statements according to their designated constructs in order to help determine which statements each construct is most closely associated with.

Participation in this study is voluntary, and completing the survey implies consent.

Thank you for taking part in this important study,  
Ephrat Livne

Doctoral Candidate • London School of Economics • [e.livne@lse.ac.uk](mailto:e.livne@lse.ac.uk)

## INSTRUCTIONS

Please read the construct definitions below and then proceed to the following page.

For each statement, choose the construct that you think it best describes. If you think that a statement does not capture any of the listed constructs, mark 'other'. In completing this task you can refer back to the construct definitions if needed. Please note that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers.

## CONSTRUCT DEFINITIONS

**Psychological Contract Breach:** An employee's perception that the organization has not adequately fulfilled promised obligations.

**Perceived Organizational Support:** Employees' beliefs concerning the degree to which the organization values their contributions or cares about their well-being.

**Perceived Exploitation:** Employees' perception that they have been purposefully and repeatedly taken advantage of by the organization, to the benefit of the organisation itself, with the anticipation of continued harm in the future.

**Distributive Justice:** Employees' beliefs concerning the degree to which the rewards or compensation that they receive from the organization are fair.

**Organizational Obstruction:** An employee's belief that the organization obstructs, hinders, or interferes with the accomplishment of his or her goals and is a detriment to his or her well-being.

## ITEM-SORT TASK

1. I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

2. My organisation would not forgive an honest mistake on my part.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

3. My organization repeatedly takes credit for my ideas.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

4. My organization uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

5. My organisation does not consider my goals and values.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

6. My organization tries to make me feel like I am a 'nobody'.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

7. My organization dehumanizes me.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

8. My organization does not care about my opinions.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

9. My organization makes me feel like I'm just a cog in the wheel.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

10. I have too much work because my organization doesn't want to spend money to help me.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

11. My organization mistreats me because it knows I cannot exercise my rights.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

12. My organization does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

13. My organization expects me to work hard even if it comes on account of my well-being.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

14. My organization asks me to work more than other employees.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

15. My organization does not enable me to work less even during difficulties.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

16. I feel that my employer has not come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

17. So far my employer has not done a good job of fulfilling its promises to me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

18. My organization uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

19. My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I've upheld my side of the deal.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

20. My organisation does not really care about my well-being.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

21. I am a modern day slave.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

22. The outcomes that I receive are not justified given my performance.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

23. My organisation takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

24. The outcomes that I receive do not reflect the effort I have put into my work.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

25. My organisation obstructs the realisation of my professional goals.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

26. Whenever I complain my organization reminds me that there are many people out there willing to take my job.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

27. My organisation is a detriment to my well-being.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

28. As long as I work in my organisation, it will keep taking advantage of me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

29. My organisation will never stop using me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

30. This is not the first time my organisation took advantage of me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

31. My organization doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

32. My organization does not back me up when I make a mistake, and makes me bare all responsibility.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

33. My organization uses any excuse to undercompensate me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

34. The outcomes that I receive are not appropriate for the work I have completed.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

35. My organisation is not willing to help me if I need a special favour.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Distributive Justice
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Organizational Obstruction
- Perceived Exploitation
- Other

36. My organisation blocks my personal goals.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

37. My organization has little incentive to make the workplace safe because it knows I can't leave.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

38. My organization cares more about my work than my well-being.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

39. The burden of cuts is not shared fairly in my organization.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

40. My organization benefits from my work without providing me any future opportunities for development/promotion.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

41. My organization expects me to always be available to work without extra pay.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

42. If given the opportunity, my organisation would take advantage of me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

43. My organization uses my fear of losing my job to get me to work more.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

44. My organization intentionally does not give me recognition for my work.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

45. My organization always expected me to be 'on call' at the expense of my own time.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

46. My organization is too greedy to provide me with good working conditions.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

47. The outcomes that I receive do not reflect what I have contributed to the organization.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

48. My organization shows very little concern for me.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

49. My organization makes me use up all my holiday days, not for humanitarian reasons but for financial ones.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

50. My organization frowns upon my absence from work even for sick leaves or emergencies.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

51. My organisation gets in the way of my performance.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

52. My organization mistreats me because I am dependent on it.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

53. In my organization I am expected to do other people's work if I want to keep my job.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

54. My goal attainment is thwarted by my organisation.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

55. My organization forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the organization.

<input type="radio"/> Psychological Contract Breach	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Organizational Support	<input type="radio"/> Perceived Exploitation
<input type="radio"/> Distributive Justice	<input type="radio"/> Organizational Obstruction	<input type="radio"/> Other

56. My organization repeatedly takes credit for my achievements without acknowledging me for them.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

57. Help is not available from my organisation when I have a problem.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

58. My organization intentionally insufficiently compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

59. My organization uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensation me adequately.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

60. My compensation is not proportionate to my contribution to the organization.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

61. Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have not been kept so far.

- Psychological Contract Breach
- Perceived Organizational Support
- Perceived Exploitation
- Distributive Justice
- Organizational Obstruction
- Other

## BASIC INFORMATION

Before returning this survey, please answer the following questions about yourself. Please advise that all the information you provide is strictly confidential, and that no one other than the researcher will have access to this data.

Please indicate your age: \_\_\_\_\_

Please indicate your gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Please indicate your highest level of education: \_\_\_\_\_

Thank you for your participation!

## **Appendix 6**

Details of the MTurk Pilot Study and Its Results

### Details of the MTurk pilot study and its results

A HIT (Human Intelligence Task) was posted online on the Amazon MTurk platform calling for respondents to fill out a survey and comment on it. Respondents were asked to fill out the questionnaire about their work experiences and comment on the survey by entering free text at the end. Examples of comments, such as length of the survey and clarity of the instructions and questions were provided. It was also mentioned that comments about any other aspect of the survey were also welcome. Respondents were informed that only a handful of respondents are required, and that the survey would close once that number had been achieved, but that the actual survey would be made available soon for a larger sample if they did not get a chance to participate. Based on the MTurk guideline for an hourly rate, respondents were offered \$2.45 per survey, which was expected to take approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The MTurk pilot was comprised of 6 participants (4 male). The mean age was 37.17 (SD = 6.5), and each respondent occupied a different job in a different organisation (e.g. teacher, social worker). All respondents were from the U.S. Comments about the survey focused mostly on its length. Two respondents mentioned the need for more detailed instructions and one positively commented that the remuneration offered (\$2.45) was fair. Although the length could not be changed, instructions were improved upon by adding detail and clarification, and the compensation remained \$2.45.

## **Appendix 7**

Call for Participants on the Amazon MTurk Interface

Manage Batches > Batch Details

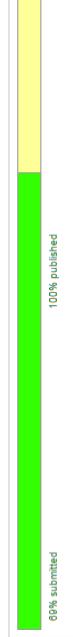
## Work Experiences 3

View the latest status of this batch, make changes, or get results.

This survey is a part of an academic research project which looks into employees' job experiences- both positive and negative. It takes approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Status

Delete



Assignments Completed: 173 / 250

Creation Time: February 19, 2014 5:36 AM PST

Average Time per Assignment: 22 minutes 9 seconds  
Completion Time: March 02, 2014 6:33 AM PST

Average Hourly Rate: \$6.637

Settings

### Work Experiences

Description: This survey is a part of an academic research project which looks into employees' job experiences- both positive and negative. It takes approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Keywords: survey, work experience, job attitudes

Qualification Requirement: Masters has been granted

Number of Assignments per HIT: 250

Reward per Assignment: \$2.450

Input File:

Estimated Total Reward: \$612.500

Estimated Fees to Mechanical Turk: \$183.750 (fee details)

Estimated Total Cost: \$796.250

These costs are only an estimate until all of the assignments have been submitted and reviewed.

Assignments pending review: 0

Assignments approved: 173

Assignments rejected: 0

Cost Summary

Results

## **Appendix 8**

### MTurk Sample Survey

This survey is for academic research purposes. The goal of this study is to learn about employees' work experiences and their relationship with their employing companies and organizations. Most of the questions in this survey are multiple choice and a few are short text entry questions. The survey should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. You must be at least 18 years of age and currently employed (either part-time or full-time) in a company or organization in order to take this survey. If you are employed in more than one job or organization, please choose one of them and answer the questions about that job or organization alone.

Please indicate that you have read and confirm the two statements below:

I am 18 or older.

I am currently employed in a company or an organization.

Please note that at the end of this survey you will receive a code, which indicates that you have completed the survey. You must enter this code into the MTurk website in order to receive payment.

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For statistical purposes, please enter your Mechanical Turk worker ID:

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
In general, I like working in my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
In general, I don't like my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel that my employer has come through in fulfilling the promises made to me when I was hired.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
So far my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have not received everything promised to me in exchange for my contributions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My employer has broken many of its promises to me even though I have upheld my side of the deal.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
As long as I work in my company, it will keep taking advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company will never stop using me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This is not the first time my company took advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a modern day slave.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company uses labor contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company intentionally under- compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company does not care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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The following section asks you about the outcomes (for example: pay, benefits) that you receive from your employing organization.

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The outcomes that I receive do not reflect the effort I have put into my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The outcomes that I receive are not appropriate for the work I have completed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The outcomes that I receive do not reflect what I have contributed to the organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The outcomes that I receive are not justified given my performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My company would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company cares about my opinions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company strongly considers my goals and values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My company is willing to help me if I need a special favor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help is available from my company when I have a problem.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If given the opportunity, my company would take advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My organization obstructs the realization of my professional goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization is a detriment to my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization gets in the way of my performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My organization blocks my personal goals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My goal attainment is thwarted by my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My supervisor cares about my opinions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My work supervisor really cares about my well-being.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My supervisor shows very little concern for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how often your immediate supervisor uses the following behaviors with you:

	I cannot remember my supervisor ever using this behavior with me	My supervisor seldom uses this behavior with me	My supervisor occasionally uses this behavior with me	My supervisor uses this behavior moderately often with me	My supervisor uses this behavior very often with me
Ridicules me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gives me the silence treatment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Puts me down in front of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Invades my privacy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reminds me of my past mistakes and failures.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Breaks promises he/she makes.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Expresses anger at me when he/she is mad for another reason.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Makes negative comments about me to others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Is rude to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Does not allow me to interact with my coworkers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tells me I'm incompetent.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lies to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very little loyalty to this organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really care about the fate of this organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors:

	Never	Almost Never	A few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Attend functions that are not required, but that help the organization's image.	<input type="radio"/>						
"Keep up" with developments in the organization.	<input type="radio"/>						
Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.	<input type="radio"/>						
Show pride when presenting the organization in public.	<input type="radio"/>						
Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.	<input type="radio"/>						
Express loyalty toward the organization.	<input type="radio"/>						
Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>						
Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.	<input type="radio"/>						

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Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors:

	Never	Almost Never	A few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Help others who have been absent.	<input type="radio"/>						
Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.	<input type="radio"/>						
Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	<input type="radio"/>						
Go out of the way to make new employees feel welcome in the work group.	<input type="radio"/>						
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations.	<input type="radio"/>						
Give up time to help others who have work or non work problems.	<input type="radio"/>						
Assist others with their duties.	<input type="radio"/>						
Share personal property with others to help their work.	<input type="radio"/>						

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In the last few months how often have you done the following:

	Never	Almost Never	A Few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Thought of being absent from work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Day dreamed.	<input type="radio"/>						
Done personal tasks at work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Chatted excessively with co-workers.	<input type="radio"/>						
Put little effort into the job.	<input type="radio"/>						
Let others do the work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Left work early.	<input type="radio"/>						
Took long lunch breaks.	<input type="radio"/>						
Slept on the job.	<input type="radio"/>						
Took work supplies home.	<input type="radio"/>						

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always find new and interesting aspects to my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find work to be a positive challenge.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
During my work, I am often emotionally drained.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Over time, one can become disconnected with this type of work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, I can manage the amount of my work very well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more and more engaged in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I work, I usually feel energized	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel angry about the way I am treated by my organization.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel hostile towards my employer.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel angry about getting a raw deal in my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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How often in the last few months has your organization made you (if you haven't worked in your organization a few months then answer the questions for the length of time you have been in your organization):

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Feel good about yourself.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like you want to sink into the floor and disappear.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel remorse, regret.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel worthwhile, valuable.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel small.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel tension about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel capable, useful.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like you are a bad person.	<input type="radio"/>				
Think a lot about something bad you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel proud.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel humiliated, disgraced.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like apologizing, confessing.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel pleased about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel worthless, powerless.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel bad about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				

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0%  100%

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am actively looking for a job outside my company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my company.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

What is your age group?

- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55 or older

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What is your job title or job description (for example: teacher, waiter, administrator)?  
If there is more than one title, please choose the one that best applies to you, or that you spend most of your time doing.

How long you have you been working in your organization?

- Under six months
- Six months to a year
- 1-5 years
- Over 5 years

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Which country do you currently live in?

Which country/countries have you lived in before?

What is your ethnicity (for example, White American, Other American, Indian, Pakistani, Eastern European, etc.)?

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What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

- Primary School
- High School
- Trade/Technical/Vocational Training
- Bachelor's Degree
- Graduate Degree

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Thank you for taking this survey and for participating in this research project. Your survey completion code is: FN947321. Please enter this code into the MTurk website in order to receive payment for this survey.

If you have any comments, please enter them in the box below:

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



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## **Appendix 9**

Details of the Construction Workers' Pilot Study and Its Results

### Details of the construction workers' pilot study and its results

The participants of the pilot study were chosen selectively (as opposed to being chosen randomly) by the manager of the main contractor in order to receive variation in feedback.

The pilot group completed the survey in an office. Prior to answering the questions, they were told that they were a part of a pilot group whose purpose was to fill in the survey and to note any problems or issues that they foresaw in having the survey filled out by many other employees in the related companies. Examples of such issues were provided to the subjects, and included: the survey questions themselves or the length of the items, unclear or complicated wording, irrelevance of questions to the industry, issues with the response scale, etc. It was stressed that these were merely examples, and that they were free to raise any other issues or concerns.

The participants included five employees from different companies working on the site, who held different jobs (e.g. document controller, electrician, and tiller, who tiles surfaces). The mean age of participants in the pilot was 37.5 years ( $SD = 8.37$ ) and participants had been employed in their jobs for an average of 2.866 years ( $SD = 2.79$ ). One respondent was female and the rest were male.

The pilot group indeed raised several issues, two of which are relevant for this section (the remaining issues are described later in this chapter). The first pertained to the wording of the PER item "My company intentionally insufficiently compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job". Specifically, the sequence of the words "intentionally insufficiently compensates" was criticised for being convoluted and unclear. Following this advice, the wording was changed to: "My organisation intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job". This re-wording leaves the item close enough to its original wording and maintains the overall meaning of the sentence. The second recommendation was to offer a prize in order to solicit responses. A

cash prize was suggested as the most effective means of attracting respondents, and the sums mentioned ranged from £50-£500. After some discussion, a lottery format was chosen, with a £200 cash prize for the winner.

## **Appendix 10**

Construction Workers' Recruitment Poster

# A chance to win a £200 cash prize!

I am a student conducting research and need your help!

Here is how it works:

- Come to the canteen between 10:30am-1pm on Monday-Friday, 7-11<sup>th</sup> of October.
- Fill out a survey (up to 15 minutes to complete).
- Return the survey and take a number.
- At the end of the week there will be a lottery.
- The winning number will be announced on posters in the canteen, with instructions on where to go on site to collect the prize.

Looking forward to seeing you there!

Elspeth Livesey

## **Appendix 11**

Construction workers' Survey

Work Experiences Survey

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I am a Graduate student at The London School of Economics and Political Science. I am conducting research about employees' experiences in their jobs. This survey is for research purposes only. It is anonymous, and all the information you provide will remain strictly confidential.

This survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete, and your participation is voluntary.

I greatly appreciate your time and willingness to take part in my research.

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Work Experiences Survey

Instructions: Please answer all of the questions in this survey as accurately as possible by ticking the boxes that best describe your answer to each question. When you have completed the survey, please return it to the assigned person.

1) Please indicate how much you experience the feelings below:

	Very Little	A Little	Neither A Lot nor Little	A Lot	Very Much
How energetic do you feel on a typical day at work?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
How cheerful do you feel on a typical day at work?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

2) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If something can go wrong for me, it will.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I'm always optimistic about my future.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I hardly ever expect things to go my way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I rarely count on good things happening to me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3)					
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My job inspires me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am proud of the work that I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am immersed in my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I get carried away when I am working.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Work Experiences Survey

4) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At times I think I am no good at all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am able to do things as well as most other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel I do not have much to be proud of.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I certainly feel useless at times.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel that I'm a person of worth.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I wish I could have more respect for myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
All in all, I'm inclined to think that I'm a failure.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I take a positive attitude toward myself.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If someone dislikes you, you should dislike them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If a person despises you, you should despise them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If someone says something nasty to you, you should say something nasty back.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If a person wants to be your enemy, you should treat them like an enemy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If someone treats me badly, I feel I should treat them even worse.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Work Experiences Survey

6) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
My company would forgive an honest mistake on my part.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company really cares about my well-being.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company cares about my opinions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company strongly considers my goals and values.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company shows very little concern for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Help is available from my company when I have a problem.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
If given the opportunity, my company would take advantage of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7)							
I am actively looking for a job outside my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8)							

8) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel empathy towards my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
I feel concern for my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
I feel warmth towards my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
I feel soft-hearted towards my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>					
I feel compassion for my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>					

Work Experiences Survey

9) Please indicate how much you agree with the statements below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
As long as I work in my company, it will keep taking advantage of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company will never stop using me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
This is not the first time my company took advantage of me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am a modern day slave.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company uses labour contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My company doesn't care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10)							
I feel angry about the way I am treated by my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel hostile towards my employer.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel angry about getting a raw deal in my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Work Experiences Survey

11) How often in the last few months has your company made you:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Feel good about yourself.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel like you want to sink into the floor and disappear.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel remorse, regret.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel worthwhile, valuable.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel small.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel tension about something you have done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel capable, useful.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel like you are a bad person.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Think a lot about something bad you have done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel proud.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel humiliated, disgraced.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel like apologising, confessing.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel pleased about something you have done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel worthless, powerless.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Feel bad about something you have done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

12) Are you a member of a union? Yes  No  If you answered 'yes', please answer the questions in sections 13 and 14. If you answered 'no', skip to section 15.

13) Please indicate how often you do the following things:

	Never	Seldom	Uncertain	Sometimes	Always
Attend union meetings.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Vote in union elections.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Talk to union representatives about problems at work (such as grievances).	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Work Experiences Survey

14) Please answer 'yes' or 'no'.

	Yes	No
I hold union office.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I serve on a union committee.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I read the union newsletter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

15) Please answer the questions below about your employment and other employment opportunities.

	Not at all Appealing	UnAppealing	Uncertain	Appealing	Extremely Appealing
How appealing are your employment alternatives (for example, working in another company)?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
How do your employment alternatives compare to your current employment?	<input type="checkbox"/>				

16)

	None	Very few	Uncertain	Several	Many
Are there things, other than pay, that you would lose if your relationship with your company ended?	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17) In the last few months, how often have you done the following:	Never	Almost never	A few times	Uncertain	Sometimes
Thought of being absent from work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Day dreamed.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Done personal tasks at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Chatted excessively with co-workers.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Put little effort into the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Let others do the work.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Left work early.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Took long lunch breaks.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Slept on the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
Took work supplies home.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Work Experiences Survey

18) In the last/few months:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	N/A
I tried to hurt my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I tried to make something bad happen to my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I did something to make my company get what it deserves.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I got even with my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I let go of the negative feelings I had against my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I let go of my hate and desire for vengeance against my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I let go of my hurt and pain caused by my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I let go of the resentment I felt toward my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I made an effort to be more friendly and concerned about my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I tried to make amends with my company.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I gave my company a new start, a renewed relationship.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Work Experiences Survey

19) Please fill in several background questions by ticking the appropriate box. These questions are for statistical purposes only.

What is your gender?

Male       Female

What is your age group?

Under 18       35-44  
 18-24       45-54  
 25-34       55-64  
 65 or older

What is your job description?

Project Director       Electrician  
 Project/site Manager       Carpenter  
 Surveyor       Plasterer  
 Controller       Plumber  
 Engineer (including       Floor Layer  
mechanical or electrical)       Skilled Operative  
 Secretary       Painter  
 Glazier       General Operative  
 Dry Liner       Other (please  
specify): \_\_\_\_\_

What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

No schooling completed  
 Nursery school  
 Primary school  
 Secondary school  
 Some college credit, no degree  
 Trade/technical/vocational training  
 Bachelor's degree  
 Graduate degree

What is your ethnicity origin (or Race)?

White (please circle):  
- English/Scottish/Irish      - Eastern European      - Other White: \_\_\_\_\_  
 Asian/Asian British (please circle):  
- Indian/ Pakistani/      - Chinese      - Other Asian: \_\_\_\_\_  
Bangladeshi  
 Black/Black British  
 Arab/ Arab British  
 Mixed race/ethnicity (please specify): \_\_\_\_\_  
 Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

Which company do you work for? \_\_\_\_\_

How long have you worked in this company? \_\_\_\_\_

If not born in Britain, how long have you been in this country? \_\_\_\_\_

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Thank you for completing the survey.

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## **Appendix 12**

Construction Workers' Sample Winning Announcement poster

For those who have completed the surveys last week:  
The winning number!

Ticket number 97 wins the cash prize of £200.

If you hold the winning number, Please bring the ticket with you and go collect your prize from Emma at the ██████████ Group offices.

Thank you so much for taking the time to fill out my survey and for participating in my research.

Ephrat Livne

## **Appendix 13**

Doctors' Sample Survey

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Dear Doctor,

I am a PhD student at the London School of Economics, studying the employee-organization relationship. My research examines how treatment from the organization leads to different reactions and outcomes for both employees and their organizations. In doing so, I hope to help organizations better understand the implications of negative behaviors.

My study focuses on doctors. This survey asks questions about yourself, your immediate supervisor and your employing hospital. It will take approximately **15-20 minutes** to complete.

I will also contact you again in several months and ask that you fill another similar survey. Individuals that fill out both surveys will each receive a **\$30 Amazon gift card** via email after completing the second survey (all of the questions in both surveys need to be answered in order to receive the gift card).

Please respond to the questions openly and honestly. Be assured that all data collected will be **strictly confidential**. If you work in more than one medical institution, please choose one institution, and answer accordingly. The word 'hospital' is used throughout the survey, but the questions can apply to other medical institutions, such as an HMO ("Kupat Cholim").

Please note that this online **survey will close on Tuesday, October 7th 2014 at midnight** (Israel time), however, I will appreciate it if you could fill out the survey as soon as possible.

This research would not be possible without your assistance, and your participation is therefore of tremendous value to this academic research. I would be extremely grateful for your time.

If you agree to take part, **please continue**.

Warm regards,  
Ephrat Livne  
(If you wish to contact me you can do so via email: [e.livne@lse.ac.uk](mailto:e.livne@lse.ac.uk))

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**Please enter your email address below.** This address will not be seen by anyone but myself. It will only be used for the purpose of contacting you in several months asking you to take a second survey and for emailing you your **gift voucher** after completing the second survey.

Please re-enter your email address below.

For statistical purposes, please indicate the stage of your career:

- I am an intern before my residency
- I am a resident ("Mitmache")
- I am a specialist or sub-specialist

I work in a:

- Public hospital/ HMO ("Kupat Cholim")
- Private hospital/ private clinic
- Both a public and a private hospital/ clinic
- Other, please state:

Please state what type of doctor you are (e.g. Dermatologist, Neurologist, internal medicine, etc. If undecided, please type "undecided"):

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**The following questions focus on how you feel about being a doctor.**

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I view myself as a doctor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel connected to other doctors.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am glad to be a doctor in my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The work that I do feels like my calling in life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It sometimes feels like I was destined to do the work I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The work I do feels like my niche in life.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am definitely the sort of person who fits in my line of work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The passion for the work I do goes back to my childhood.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was meant to do the work I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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The following questions are about the relationship between you, your supervisor (or the person you normally report to) and your hospital.

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

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

Please indicate how often your supervisor uses the following behaviors with you:

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Moderately Often	Very Often
Ridicules me.	<input type="radio"/>				
Tells me my thoughts or feelings are stupid.	<input type="radio"/>				
Puts me down in front of others.	<input type="radio"/>				
Invades my privacy.	<input type="radio"/>				
Doesn't give me credit for jobs requiring a lot of effort.	<input type="radio"/>				
Blames me to save himself/herself embarrassment.	<input type="radio"/>				
Breaks promises he/she makes.	<input type="radio"/>				
Makes negative comments about me to others.	<input type="radio"/>				
Tells me I'm incompetent.	<input type="radio"/>				
Lies to me.	<input type="radio"/>				

**The following questions have to do with your work balance and how you feel about your work.**

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I have constant time pressure due to a heavy work load.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have many interruptions and disturbances while performing my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job has become more and more demanding.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I receive the respect I deserve from my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job promotion prospects are poor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have experienced, or I expect to experience, an undesirable change in my work situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job security is poor.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considering all my efforts and achievements, I receive the respect and prestige I deserve at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considering all my efforts and achievements, my job promotion prospects are adequate.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Considering all my efforts and achievements, my salary/income is adequate.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get easily overwhelmed by time pressures at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As soon as I get up in the morning I start thinking about work problems.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get home, I can easily relax and 'switch off' work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
People close to me say I sacrifice too much for my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Work rarely lets me go, it is still on my mind when I get to bed.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I postpone something that I was supposed to do today I'll have trouble sleeping at night.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The following questions ask about your hospital.**

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
My hospital intends to take advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital is primarily motivated by its own interest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital tries to abuse me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital has bad intentions for me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
As long as I work in my hospital, it will keep taking advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital will never stop using me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This is not the first time my hospital took advantage of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital takes advantage of the fact that I need this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital forced me into a contract that unilaterally benefits the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a modern day slave.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital mistreats me because I am dependent on it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital uses labor contract loopholes in order to avoid adequate compensation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital uses the fact that I need this job to avoid compensating me adequately.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital intentionally under-compensates me because it knows that I am desperate for this job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital expects me to be available to work at any time without extra pay.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital does not provide me with job security because it wants to be able to fire me at its own convenience.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital uses my ideas for its own personal benefit without acknowledging me for them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital does not care if it harms me, as long as it benefits from my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The following questions relate to your opinions and actions. Please answer honestly. I am only interested in aggregate responses, and your responses will not be used to identify you.**

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I feel angry about the way I am treated by my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel hostile towards my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel angry about getting an unfair deal in my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If someone dislike you, you should dislike them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a person despises you, you should despise them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If someone says something nasty to you, you should say something nasty back.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If a person wants to be your enemy, you should treat them like an enemy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If someone treats me badly, I feel I should treat them even worse.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I tried to hurt my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I tried to make something bad happen to my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I did something to make my hospital get what it deserves.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I got even with my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The following questions ask about how you feel as a result of how your hospital treats you.**

How often in the last few months has your hospital made you:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Very Often	Always
Feel good about yourself.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like you want to sink into the floor and disappear.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel remorse, regret.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel worthwhile, valuable.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel small.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel tension about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel capable, useful.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like you are a bad person.	<input type="radio"/>				
Think a lot about something bad you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel proud.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel humiliated, disgraced.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel like apologizing, confessing.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel pleased about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel worthless, powerless.	<input type="radio"/>				
Feel bad about something you have done.	<input type="radio"/>				

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**The following questions ask about your behaviors at work. Please answer honestly. I am only interested in aggregate responses, and your responses will not be used to identify you.**

Please indicate how often over the last few months you have done the following:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Came to work late without permission.	<input type="radio"/>				
Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you were not.	<input type="radio"/>				
Taken a longer break than you were allowed/supposed to take.	<input type="radio"/>				
Left work earlier than you were allowed/supposed to.	<input type="radio"/>				

In the last few months how often have you done the following:

	Never	Almost Never	A Few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Thought of being absent from work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Day dreamed.	<input type="radio"/>						
Done personal tasks at work.	<input type="radio"/>						
Chatted excessively with co-workers about non-work topics.	<input type="radio"/>						
Left work for unnecessary reasons.	<input type="radio"/>						
Day dreamed.	<input type="radio"/>						
Spent work time on personal matters.	<input type="radio"/>						
Put less effort into the job than you should have.	<input type="radio"/>						
Thought of leaving your current job.	<input type="radio"/>						
Let others do your work.	<input type="radio"/>						

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The following questions ask about how you deal with situations that you don't like. Please answer candidly and note that there is no right or wrong, good or bad answer.

Please indicate how often you engaged in the following behaviors over the last few months:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
I chose to remain silent when I had concerns about my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>				
Although I had ideas for improving my hospital, I did not speak up.	<input type="radio"/>				
I said nothing to others about potential problems I noticed in my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>				
I remained silent when I had information that might have helped prevent problems in my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>				
I kept quiet instead of asking questions when I wanted to get more information about issues in my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>				

Please indicate how often you do the following:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
I challenge my supervisor (or another hospital representative) to deal with problems around here.	<input type="radio"/>				
I give suggestions to my supervisor (or another hospital representative) about how to make this hospital better, even if others disagree.	<input type="radio"/>				
I speak up to my supervisor (or another hospital representative) with ideas to address doctors' needs and concerns.	<input type="radio"/>				

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statement:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I think together with other doctors we are able to change our work situation.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would participate in a demonstration against my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would participate in raising our collective voice to the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would do something with fellow doctors to stop mistreatment from the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would participate in some form of collective action to stop mistreatment from the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**The following questions ask about your thoughts regarding staying versus leaving your job.**

Please answer the questions below:

	Not at all Appealing	Not so Appealing	Neither Appealing nor not Appealing	Appealing	Extremely Appealing
How appealing are your employment alternatives (for example, working in another hospital)?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How do your employment alternatives compare to your current employment?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there things, other than pay, that you would lose if your relationship with your hospital ended?

None                      Little                      Some                      A Lot                      Many



Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am actively looking for a job outside my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The questions on the next two screens relate to how you feel about your work and your hospital.**

The last couple of weeks, my work made me feel:

	[Almost] Never	A Few Times	Uncertain	Often	[Almost] Always
At ease.	<input type="radio"/>				
Energetic.	<input type="radio"/>				
Happy.	<input type="radio"/>				
Enthusiastic.	<input type="radio"/>				
Relaxed.	<input type="radio"/>				
Inspired.	<input type="radio"/>				
Satisfied.	<input type="radio"/>				

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I always find new and interesting aspects to my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
There are days when I feel tired before I arrive at work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It happens more and more often that I talk about my work in a negative way.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After work, I tend to need more time than in the past in order to relax and feel better.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can tolerate the pressure of my work very well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lately, I tend to think less at work and do my job almost mechanically.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find work to be a positive challenge.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
During my work, I am often emotionally drained.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Over time, one can become disconnected with this type of work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After working, I have enough energy for my leisure activities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sometimes I feel sickened by my work tasks.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
After work, I usually feel worn out and weary.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
This is the only type of work that I can imagine myself doing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Usually, I can manage the amount of my work very well.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel more and more engaged in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I work, I usually feel energized.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this hospital be successful.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I talk up this hospital to my friends as a great hospital to work for.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel very little loyalty to this hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I find that my values and the hospital's values are very similar.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud to tell others that I am a part of my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hospital really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am extremely glad that I chose this hospital to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Often, I find it difficult to agree with this hospital's policies on important matters relating to its employees.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really care about the fate of my hospital.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

The following statements are about how you feel at work. Please indicate to what extent you agree:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am enthusiastic about my job.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My job inspires me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel happy when I am working intensely.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am proud of the work that I do.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am immersed in my work.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I get carried away when I am working.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The following questions ask about your behaviors and attitude toward your hospital and toward co-workers.**

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviors:

	Never	Almost Never	A few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Defend the hospital when other employees criticize it.	<input type="radio"/>						
Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>						
Take action to protect the hospital from potential problems.	<input type="radio"/>						
Demonstrate concern about the image of the hospital.	<input type="radio"/>						

Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviours:

	Never	Almost Never	A Few Times	Uncertain	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.	<input type="radio"/>						
Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, even under the most trying work or personal situations.	<input type="radio"/>						
Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems.	<input type="radio"/>						
Assist others with their duties.	<input type="radio"/>						

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**The following questions relate to how you feel about yourself and about your approach to goals and challenges in life.**

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

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

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am always looking for better ways to do things.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I excel at identifying opportunities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

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**The following questions ask about how you are treated by other employees in the hospital.**

Please indicate how often another employee has done the following to you over the last few months:

	Never	1-3 Times	4-10 Times	11-20 Times	More than 20 Times
Endangered you with their reckless behavior.	<input type="radio"/>				
Gossiped about you to co-workers.	<input type="radio"/>				
Stole your possessions.	<input type="radio"/>				
Did something to make you look bad.	<input type="radio"/>				
Made an ethnic, racial, or religious slur against you.	<input type="radio"/>				
Swore at you.	<input type="radio"/>				
Refused to talk to you.	<input type="radio"/>				
Made an obscene comment or gesture at you.	<input type="radio"/>				
Lied to get you in trouble.	<input type="radio"/>				
Threatened you with physical harm.	<input type="radio"/>				

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Please continue to the following page to complete a few details and record your answers.

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Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

**The following section asks for some background information. This information is for statistical purposes only and will not be used to identify you.**

What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

How old are you? Please type your age below:

How long you have you been working in your hospital?

- Under six months
- Six months to a year
- 1-5 years
- Over 5 years

Are you a member of a workers union?

- Yes
- No

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Thank you for taking this survey and for participating in this research project. I look forward to contacting you again in several months time for the second phase of this study.

If you have any comments or suggestions, you are welcome to enter them in the box below:

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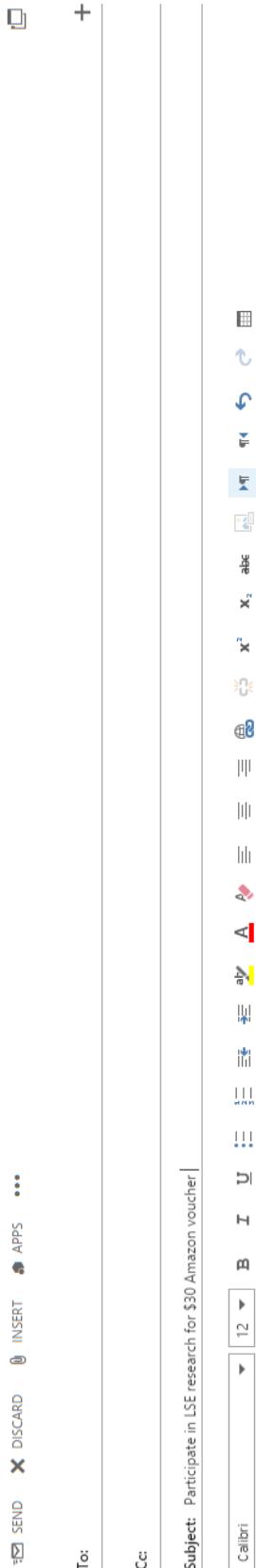
Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

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

Survey Powered By [Qualtrics](#)

## **Appendix 14**

Doctors' Sample Recruitment Email



10

5

**Subject:** Participate in LSE research for \$30 Amazon Voucher

Dear Doctor

My name is Ephrat Livne and I am a PhD student in Employment Relations and Organizational Behavior at the London School of Economics and Political Science. I am conducting a research project about the relationship between hospitals (or other medical organizations) and doctors. I am asking you to complete a survey that asks questions about yourself, your immediate supervisor and your employing hospital. Knowledge gained through this study can be used to help organizations better understand the impact of some of their behaviors as well as on outcomes for the organization itself.

Whilst participation is completely voluntary, you should know that the information you provide will be held in strict confidence and no one at your hospital or any other medical organization will

Completion of the questionnaire should take about **10-15 minutes**. In several months' time I will contact you again and ask that you complete a second survey. After having completed both surveys I

...will find further information in the cost curves and have no further objection or concern about the curves

I will be extremely grateful for your participation.

## **Appendix 15**

Doctors' Sample Reminder Email to Fill out Surveys (Time 2)

Live,E (pgr)  
Wed 12/11/2014 14:49  
Sent Items; Inbox

Show all 92 recipients

To: [Live,E \(pgr\)](#)

[REPLY](#) [REPLY ALL](#) [FORWARD](#) [\\*\\*\\*](#)  
[Mark as unread](#)

[Action Items](#) [+ Get more apps](#)

Dear Doctor,

Apologies for bothering you with this, but I am contacting you again as your participation in this second survey is critical for achieving the minimum number of respondents required for my research. You might have already filled out a part of this second survey. You can pick up where you left off as the system records your answers, so you do not have to start from the beginning. As soon as you complete the survey you will receive the \$30 Amazon gift card via email. Please fill it out by clicking on the link below at your earliest convenience.

Also, please forgive me and ignore this email if you have already filled out the survey twice and I emailed you again accidentally.

The link:

[https://site.qualtrics.com/SE7SID=SV\\_6fP2GO6RTSAcE5](https://site..qualtrics.com/SE7SID=SV_6fP2GO6RTSAcE5)

Thank you so much for your time and effort,  
Ephrat Live

## **Appendix 16**

Table 5.2. Comparison of PERs Item Loadings on 1, 2, 3 and 4 Factors in  
Doctors' Sample

Table 5.2. Comparison of PERs Item Loadings on 1, 2, 3 and 4 Factors in Doctors' Sample

Item	1-Factor	2-Factor		3-Factor			4-Factor			
		1	2	1	2	3	1	2	3	4
1.	<b>0.78</b>	0.35	<b>0.84</b>	0.33	<b>0.82</b>		<b>0.79</b>			0.32
2.	<b>0.77</b>	0.33	<b>0.86</b>		<b>0.81</b>	0.31	<b>0.82</b>		0.31	
3.	<b>0.74</b>	0.33	<b>0.81</b>	0.30	<b>0.78</b>		<b>0.77</b>			
4.	<b>0.78</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.48</b>		<b>0.41</b>	<b>0.41</b>		<b>0.53</b>
5.	<b>0.76</b>	<b>0.59</b>	<b>0.46</b>	<b>0.58</b>	<b>0.45</b>		0.35	0.38		<b>0.64</b>
6.	<b>0.71</b>	<b>0.51</b>	<b>0.48</b>	<b>0.43</b>	<b>0.44</b>	0.33	0.35		0.35	0.50
7.	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.77</b>	0.39	<b>0.72</b>	0.35	0.32		<b>0.55</b>	0.33	<b>0.56</b>
8.	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.73</b>	0.42	<b>0.67</b>	0.38	0.34	0.37	<b>0.59</b>	0.35	0.31
9.	<b>0.85</b>	<b>0.90</b>	0.31	<b>0.86</b>		0.33		<b>0.88</b>	0.32	
10.	<b>0.83</b>	<b>0.83</b>		<b>0.76</b>		0.38		<b>0.67</b>	0.39	0.31
11.	<b>0.61</b>	0.42	0.43		0.35	0.46	0.35		<b>0.47</b>	
12.	<b>0.69</b>	<b>0.60</b>	0.32	0.40		<b>0.67</b>		0.32	<b>0.67</b>	
13.	<b>0.61</b>	<b>0.49</b>	0.34			<b>0.79</b>			<b>0.77</b>	
14.	<b>0.75</b>	<b>0.49</b>	<b>0.55</b>	0.31	0.46	<b>0.60</b>			<b>0.61</b>	0.33

Note. N=139.

## **Appendix 17**

Table 5.4. Factor Loadings of PERs and the Independent Variables in the  
Doctors' Sample Study of Antecedents

*Table 5.4. Factor Loadings of PERs and the Independent Variables in the Doctors' Sample Study of Antecedents*

<b>Item</b>	<b>PERs</b>	<b>Abusive Supervision</b>	<b>Supervisory Embodiment</b>	<b>Effort-Reward Imbalance</b>	<b>Perceived Greed</b>
1.	0.74	0.74	0.87	0.54	0.63
2.	0.58	0.76	0.88	0.78	0.59
3.	0.70	0.78	0.94	0.59	0.69
4.	0.62	0.79	0.88	0.63	0.76
5.	0.80	0.69	0.70	0.77	
6.	0.82	0.83	0.56	0.44	
7.	0.79	0.53	0.74	0.82	
8.	0.88	0.80	0.70	0.75	
9.	0.72	0.77	0.49	0.86	
10.	0.80	0.65		0.75	
11.	0.82			0.88	
12.	0.72			0.78	
13.	0.76			0.76	
14.	0.76			0.52	
15.				0.45	
16.				0.53	

*Note.* N=139.