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Job Embeddedness: Do the Interaction Effects of Attitude, Personality, and Exchange Relationships Detract from Performance?

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JOB EMBEDDEDNESS:
DO THE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF ATTITUDE, PERSONALITY, AND EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIPS DETRACT FROM PERFORMANCE?

by
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DEDICATION

To my mother

Ms. Jean E. Greene

Mommy your encouragement and support are a constant. I hope you know how much you mean to me. Thank you for your love and sacrifice.

This was possible because of you.

ABSTRACT

JOB EMBEDDEDNESS:
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AND EXCHANGE RELATIONSHIPS DETRACT FROM PERFORMANCE?
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Job embeddedness (JE) research has considered the web of connections that attach an individual to their work organization. Empirical evidence suggests that high JE is related to reduced turnover and improved individual task performance. Scholars have also suggested the potential for negative implications of JE when the web of connections serves to trap the individual in the organization. This study explores the boundary conditions that may add light to this potential dark side of JE by considering how variance in individual attitude, personality, and exchange relationships may moderate the relationship between JE and both performance and counterproductive behavior. Moderated hierarchical regression results from the current study suggest that under certain exchange conditions and for those with certain personality traits, job embeddedness may result in undesirable outcomes relative to counterproductive behavior and contextual performance. Findings also suggest the importance of commitment in accessing the effects of job embeddedness. In all, this study speaks to the negative side of job embeddedness and provides support for its potential to produce adverse consequences for organizations.

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INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

For the past decade, turnover scholars have investigated a construct that represents a departure from previous conceptual models to explain further why people leave their organizations. That construct, job embeddedness (Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001), instead emphasizes why people stay with an organization. According to Crossley, Bennett, Jex, and Burnfield (2007, p. 1031), "whereas quitting is often proceeded by some degree of mental consideration, remaining with an organization may simply be the result of maintaining the status quo." Job embeddedness (JE) measures the degree of attachment workers feel to their job as a result of organizational and community forces (Yao, Lee, Mitchell, Burton, & Sablynski, 2004). Early research on JE found it to explain more variance in intent to leave and voluntary turnover (Allen, 2006; Crossley, et al., 2007; Felps, et al., 2009; Trevor & Nyberg, 2008) than satisfaction, commitment, job alternatives, and job search (Mitchell, et al., 2001).

Though originally created to predict job stability, job embeddedness also has implications for employee performance. According to Lee, Mitchell, Sablynski, Burton, and Holtom (2004), the decision to perform should be related to job embeddedness via motivational effects. They assert that high job embeddedness increases motivation to perform because highly embedded employees are connected to people and projects, feel they fit with their jobs, and attach a high cost to leaving.

Indeed, in their study of 829 employees and 636 supervisors at a large international financial institution, results indicate that job embeddedness moderates the effects of citizenship and performance on turnover. Job embeddedness then, strengthens the negative relationship between performance and turnover because of the concern that low performance may jeopardize the aspects of the work environment that create attachment or lead to embeddedness. In essence, because of their links, fit, and sacrifice levels, highly embedded individuals tend to be more concerned about low performance for fear of "[endangering their] status of being employed and/or attached to their jobs" (Lee, et al., 2004, p. 714).

Despite empirical evidence supporting the positive impacts of JE, negative effects of job embeddedness have also been suggested. Sekiguchi, Burton, and Sablynski (2008) explored the moderating effects of job embeddedness on relationships among leader-member exchange (LMX), organization-based self-esteem, organizational citizenship behavior, and task performance. Results indicate that high job embeddedness may become detrimental for employee performance if the quality of LMX and/or organizational-based self-esteem is low. "Employees with high job embeddedness may feel 'stuck' in their current job and organization and believe that it is not easy to escape from the poor social exchange relationship with their supervisors" (Sekiguchi, et al., 2008, p. 768).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Scholars have encouraged future research to explore the negative consequences of job embeddedness (Crossley, et al., 2007; Sekiguchi, et al., 2008).

As such, the current study seeks to investigate potential boundary conditions of the JE-employee performance relationship. Specifically, the notion of highly embedded individuals perceiving they are "stuck" in their work situation will be examined. Often times, organizational events or circumstances that are more proximal to the employee impact individual perceptions and subsequent behavior. For example, special terms of employment, referred to as idiosyncratic-deals (i-deals), that are agreed upon by the worker and employer may serve as a binding force which contributes to feelings of being stuck. The functional and dysfunctional nature of i-deals will be examined as well as its influence on job embeddedness and performance.

"Because global perceptions of job embeddedness are largely subjective and may be influenced by people's dispositions and cognitive frames, future research [should] examine individual differences that relate to impressions of being embedded" (Crossley, et al., 2007, p. 1041). The current study seeks to expand this call to explore direct effects on job embeddedness by examining the moderating influences of conscientiousness and negative affectivity on the relationship between job embeddedness and performance. Findings may help to answer the question of when and how job embeddedness may become a detriment.

The current study will also examine the influence of attitudinal factors such as organizational commitment on the job embeddedness-performance relation. Organizational commitment, an often used control variable in JE research, has been compared to the job embeddedness construct. Both organizational commitment and job embeddedness describe elements of employee attachment, however differences exist in

terms of the basis for assessing that attachment as job embeddedness, which unlike commitment, is seen as a non-affective construct.

However much like job embeddedness, studies have shown the components of organizational commitment to have different implications for work related behavior over turnover (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002) such as organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995) and task performance (Shore, Barksdale, & Shore, 1995). Yet, affective motives for attachment (e.g. job satisfaction and affective commitment) are found to be strongly related to how embedded people feel (Crossley, et al., 2007). With studies suggesting both similarities and differences between organizational commitment and JE, research is needed to further investigate the linkages between the two constructs. This study will therefore also examine performance impacts associated with the interaction between job embeddedness and commitment.

Finally, this study will contribute to the JE literature by assessing not only in-role/task performance and extra-role/contextual performance, but counter-role behavior as well. According to Dalal, Lam, Weiss, Welch, and Hulin (2009), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) are affect-driven phenomena that exhibit considerable within-person variation. Research investigating the impacts of personality on CWB suggests that personality plays a role in determining whether CWB is reactive, proactive, or relational (Spector, 2010). As we explore conscientiousness and negative affectivity, the examination of CWB may uncover unexpected disadvantages of job embeddedness.

In sum, the current study seeks to answer the following research questions: 1) How does the interaction between job embeddedness and organizational commitment impact different facets of performance? 2) When might job embeddedness negatively affect performance (to create the dark side of job embeddedness)?

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

The proposed conceptual framework in Figure 1 suggests the presence of boundary conditions on the job embeddedness-performance relationship. Specifically, the model asserts that personality and commitment moderate the relationship between JE and performance. The model also introduces exchange relationships as a contextual factor as well as idiosyncratic deals and associated perceptions of fairness as moderators of the JE-performance relation.

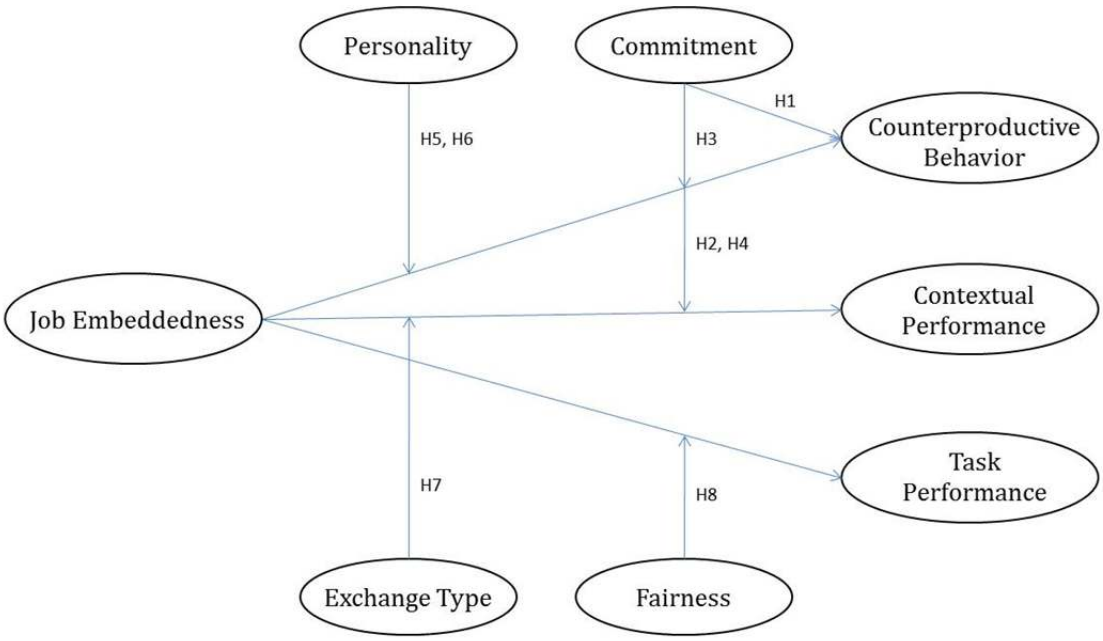

Figure 1. Conceptual Model.

The remainder of the paper will be structured as follows: First, research pertaining to key constructs presented in the model (i.e. job embeddedness, commitment, and performance) will be discussed; Second, an overview of the hypothesized intervening relationships, including attitude, personality, and exchange relationships will be presented; Third, the methodology used in the current study will be explained, followed by the results of hypothesis tests; Next, a discussion of the results and the limitations of the study will be provided. Afterward, future research directions will be suggested, along with the implications of the findings. Lastly the conclusion will offer a summary of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Job Embeddedness

The job embeddedness construct (Mitchell, et al., 2001; Mitchell & Lee, 2001), described as an anti-withdrawal construct (Lee, et al., 2004), has primarily been used to measure why people stay on their jobs. Found in studies on turnover and retention, JE includes 3 dimensions: 1) fit, 2) links, and 3) sacrifice. These dimensions are considered for both the organization (on-the-job embeddedness) and the community (off-the-job embeddedness). Because JE essentially embeds an individual in the organization too, it implies organizational embeddedness (Ng & Feldman, 2007), however the reverse is not true. The JE construct as a whole assesses the degree of similarity on several dimensions and is less affective than other constructs related to moods, feelings, and attitudes.

The fit dimension in JE refers to employees' perceived compatibility or comfort with an organization and with their environment. That is to say, an employee's personal values, career, goals, and plans for the future match the larger corporate culture. JE fit looks at fit with coworkers, groups, jobs, the company, and the culture. It is basically an overall fit perception that does not refer to needs specifically. The links dimension of JE is defined as the informal or formal connections an individual has with other individuals, groups, and/or activities. These links may be described as strands which create attachments or a web. The sacrifice dimension of JE depicts the perceived loss of material or psychological benefits that currently are available or will be available in the

future (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Said another way, this dimension captures the things that are given up when leaving a job.

Job embeddedness is rooted in field theory (Lewin, 1951) which suggests that human behavior is a product of both the person and their environment. People exist in a "perceptual [field or] life space where aspects of their lives are represented and connected" (Mitchell, et al., 2001, p. 1104). The connections can be few or many and can form a web that 'sticks' the person to a certain environment or job. This can occur in a variety of ways; thus one can become embedded in a variety of ways. The JE construct therefore centers on the overall level of embeddedness rather than specific elements of embeddedness.

Although JE has two major sub-dimensions: on-the-job embeddedness and off-the-job embeddedness, Lee, et al. (2004, p. 714) suggest that in some cases, it may be useful to consider them separately; positing that "on-the-job embeddedness should be more proximal to a decision to perform than the more distal decision to participate (as reflected by turnover and absences which involve future states and off-the-job considerations). Thus the attributes of a job and an organization should be significantly more salient for immediate motivation (and decision) to perform than off-the-job factors." Results of their study on the effects of JE on organizational citizenship, job performance, absences, and turnover indicate that on-the-job embeddedness predicts citizenship behavior and task performance more than satisfaction and commitment, whereas off-the-job embeddedness does not. The focus of the current study will therefore be on-the-job embeddedness.

Job embeddedness stems from the unfolding model of turnover (Lee & Mitchell, 1994) which describes 5 psychological paths that people follow when deciding to leave an organization. Based on image theory (Beach, 1998), the unfolding model of turnover represents a broader model of how turnover decisions are made. Image theory suggests that individuals will compare incoming information to their value image (self-definition), goal image (congruency between our values and behavior), and their strategic image (specific plans for attaining imaged goals) (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Incoming information is referred to as a shock which is evaluated based on individual, social, and cognitive factors. Shocks can be positive or negative and can cause a person to think about leaving when the shock matches a pre-existing plan or violates a person's values or interferes with goal attainment (Burton, Holtom, Sablynski, Mitchell, & Lee, 2010). Despite the contributions of the unfolding model of turnover, authors of the model theorized that the factors that prompt someone to leave differ from those that prompt someone to stay. Factors not explained by the unfolding model, such as those that are off-the-job and non-attitudinal variables, led to the development of the job embeddedness construct.

Organizational Commitment

Commitment is seen as a psychological state that characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership with an organization. When describing organizational commitment, the most commonly studied conceptualization is the 3-component model developed by Meyer and Allen (1987). The dimensions or psychological states include affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees stay with an organization because they 'want to'. Continuance commitment involves the consideration of side bets and the perceived costs of leaving versus remaining with an organization. Employees remain because they 'need to'. Finally, normative commitment reflects the perceived obligation to stay with an organization. Employees continue with an organization because they feel they 'ought to' (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

While similarities do exist between job embeddedness and organizational commitment, they have been found to be distinct constructs that each contribute to performance (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007; Mitchell, et al., 2001; Riketta, 2002). When comparing the two constructs, key differences are noted. For example, whereas the affective dimension of organizational commitment involves emotional attachment, an acceptance of organizational goals, and the willingness to exert substantial effort (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), job embeddedness is not strictly affective (i.e. it has a cognitive component), is not limited to acceptance of organizational goals, and does not address effort. Where continuance commitment includes side bets and perceived alternatives, job embeddedness looks at both the past and future and is not limited to lack of options or lost investments. Finally, where normative commitment refers to obligatory concerns, job embeddedness does not focus on how right or wrong the degree of attachment is (Crossley, et al., 2007).

Performance

In management and industrial-organizational psychology literature, job performance is a well-studied outcome of employee behavior.

One important conceptualization of job performance has considered two dimensions: task performance and contextual performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). These conceptualizations are consistent with Katz and Kahn's (1978) description of job performance which includes joining and staying in the organization, dependably meeting or exceeding standards of performance prescribed by organizational roles, and innovatively and spontaneously going beyond prescribed roles to perform such actions as cooperating with other members, protecting the organization from harm, offering suggestions for improvement, and representing the organization favorably to outsiders.

Task performance is defined as behaviors that are directly related to the organization's technical core (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Also referred to as in-role behavior, task performance is required or expected, is the basis of regular and ongoing job performance (Katz, 1964; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), and fulfills prescribed duties and formal job descriptions (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Contextual performance on the other hand, involves discretionary behavior (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and supports the broader organizational, social, and psychological environment in which the technical core must function (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Related conceptualizations of contextual performance include organizational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), organizational citizenship (Organ, 1988), and pro-social behavior including extra-role behavior (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Studies support the notion that raters define job performance broader than task performance and see value in citizenship behavior (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Whiting, Podsakoff, & Pierce, 2008).

A third performance domain has been considered that, much like contextual performance/extra-role behaviors, goes beyond the assigned responsibilities of task performance. Whereas contextual performance represents the voluntary behavior that benefits the organization or individuals within the organization, counterproductive work behavior includes destructive acts that are detrimental to the organization or its members (Spector & Fox, 2002). Counterproductive work behavior has been studied from several theoretical perspectives, namely deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), aggression (Neuman & Baron, 1998), delinquency (Hogan & Hogan, 1989), and antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997) and includes behaviors such as avoiding work, doing tasks incorrectly, physical aggression, lying, withholding effort, refusing to cooperate, verbal hostility, sabotage, and theft (Penney & Spector, 2005; Spector & Fox, 2002).

In their policy-capturing study examining the relative importance of the components of job performance to ratings of overall performance, Rotundo and Sackett (2002) found support for a conceptualization of job performance that includes task performance, citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behaviors. On average, raters gave the most weight to task performance and counterproductive work performance. While job embeddedness has been examined in relation to task performance and citizenship behavior, my research found only one study (Holtom, Burton, & Crossley, 2011) that has examined its relationship to counterproductive work behavior.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Attitudinal Considerations

According to Meyer, Becker, and Vandenberghe (2004, p. 991), "commitment is [a] component of motivation and, by integrating theories of commitment and motivation, we gain a better understanding of the two processes themselves and of workplace behavior." Two motivational theories that contribute to this understanding are regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1996) and self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Regulatory focus theory describes the motivation to minimize discrepancies between actual and desired end states and to maximize the discrepancy between actual and undesired end states. End states may be characterized as 'ideals' (what one wants to be) or 'oughts' (what others think one should be). Those "who seek to minimize discrepancies with their ideal self are promotion-focused, whereas those seeking the same with their 'ought self' are prevention-focused" (Meyer, et al., 2004, p. 996). Self-determination theory describes the intention to act, which may be initiated by oneself or by external forces. The types of extrinsic motivation differ according to perceptions of autonomy.

Both regulatory focus theory and self-determination theory have been used to develop the concept of goal regulation which is a motivational mindset reflecting the reasons for, and purpose of, a course of action (Meyer, et al., 2004) . According to Luchak and Gellatly (2007, p. 787), "the nature of one's motivational mindset depends on the extent to which the intended act or behavior is perceived to be internally driven rather than externally controlled, and on whether the behavior is focused on personal advancement, growth, and accomplishment (promotion focus) rather than security, safety,

and responsibility (prevention focus)." "Individuals with a promotion focus see themselves as working toward the attainment of their ideals, whereas those with a prevention focus are attempting to fulfill their obligations" (Meyer, et al., 2004, p. 996).

Continuance commitment, attachment based on side bets and the cost of leaving an organization, motivates individuals to stay with an organization because they feel they have little choice. Self-determination theory suggests that the behavior of individuals high in continuance commitment is impacted by the perception that their choices are externally controlled (i.e. external regulation). Regulatory focus theory suggests that these individuals feel pressure to satisfy the minimum job requirements for staying (prevention focus) because their goals are seen as duties or necessities. "With prevention focus, the end-state [is] vigilance to assure safety and non-loss" (Higgins, 1998, p. 27). Once the minimum requirements have been satisfied, the effects of continuance commitment on behavior are said to be minimal (Luchak & Gellatly, 2007). Indeed, studies show that continuance commitment is either negatively or unrelated to job performance and citizenship behavior (Chen & Francesco, 2003; Meyer, et al., 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Continuance commitment is also unrelated to effort (Fu, Bolander, & Jones, 2009). However the psychological state or motivational mindset that is created from feeling externally controlled and working to avoid loss may negatively influence behavior, potentially increasing the likelihood of counterproductive behaviors.

Empirical research has not examined the relationship between continuance commitment and counterproductive behavior. Since continuance commitment has been found to be negatively related to citizenship behavior (Shore & Wayne, 1993) and job performance (Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989), one can say that

those high in continuance commitment will not engage in extra activities to benefit the organization and will engage in the minimal amount of performance to maintain employment status. Continuance commitment is also positively related to stress and work-family conflict (Meyer, et al., 2002), inferring that 'needing' to belong to an organization or having few other choices, may create a sense of being trapped, which is "stressful for employees and a source of conflict in the home" (Meyer, et al., 2002, p. 40). Results are mixed on the relationship between continuance commitment and absenteeism (Gellatly, 1995; Randall, Fedor, & Longenecker, 1990). With a prevention focus, the employee high in continuance commitment will try not to be absent too often. However, going back to the motivational mindset, if an employee feels trapped (i.e. staying with an organization out of need), withdrawal behaviors other than absenteeism such as arriving late, leaving early, taking long breaks, or excessive socializing during work may result (Koslowsky, 2000; Spector, et al., 2006).

The model of voluntary behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002) posits that emotion mediates the effects of environmental conditions on behavior. "As situations, filtered through personal appraisals and perceptions, induce emotion, they affect the likelihood that the individual will choose a form of either citizenship or counterproductive behavior. Continued exposure to emotion-arousing events will heighten the likelihood for the person to engage in a behavioral response" (Spector & Fox, 2002, p. 270). Staying with an organization out of need may be considered continued exposure to an emotion-arousing event if one perceives themselves to be trapped and the situation as externally controlled.

It is therefore possible for someone high in continuance commitment to use withdrawal behavior as a coping mechanism (Koslowsky, 2000) and a way to avoid the problem (Dalal, et al., 2009). Therefore, the following is suggested:

Hypothesis 1: Continuance commitment is positively related to counterproductive work behavior.

The Dark Side of Job Embeddedness

An employee who is highly embedded may be described as one who has a large number of links (connections to people and activities), fits well in their job (match in values, skills, and is comfortable), and perceives a cost to leaving (great deal to lose by breaking links/forgoing perks). The degree to which employees perceive themselves as embedded depends on the variations that occur within the three dimensions of JE. As previously mentioned, field theory (Lewin, 1951) posits that people exist in a perceptual life space in which aspects of their lives are represented and connected forming a web (Mitchell, et al., 2001). The more the connections, the more embedded a person is in that environment. As defined by Lee, et al. (2004), job embeddedness is an anti-withdrawal/retention construct, suggesting that highly embedded individuals choose to maintain the status quo and stay with an organization. These people feel attached to the organization regardless of the reasons why.

"One potential downside to JE that warrants consideration is that people who feel stuck in an unfavorable job may lose motivation, experience frustration, and even engage in counterproductive workplace behavior" (Crossley, et al., 2007, p. 1041). This statement is at the crux of what is termed the 'dark side' of job embeddedness (Sekiguchi, et al., 2008).

Studies touting the positive effects of JE primarily focus on the benefits of being embedded, which contributes to the understanding of why people decide to stay with an organization (Mitchell, et al., 2001; Mitchell & Lee, 2001). However a closer look at why people are embedded may reveal a different perspective of being stuck than the one posited by field theory. That is to say, the feeling of being stuck may not stem from the general web of connections created so much as the limited options it creates. This negative connotation of being stuck may trigger an emotional reaction. According to Spector and Fox (2002, p. 274), "the workplace is an environment that can induce strong emotion, as it is the source of both physical (e.g. money) and psychological (e.g. esteem) need fulfillment."

If employees perceive themselves to be highly embedded because they have many connections to people and organizational activities and are comfortable in their job, yet have strong continuance commitment, the sacrifice dimension of their embeddedness may become distorted or be overridden by continuance commitment. Whereas JE-sacrifice includes both affective and cognitive-based evaluations (i.e. assessment of material and psychological benefits), is focused on the past and future, and is not limited to attachment based on a lack of options, continuance commitment is based on the recognition of the costs associated with leaving an organization, including side bets and alternatives (Crossley, et al., 2007). If high continuance commitment indeed does overshadow the sacrifice dimension of job embeddedness, previous research findings indicating a positive relationship between JE and citizenship behavior (Burton, et al., 2010; Lee, et al., 2004; Wijayanto & Kimono, 2004) may differ because employees feel they need to stay due to acknowledgement of side bets (i.e. limited alternatives) rather

than wanting to stay to take advantage of and/or continue to enjoy the organization (e.g. colleagues, perks). Moreover, feelings of limitation due to side bets may cause an individual to engage in counterproductive behavior. It is therefore suggested that:

Hypothesis 2: Continuance commitment will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as continuance commitment increases.

Hypothesis 3: Continuance commitment will moderate the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior such that the relationship will strengthen as continuance commitment increases.

Normative commitment triggers a sense of loyalty, derived from family-based socialization experiences during childhood (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991; Wiener, 1982). Normative commitment may also be impacted by the concept of reciprocity created from the receipt of special benefits, favors, investments, etc. (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Meyer & Allen, 1991), which is the mechanism by which both normative and affective commitment are translated into behavior. Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 78) stress the difference between reciprocity by desire (affective commitment) and reciprocity by obligation (normative commitment), suggesting that "obligation may carry with it an underlying resentment and a tendency to keep an accurate account of inputs and outcomes that is absent in the case of desire. Moreover, where normative commitment results from the receipt of advanced rewards, once the debt has been repaid, the employee may choose to leave the organization and/or cut back on the level of effort exerted".

If an employee is highly embedded, he/she will likely choose not to leave the organization (Mitchell, et al., 2001). However feelings of obligation (rather than desire) due to normative commitment may impact the level of engagement, especially if the employee feels stuck. Rich, Lepine, and Crawford (2010) suggest that engaged employees should be more willing to step outside the bounds of their formally defined jobs and engage in acts that constitute citizenship behavior. Indeed, in their study on job engagement and performance, job engagement was found to be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior. In the case of normative commitment however, motivation to go beyond repaying the debt is said to be minimal (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It is the obligatory nature of normative commitment, especially if the debt is perceived as overwhelming or difficult to repay, that has the potential to negatively impact extra role behaviors. It is therefore suggested that:

> Hypothesis 4: Normative commitment will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as normative commitment increases.

Personality

Individual differences are an important consideration in the study of volitional behavior. Research has examined the relationship between personality and performance (Judge & Ilies, 2002), emphasizing especially, the Five-Factor Model of personality (Barrick & Mount, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1985) which includes neuroticism/emotional stability, extraversion, agreeableness, openness to experience, and conscientiousness. Of the five, conscientiousness has been shown to be the most consistent predictor of task performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Judge, 2001).

Those high in conscientiousness are dependable, careful, thorough, responsible, organized, achievement-oriented, punctual, and hardworking (Mount & Barrick, 1995). Meta-analytic studies reveal that conscientiousness, along with agreeableness and emotional stability are related to counterproductive work behavior towards the organization (Ones, Viswesvaran, & Schmidt, 1993). In their study of personality traits and counterproductive behavior, Mount, Ilies, and Johnson (2006) found that conscientiousness correlated negatively with counterproductive behavior. In addition, Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick (2004) found conscientiousness to be negatively related to withholding effort.

Because highly conscientious individuals are goal-oriented and motivated to work hard, negatively-perceived situational influences that pertain to the job or organizational environment have little effect on deviant behavior (Amy E. Colbert, et al., 2004). However Colbert and colleagues (2004, p. 602) suggest that "the relationship between perceptions of the work situation and deviance may be constrained by theoretically relevant personality traits such that situational perceptions are only related to deviant behavior when this behavior is consistent with the employee's personality traits." In fact, Colbert, et al. (2004) found that conscientiousness indeed did predict deviant behavior *only when* the work situation was perceived negatively.

If we apply this logic to job embeddedness, one can say that those who are highly embedded yet perceive themselves to be stuck, perceive their overall work situation negatively. Conscientiousness may act as a constraint on the relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior (of which, deviant behavior is a part) such that these individuals will engage in counterproductive behavior only when

conscientiousness is low. According to the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), our attitudes toward a behavior are the product of two things: our beliefs about the consequences of engaging in a given behavior and our evaluation of the desirability of the consequences of that behavior. A person low in conscientiousness does not use the same logic as someone high in conscientiousness to determine socially desirable behavior (i.e. less sensitized to behavioral expectations) and is therefore not motivated to comply with workplace norms. Because he/she is less likely to care about compliance, their attitude toward counterproductive behavior is impacted. Thus, the likelihood of engaging in such behavior increases (Cullen & Sackett, 2003). Therefore the interaction between feelings of being stuck (i.e. workplace perceptions) and low conscientiousness will lead to counterproductive behavior. As such, the following is suggested:

> Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness will moderate the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior such that the relationship will weaken as conscientiousness decreases.

A person who assesses their work situation and perceives that few opportunities or alternatives exist because of their personal limitations (e.g. limited skill set or knowledge) has the potential to respond emotionally. "It is the nature of emotional response (negative for CWB and positive for OCB) that determines a person's action tendency. Emotion however only induces a readiness to engage in behavior or an intention to act. Individual differences are [what shift the intent to action], as certain personality characteristics are associated with CWB or OCB" (Spector & Fox, 2002, p. 275). According to Spector (2010), personality has the potential to affect the CWB

process (environment →cognition →emotion →CWB) at every step and affects how a person perceives a situation (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Negative affectivity (NA) is a higher order personality variable defined as the predisposition to experience negative emotion across time and situations regardless of the specific stimulus (Watson & Clark, 1984). People high in NA tend to worry, feel tension and nervousness, and be sensitive to minor failures and irritations of life. It includes affective states such as anger, scorn, self-dissatisfaction, rejection, and sadness (Watson & Clark, 1984). Individuals with high NA have been found to set few goals (Wright & Mischel, 1982) and perform more withdrawal behaviors than those low in NA when both satisfied and dissatisfied with their jobs (Necowitz, 1994).

In a study to test a model using organizational justice variables and negative affectivity to explain deviant employee behavior, structural equation modeling results from a survey of 350 governmental agency employees and 125 employees from an international paper products company indicate a direct relationship between negative affectivity and deviant behavior (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). In their study of 151 employees from a transportation company and public school, Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that individual difference variables including negative affectivity, account for 62% of the variance in self-reported incidences of workplace aggression. Interestingly, Douglas and Martinko (2001) also found negative affectivity to be unrelated to workforce aggression, which is a form of counterproductive behavior.

Negative affectivity concerns emotional responses that mainly affect emotional reactions to perceived situations once they have been appraised. As suggested by Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen (1999), individual who are high in NA see

interactions with others as threats to their identity and act inappropriately in social situations. As such, it is reasonable to assume that those with high NA may not enjoy positive working relationships, as they may engage in behaviors that annoy others (Felson, 1978).

In the case of job embeddedness, if a high NA individual is also embedded, he/she may acknowledge their contribution to poor workplace interactions and attempt to minimize the consequential impact on their ability to *stay* embedded. The model of voluntary behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002) suggests that as situations, filtered through personal appraisals and perceptions, induce emotions, they affect the likelihood that the individual will choose a form of either counterproductive behavior or citizenship behavior. So where a person high in NA may ordinarily engage in negative behaviors, high job embeddedness may serve to constrain natural tendencies. Thus those who are high in NA may seek to increase helping behaviors rather than engage in counterproductive behavior. Those who are low in NA do not contend with the same social issues as high NA individuals, thus they may be more apt to engage in counterproductive behaviors if, as suggested by Spector and Fox (2002), a particular situation triggers and negative emotional reaction. It is therefore suggested that:

> Hypothesis 6: Negative affectivity moderates the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive work behavior such that the relationship will strengthen as negative affectivity increases.

Idiosyncratic Deals' Contribution to Being Stuck

Idiosyncratic deals (i-deals) are personalized agreements of a non-standard nature that are negotiated by the employee. They are features of employment received by

individual workers that differ from what workers in similar roles receive (Rousseau, 2001). I-deals may be thought of as customized employment conditions that are intended to benefit both the employee and employer (Rousseau, 2005).

For the employee, they serve to satisfy personal needs, values, and preferences. For the employer, they help attract, motivate, and retain high performers (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006). I-deals vary and may include flexible work hours, special training and assignments, extended vacation, etc. I-deals differ from favoritism and unauthorized arrangements. Whereas i-deals benefit both the employee and employer, favoritism and unauthorized arrangements primarily benefit the employee and often lead to rule-breaking, reduced trust and perceived fairness, and reduced legitimacy of organizational practices (Rousseau, et al., 2006). "The leverage individuals have to make i-deals is based on predisposition (i.e. willingness to negotiate), credentials, occupation, status, and marketability. Whether employers are willing to provide unique employment conditions is a function of industry norms, corporate culture, and strategic choice" (Rousseau, 2001, p. 264).

I-deals may be negotiated either at the time of hire (ex ante) or during the ongoing employment relationship (ex post). According to Rousseau, et al. (2006, p. 979), "being able to negotiate idiosyncratic conditions is a sign of one's potential or acceptance as a valued contributor." Ex post arrangements usually result from the context of the relationship (e.g. information exchange, past contributions) and involve the parties in commitments that play over a long period of time. Because the employee and employer are known to each other, ex post i-deals can occur more readily. The employee's comfort level in making special requests of the employer increases the likelihood of occurrence.

As well, long-term workers can use their insider knowledge to capitalize on opportunities to propose i-deals (Rousseau, et al., 2006).

Employers in long-standing relationships may consent to i-deals as a means of acknowledging loyalty and of rewarding contributions based on an extended track record (Lazear, 1981).

The presence of existing i-deals and the opportunities to negotiate future i-deals may represent a form of 'glue' that contributes to an embedded individual's feelings of being stuck. I-deals that contribute to embeddedness may serve to hold an employee in an employment situation simply because he/she does not want to lose their ability to negotiate (i.e. lose their bargaining power). Indeed, receipt of i-deals is based on a mutual employee-employer commitment that necessitates an investment of time and effort on the part of both parties. Resource exchanges that promote interaction over time can deepen both investments (JE) and obligations (commitment) (Rousseau, Ho, & Kim, 2003; Rousseau, et al., 2006).

Exchange Relationships

Perceptions of the relationship between employee and employer are impacted by the type of exchange relationship. These exchanges may be characterized as standardized (offered to all workers), position-based (available to certain groups), or idiosyncratic (unique to particular individuals). "If everything is subject to a bargaining process, the employment relationship [is seen as] a transaction [or] economic exchange which undermines the sense of relationship and identification" (Rousseau, 2001, p. 267). This sends a message in terms of the type of employer one works for and their motivations toward its employees. By definition, economic exchange reflects beliefs in employment

as an impersonal market-based transaction limited in time and scope to a specified exchange of material resources for job performance; whereas social exchange reflects a supportive relationship based on broad mutual contributions (Blau, 1964; Rousseau, Hornung, & Kim, 2009). "Employment predominantly based on a more narrow economic exchange rationale is viewed as less valuable by both the employer and the worker" (Rousseau, et al., 2009, p. 339). Despite the diminished value of the employment relationship itself, a negotiated i-deal maintains its value. Those who are highly embedded may be so because of the i-deals that meet their needs. However due to the nature of the employment relationship (i.e. an economic rather than social exchange), perceptions of the work environment are not positive. The employee may therefore feel stuck in a negative exchange situation.

Where i-deals have been shown to be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior (Anand, Vidyarthi, Liden, & Rousseau, 2010), the opposite may be true in instances where the assumed sense of obligation is not present. According to Anand, et al. (2010, p. 972), "social exchange theory and norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) imply that individuals who successfully negotiate i-deals are likely to feel obligated to those who enabled [or facilitated] the deal." However in the case of an economic exchange, obligations to reciprocate via extra-role behavior may lessen. Due to the nature of economic exchange relationships, the employee may perceive the employer's obligation to be higher than their own. Therefore employee attitudes and behavior would not be motivated by a need to repay a debt to the employer and will not be supportive of organizational goals (Shore & Barksdale, 1998). It is therefore suggested that:

Hypothesis 7: Exchange relationships will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as economic exchange increases.

Fairness

I-deals are linked to psychological contracts. "Unless i-deals are managed properly, their proliferation can undermine trust and cooperation" (Rousseau, 2001, p. 262). When negotiating i-deals, three parties should be considered: 1) the worker, 2) the employer, 3) coworkers. Because psychological contracts are interpretations of expressed obligations and agreements with others, they can differ among coworkers doing similar jobs (Rousseau, et al., 2006). These interpretations create expectations, requiring employers to balance worker needs and interests to ensure both flexibility and fairness. Because i-deals are used to attract, retain, and motivate, are heterogeneous, and are negotiated, some individuals may have more idiosyncratic elements in their employment arrangements than others (Rousseau, et al., 2006).

When coworkers perceive there to be an unfair bias in the distribution of special employment conditions, cooperation and trust are undermined. From the worker's perspective, an i-deal conveys his/her value to the employer. However to the coworker, knowledge of someone *receiving* that i-deal can "signal their standing in the eyes of authority figures and/or the flexibility and supportiveness with which that employer treats its workers" (Rousseau, et al., 2006, p. 979). This influences perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), which is when employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being. According to Eisenberger, et al. (1986),

perceived organizational support strengthens employees' effort-outcome expectancy and affective attachment to the organization, resulting in greater efforts to fulfill the organization's goals.

Based on social exchange theory and norm of reciprocity, the employee feels obligated to repay 'good with good'. However if an employee who is embedded feels stuck and deems the i-deals received by others to be unfair, that employee may interpret the situation as low organizational support.

According to equity theory (Adams, 1965), individuals gauge fairness by assessing their ratio of inputs (contributions relevant to the exchange) to outcomes (receipts from the exchange) to the same ratio of others. A situation is perceived to be fair when the individual's own ratio is equal to that of the comparative other. In the case of i-deals, if a worker is either not able to negotiate an i-deal or perceives another's i-deals to be better than their own, the worker will perceive the situation as inequitable. Workers may seek to restore equity by decreasing their inputs (i.e. productivity or effort), which in turn decreases performance. As such, it is suggested that:

> Hypothesis 8: Perceived distributive fairness [of i-deals] will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and task performance such that the relationship will weaken as perceptions of fairness decrease.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURES

Participants for this study were recruited from a mid-sized manufacturer of home communities and RVs with operations in eighteen states throughout the Midwest and Southeast portions of the United States. The company employs one thousand full-time, part-time, and seasonal workers. Approximately 600 of these workers are full-time and served as the target population for this study. An online survey obtaining self-report measures of organizational commitment, job embeddedness, conscientiousness, negative affectivity, social exchange relationships, economic exchange relationships, and distributive fairness was administered to subordinates. A separate online survey was administered to supervisors who rated their subordinate's task performance, contextual performance (on two dimensions), and counterproductive behavior.

To verify the design and settings of both the subordinate and supervisor surveys, a pilot test was conducted with participants from a small architecture firm. Open ended questions assessing the clarity and ease of answering survey questions, survey length, and appropriateness of answer choices were provided at the end of the survey. Participants were not forewarned of the purpose of the open-ended questions, allowing them to provide initial reactions to what they had just experienced. Pilot test feedback was incorporated into the final version of the surveys.

In addition to conducting a pilot test of the subordinate and supervisor surveys, scholars with subject-matter expertise were asked to examine the design and content of both surveys. Consideration was given to scale points, scale design, supervisor effort, progress indication, and survey experience (e.g. save and continue, back button). Subject-matter expert feedback prompted several enhancements to the surveys. One such enhancement involved a design modification in the supervisor survey. With the objective of improving survey response rates, survey instructions would direct supervisors to list the name(s) of their subordinate(s). Through a unique sequencing in the survey logic, the number of subordinates entered would generate the same number of surveys presented to the supervisor. This adjustment, which was incorporated into the final release of the survey, proved useful as the number of subordinates per supervisor varied. For both the designer and the respondent, this modification introduced more control.

The tool used to create the online surveys also enabled specific controls during the distribution process. A system mailer was used to create a distribution list consisting of the available email addresses for the sample population. Through the system mailer, an email invitation was sent to subordinates and supervisors containing a custom survey link. The custom link permitted tracking of individual surveys in terms of start-stop time and submission status. As a result of the design modification made during the survey testing phase, supervisor invitations required only one survey link rather than multiple links (based on the number of direct reports). The email invitation explained the objective of the research project, highlighted the importance of their participation, stated the approximate completion time, and explained procedures for maintaining confidentiality. Additionally the invitation explained how data collected would be used

and provided contact information of the researcher and the Institutional Review Board, which regulates research activities involving human subjects at Kennesaw State University.

The system mailer also allowed for scheduled reminder messages and the inclusion of embedded data, which is extra information associated with a respondent. Reminder emails were designed to go only to those who had not completed a survey. To maintain respondent confidentiality during both the pilot test and final release of the surveys, random codes were assigned to each supervisor and were included as embedded data. These codes were then associated with the supervisor's subordinates, creating a numbering convention equivalent to the number of subordinates per supervisor.

As previously stated, research at Kennesaw State University that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of the Institutional Review Board (IRB, 2010). Prior to the start of data collection efforts, the Institutional Review Board approval request form and training certificate along with the consent documents and survey instruments for this study were submitted to the review board for review. Requisite approvals were received upon the initial review.

Data collection efforts occurred in two phases. During phase 1, the source company allowed eight days for initial survey distribution. Before survey invitations were sent, the company's Chief Operating Officer informed all full-time employees via email of the research project and associated survey. Beyond executive encouragement and support, no additional incentives were provided. Employees were given the choice to participate. Using the system mailer, two reminder emails were sent to the appropriate employees.

The company granted permission to leave the survey open after the expressed deadline. For phase 2, the source company allowed another eight-day window for survey distribution. Again, the Chief Operating Officer sent an email to all full-time employees encouraging those who had not yet participated in the survey to do so. A request was made by the company to send only one reminder message on the morning of the day in which it was communicated that survey access would end. Surveys remained open for an additional two weeks. Overall, both the subordinate and supervisor surveys were open for roughly two months with two different notification and follow-up periods separated by approximately one month.

Surveys were distributed to 501 subordinates. Reminder emails reiterated efforts to maintain confidentiality, the approximate time to complete the survey, and the last day to access the survey. Each reminder email included a custom link to the survey for convenience. Of the 501 subordinate surveys distributed, 318 (63% response rate) were returned. Complete subordinate data were available for 291 surveys (58% response rate).

For this sample, 174 supervisor surveys were distributed. Reminder emails reiterated the focus of the survey questions, efforts to maintain confidentiality, and the survey access deadline. Because there were concerns over supervisors' motivation to complete multiple surveys (based on the number of direct reports), reminder emails also reiterated the stop-start design (for convenience) and the approximate survey completion time per subordinate. A customized link to the survey was included for convenience. As well, clarification was provided concerning the receipt of both a supervisor survey and a separate subordinate survey, if they served both roles. Of the 174 supervisor surveys distributed, 116 (67% response rate) were returned.

In combination, 675 subordinate and supervisor surveys were distributed. Matching subordinate-supervisor pairs were returned for 121 subordinates (18% response rate). An initial screen of the data revealed three cases where only 19% of the employee data was present. As these cases contained well over 50% missing data, they were candidates for deletion and were therefore omitted (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). For three other cases, one value was missing from each case. The value was estimated by taking the mean of the variable and the case was retained in the data set. Two additional cases were omitted due to missing performance data, reducing the sample size to 116.

Outliers were systematically evaluated using procedures outlined by Hair, et al. (2010). To identify possible outliers, a box-plot diagram was created (Hair, et al., 2010) that included 9 independent variables and 5 dependent variables. Observations that appeared beyond the whiskers of each box-plot were deemed outliers and thus potential candidates for deletion. As seen in Figure 2, eight outliers were shown to have at least 2 occurrences. Of the eight, 2 outliers had 4 occurrences each and 4 outliers had 3 occurrences. So as to not risk distorting the data, the decision was made by the author to delete the 2 cases with 4 occurrences, leaving an N of 114. The Mahalanobis D^2 measure was used for confirmation. Using this test to identify cases with a value greater than 2.5 for smaller samples (Hair, et al., 2010), a third outlier was identified and deleted. Thus the final sample size for this study was 113, representing a response rate of 17%.

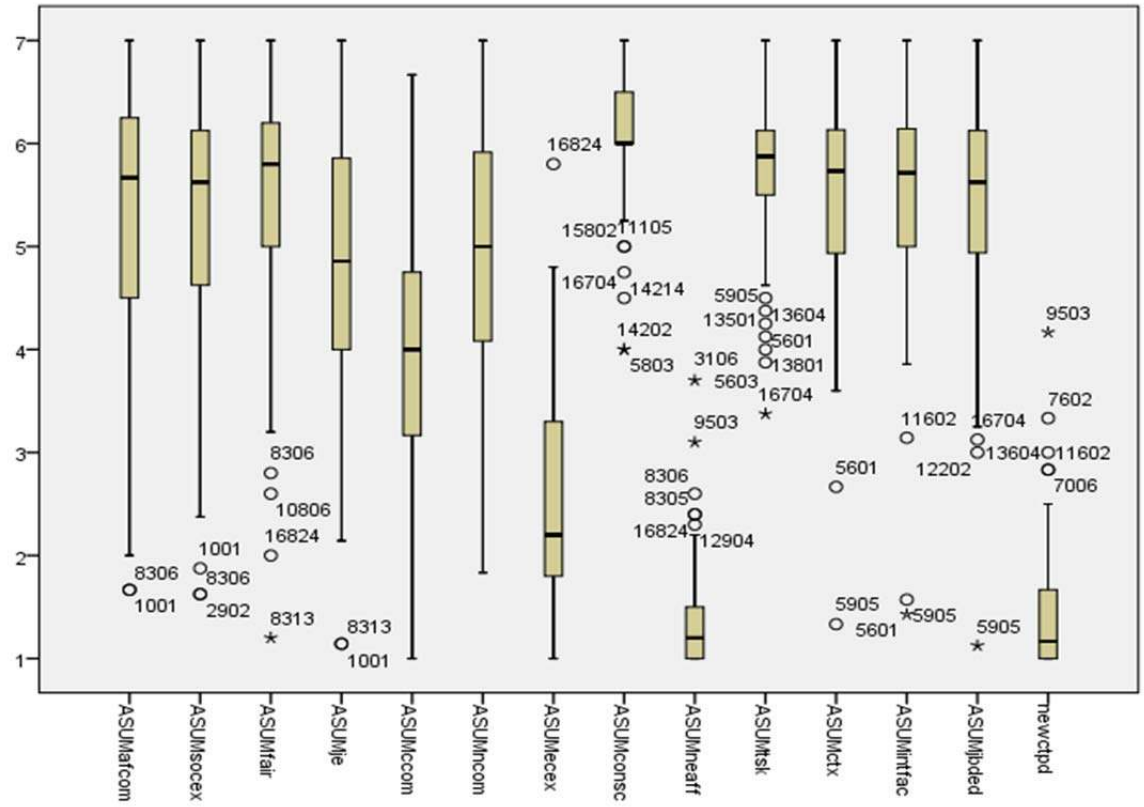

Figure 2. Box-plot graph depicting outliers.

The average age of the respondents in the sample was 44.7 (*SD* = 11.2). Seventy-two percent were women. The average tenure was 5.9 years (*SD* = 4.4). In terms of ethnicity, 87% identified themselves as Caucasian.

Forty-three percent of the supervisors who responded were men. The average age of these supervisors was 45.7 (*SD* = 12.1) with the average tenure being 7.1 years (*SD* = 5.2).

Ninety-seven percent of the supervisors identified themselves as Caucasian.

Within the final sample, the average age of respondents was 44.8 (*SD* = 11.3). Eighty-nine percent identified themselves as Caucasian. Seventy-four percent were women with an average tenure of 5.8 years (*SD* = 4.3).

Given that the data collection procedures for this study involved online surveys, random sampling was not possible. Therefore, a statistical comparison between the final subordinate sample and the subordinates with non-responsive supervisors was conducted to assess the presence of selection bias. Table 1 reports the means and standard deviations for both populations. Independent sample t-tests were conducted for each of the nine independent variables in order to compare the means of the 121 subordinates in the final sample with those of the 170 subordinates whose supervisor did not respond to the survey.

Table 1
Group Means for the Variables of Interest

Variables	Group	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Job Embeddedness	Response[a]	118	4.79	1.29
	Nonresponse[b]	164	4.92	1.12
Affective Commitment	Response	118	5.24	1.25
	Nonresponse	168	5.51	1.00
Normative Commitment	Response	116	4.83	1.18
	Nonresponse	164	5.00	1.09
Continuance Commitment	Response	118	3.83	1.88
	Nonresponse	165	3.12	8.19
Social Exchange	Response	118	5.27	1.22
	Nonresponse	168	5.20	2.49
Distributive Fairness	Response	118	5.50	1.07
	Nonresponse	169	5.02	8.09
Economic Exchange	Response	116	2.37	2.22
	Nonresponse	165	1.78	8.12
Conscientiousness	Response	116	6.14	.59
	Nonresponse	165	5.39	8.20
Negative Affectivity	Response	116	1.35	.45
	Nonresponse	165	.79	7.83
Age	Response	111	44.81	11.32
	Nonresponse	161	43.08	12.22
Tenure	Response	84	5.83	4.31
	Nonresponse	127	5.42	4.98

[a] Final subordinate sample; Supervisor responded to survey
[b] Subordinates whose supervisor did not respond to survey

A significant difference in the means of the two populations was found for affective commitment. Table 2 reports the results of the t-tests, showing the significant effect for affective commitment, $t(284) = -2.01$, $p < .05$, where on average, the final sample rated affective commitment lower than those whose supervisor did not respond to the survey. Demographic and background comparisons indicated the average age of those with non-responsive supervisors to be 43.0 ($SD = 12.2$), with an average tenure of 5.4 ($SD = 4.9$) years. Ninety percent identified themselves as Caucasian and 71% were women. Though t-test results for affective commitment were found to be significant for subordinates with non-responsive supervisors, there is no reason to explain why these individuals would have any bias, as their responses were not based on supervisor participation. Thus overall findings suggest that non-response bias did not occur. The final sample was therefore an adequate representation of the overall population surveyed.

Table 2
Results of Independent Sample T-test

Variables	T Statistic (t)	Degrees of Freedom (df)	Significance (p)
Job Embeddedness	-.86	280	.38
Affective Commitment	-2.01	284	.04*
Normative Commitment	-1.24	278	.21
Continuance Commitment	.92	281	.35
Social Exchange	.30	284	.76
Distributive Fairness	.64	285	.52
Economic Exchange	.76	279	.44
Conscientiousness	.98	279	.32
Negative Affectivity	.77	279	.43
Age	1.18	270	.23
Tenure	.61	209	.54

*$p < .05$.

MEASURES

Job Embeddedness. One objective of this study is to ascertain the conditions under which JE might have a detrimental effect on performance. The global measure of JE (Crossley, et al., 2007) was therefore used, as it is believed to be a more accurate reflection of overall perceptions of being stuck in an organization. Employees rated their level of embeddedness using 7 items (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) developed by Crossley, et al., (2007). Sample items include, "I feel tied to this organization" and "I am too caught up in this organization to leave". Cronbach's alpha of this measure was .91.

In the Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol 96(6), November 2011, Crossley and colleagues published the following clarification:

> "Critical to job embeddedness theory and measures, this construct is designed to capture both organization and community factors that work together to embed or enmesh people in their current job and organization. Although we used instructions that ensured participants would consider both work and nonwork factors, these instructions were unintentionally omitted from the original published article. These instructions are included below, along with original items. Researchers are encouraged to use these instructions when using this scale.
> Instructions:
> After considering both work related (such as relationships, fit with job, benefits) and nonwork related factors (such as neighbors, hobbies, community perks), please rate your agreement with the statements below."

For this study, survey distribution was completed prior to publication of this clarification. Therefore the above stated instruction was not included on subordinate surveys. Instead, the following instructions were provided: "The statements below describe perceptions of organizational attachment. Use the following scale to indicate your level of agreement with each statement." Given the organizational focus of the global JE measure, it is believed that the omission of the intended instruction did not

interfere with results found in this study, as the instruction mentions aspects outside of the workplace.

Organizational Commitment. Continuance commitment and normative commitment were assessed using 12 items (6 items per dimension) from Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) 18-item measure of organizational commitment. Sample continuance commitment items include "I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization" and "right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire". Sample items for normative commitment include "this organization deserves my loyalty" and "I would feel guilty if I left my organization now". Internal reliability coefficients for the 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) were .78 and .87 respectively.

Conscientiousness. Five adjectives from Saucier (1994), which were adapted from Goldberg's Unipolar Big-Five Markers (Goldberg, 1992), were used to measure conscientiousness. Goldberg (1992) developed a set of 100 adjective markers for the Big-Five factor structure. Saucier (1994) developed a subset of 40 adjectives, called mini-markers to measure the Big-Five personality factors. Five of those adjectives or markers pertain to conscientiousness, including "practical" and "organized". Participants were asked to use a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) to rate the extent to which each personality trait applied to them. For this study, Cronbach's alpha of this measure was .84.

Negative Affectivity. The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) was selected to assess negative affectivity. The schedule includes a 10-item mood scale designed to measure negative affect.

Mood descriptors include “distressed”, “upset”, and “irritable”. Participants were asked to use a 5-point scale (1 = very slightly or not at all; 5 = extremely) to indicate the extent to which they generally feel as described by the emotions and feelings listed. The internal reliability coefficient was .87

Exchange Relationship. Participants rated their perception of their employment relationship using an 8-item social exchange measure and a 5-item economic exchange measure (Shore, Tetrick, Lynch, & Barksdale, 2006). Sample social exchange items include “my relationship with my organization is based on mutual trust” and “my organization has made a significant investment in me”. Sample economic exchange items include “I do what my organization requires simply because they pay me” and “I watch very carefully what I get from my organization, relative to what I contribute”. Scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) reliabilities were .93 and .84 respectively.

Distributive Fairness. The 5-item measure of distributive fairness developed by Niehoff and Moorman (1993) was adapted to reflect perceptions of i-deal fairness. The original measure assessed fairness of work outcomes such as pay, work schedule, work load, and job responsibilities. In this study, a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) measured perceptions of fairness related to work schedule and work flexibility as well as career development, skill development, and training opportunities. Cronbach’s alpha of this measure was .86.

Counterproductive Behavior. A six-item measure was used to assess counterproductive behavior based on Bennett and Robinson’s (2000) original scale which was developed to measure deviant behavior directed toward the organization.

Because the sample used in the current study included salaried/professional workers, it was more appropriate to use items that focused on work behaviors consistent with the response to being stuck rather than items focusing on activities such as overtime, theft, littering, or drug use. Therefore, Bennett and Robinson's (2000) original measure was modified to include only 6 items. Using a 7-point scale (1 = never; 7 = daily), supervisors rated how often their subordinates engaged in organization-directed counterproductive work behaviors. Sample items include "put little effort into their work" and "intentionally worked slower than he/she could have worked". The internal reliability coefficient was .74.

Contextual Performance. The 15-item measure developed by Van Scotter, Motowidlo, and Cross (2000) was used to measure contextual performance on two dimensions: interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Using a 7-point scale (1 = very ineffective; 7 = very effective), supervisors were asked to rate their subordinates' effectiveness in displaying interpersonal and motivational behaviors. Sample items for interpersonal facilitation include "praise coworkers when they are successful" and "support or encourage a coworker with a personal problem". Sample job dedication items include "put in extra hours to get work done on time" and "work harder than necessary". Calculated separately, the internal reliability coefficient for each dimension of contextual performance was .93.

Task Performance. An 8-item measure developed by Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) was used to measure task performance. Using a 7-point scale (1 = very ineffective; 7 = very effective), supervisors were asked to rate their subordinates' effectiveness in displaying job-specific tasks. Sample items include "complying with

organizational rules and procedures" and "performing technical aspects of the job". For this study, Cronbach's alpha of this measure was .92.

Control Variables. To account for alternative explanations in the findings, demographic and background information pertaining to gender, ethnicity, job level, age, and tenure were used as control variables. Gender was measured as a dichotomous variable (1 = male; 0 = female). Ethnicity was measured as a categorical variable comprised of the following groups: African American/Black; American Indian/Alaska Native; Asian/Pacific Islander; Caucasian/White; and Hispanic/Latino. Job level was also measured as a categorical variable and included the following: Director/Manager/Supervisor; Professional (salaried, non-management); Technical (hourly); Sales Representative; Administrative Support; Group Leader; and Customer Service. Age and tenure were each measured with one fill-in-the blank item assessing actual age and number of years with the current organization.

Following prior research from Lee, et al.(2004) which assessed the dimensions of job embeddedness and performance, affective commitment was measured and controlled for to account for possible overlap with job embeddedness. Practical reasoning would suggest that commitment based on wanting to stay with an organization would not contribute to feelings of being stuck in an organization, which is what this study is designed to measure. Six items from Meyer, Allen, and Smith's (1993) 18-item scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree) were used to measure affective commitment. Sample items include "I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization" and "I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own". Cronbach's alpha of this measure was .88.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

DATA DESCRIPTION

Descriptive statistics for each measure are displayed in Table 3. Table 4 presents associated correlations for all variables in this study. As expected, job embeddedness was correlated with both affective commitment and normative commitment indicating the complementary nature of both constructs, an observation supported by factor analysis results of the current study. These high correlations were also consistent with those presented in Crossley, et al. (2007). Contrary to prior research (Crossley, et al., 2007); the global measure of job embeddedness was also correlated with continuance commitment. However the correlation between JE and continuance commitment was smaller relative to the correlations between JE and the other dimensions of organizational commitment. Due to the relational/attachment nature of the independent variables of interest, job embeddedness was also correlated with social exchange and distributive fairness; again consistent with factor analysis results. Negative affectivity was negatively correlated with normative commitment, social exchange, and distributive fairness and positively correlated with continuance commitment and economic exchange.

Economic exchange was negatively correlated with social exchange as expected. Economic exchange was also negatively correlated with other attachment variables, namely affective commitment, normative commitment, and job embeddedness. The positive correlation between economic exchange and continuance commitment speaks to the nature of the continuance commitment variable as being need-based.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics for the Variables of Interest

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Job Embeddedness	4.86	1.23	1	7
Continuance Commitment	3.97	1.10	1	7
Normative Commitment	4.89	1.12	2	7
Social Exchange	5.33	1.16	2	7
Economic Exchange	2.52	1.03	1	5
Distributive Fairness	5.55	1.01	1	7
Conscientiousness	6.12	.58	4	7
Negative Affectivity	1.34	.43	1	4
Task Performance	5.83	.71	3	7
Counterproductive Behavior	1.37	.56	1	4
Contextual Performance	5.52	.85	3	7
Interpersonal Facilitation	5.56	.93	1	7
Job Dedication	5.48	.93	3	7
Affective Commitment	5.30	1.19	2	7
Age	44.48	11.33	23	68
Tenure	5.85	4.38	0	18

This implies a difference in the underlying motive for the commitment when compared to the other dimensions of organizational commitment. The correlation between continuance commitment and negative affectivity also speaks to the negative underpinnings of continuance commitment.

Given the degree of correlation that exists between the independent variables, the effects of possible collinearity were considered. According to Hair et al. (2010, pp. 200, 205), bivariate correlations of .90 and higher are an indication of substantial collinearity, though correlations as low as .70 may indicate problems with collinearity as well. As seen in Table 2, correlations upward of .76 occurred between the independent variables. However given the small number of these occurrences (4) and the generally low correlations between variables, collinearity was determined not to be an issue. To further evaluate relationships between the variables, tolerance measures were used to assess

multicollinearity. Tolerance values of .10 and lower indicate multicollinearity (Hair, et al., 2010, p. 204). With tolerance values ranging between .76 and .95, multicollinearity was deemed not to be a problem in this study.

In contrast to previous research (Lee, et al., 2004) job embeddedness was not correlated with task performance or contextual performance. Task performance was also not correlated with conscientiousness. All performance measures correlated appropriately with one another. Counterproductive behavior was negatively correlated with task performance, overall contextual performance, and both dimensions of contextual performance. Positive correlations occurred between task performance, overall contextual performance, and the dimensions of contextual performance.

Table 4

Correlations among the Variables of Interest

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1	Global Job Embeddedness																		
2	Continuance Commitment	.19*																	
3	Normative Commitment	.76*	.11																
4	Social Exchange	.73**	-.15	.69**															
5	Economic Exchange	-.48**	.31**	-.50**	-.60**														
6	Distributive Fairness	.61**	-.07	.58**	.75**	-.45**													
7	Conscientiousness	.09	-.02	.06	.05	-.08	.24**												
8	Negative Affectivity	-.15	.19*	-.24**	-.29**	.19*	-.29**	-.09											
9	Task Performance	-.01	-.05	-.07	.03	-.01	.01	.11	-.10										
10	Counterproductive Behavior	.01	.05	.03	-.12	.08	-.04	.08	.21*	-.30**									
11	Contextual Performance	.04	-.08	.00	.10	-.16	.06	.05	-.10	.62**	-.40**								
12	Interpersonal Facilitation	.04	-.04	.03	.11	-.14	.09	-.02	-.07	.42**	-.25**	.90**							
13	Job Dedication	.03	-.11	-.02	.08	-.16	.01	.11	-.11	.70**	-.48**	.92**	.68**						
14	Affective Commitment	.75**	-.15	.54**	.76**	-.53**	.66**	.15	-.29**	.01	-.06	.03	-.00	.06					
15	Gender	-.10	.04	.01	-.10	.13	-.13	.18	.07	-.00	.01	-.11	-.13	-.08	-.12				
16	Age	-.05	.03	-.06	-.10	-.08	-.09	.06	-.02	.02	-.13	.09	.11	.06	-.12	.07			
17	Ethnicity	-.11	.03	.01	-.09	.12	-.13	.18*	.07	.00	.00	-.10	-.12	-.06	-.11	.99**	-.06		
18	Job Level	-.11	.03	.01	-.09	.11	-.13	.17	.07	-.01	-.00	-.11	-.13	-.07	-.12	.99**	.04	.99**	
19	Tenure	.08	-.07	.07	.08	-.07	.07	.19	-.10	.16	-.12	.08	.01	.14	.11	-.00	.22*	-.00	.00

n = 113. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$.

Factor Analysis

To understand the structure of the data, separate exploratory factor analyses were conducted for the independent and dependent variables. A statistically significant Bartlett test coupled with measure of sampling adequacy values above .5 (Hair, et al., 2010) confirmed the appropriateness of factor analysis. Independent variables were factor analyzed using principal components analysis with varimax rotation, resulting in an 11-factor solution with eigenvalues greater than 1. Total variance explained was 73%. Given a sample size of 113, loadings of .55 or higher were considered significant (Hair, et al., 2010, p. 117). Coefficients less than .3 were suppressed. The 11-factor solution included four variables that shared a factor with other variables and therefore did not provide an ideal summary of the relationships. Theoretically, since the current study contains nine independent variables, a solution specifying 9 factors would be appropriate. To confirm this assumption, a scree test was used to identify the optimum number of factors to be extracted. As shown in Figure 3, the bend in the curve begins at factor 7, indicating the possibility of a 7-11 factor solution with eigenvalues above 1. According to Hair, et al (2010), the scree test may result in 1-3 more factors being considered for inclusion than the eigenvalue suggests. Therefore the independent variables were factor-analyzed specifying 7-11 possible factors. The resulting analyses indicated a 9-factor solution to provide the most acceptable representation of the variables. Total variance explained was 69%.

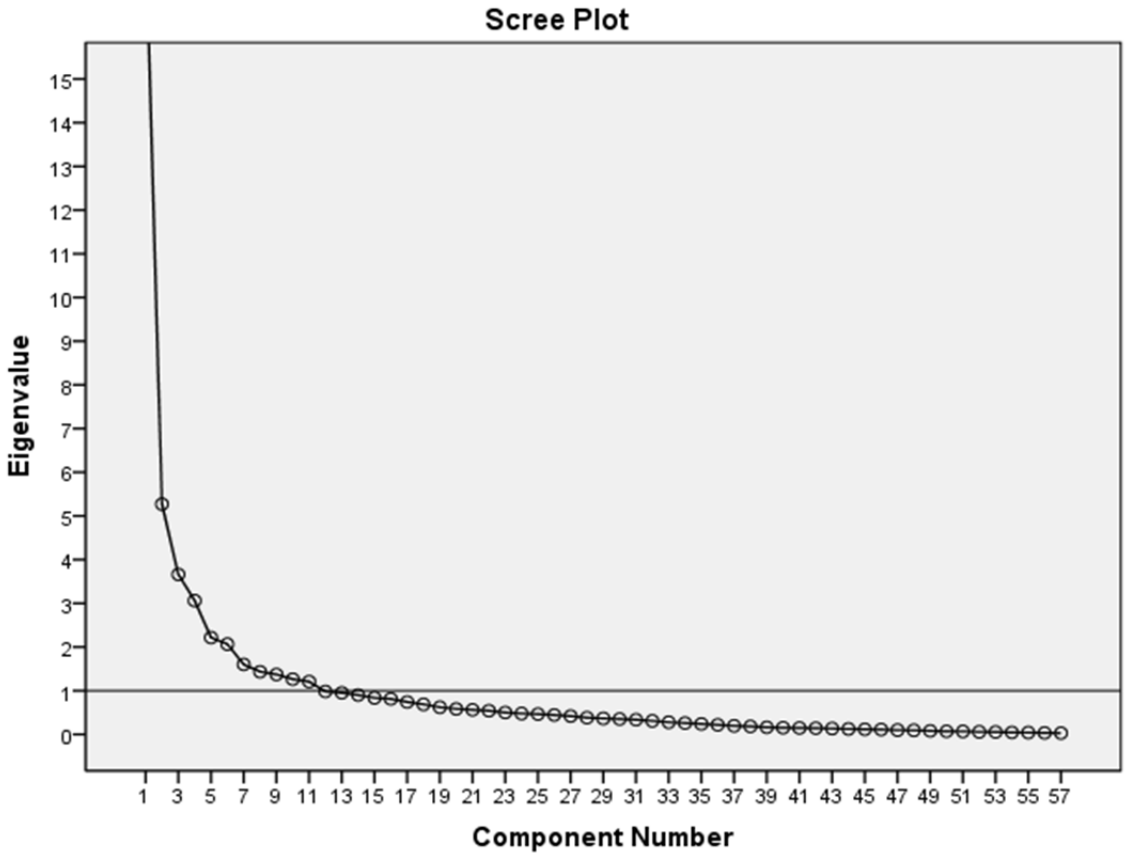

Figure 3. Independent variable scree test.

Table 5 presents the results of the analysis. Conscientiousness and negative affectivity loaded on distinct factors, suggesting discriminant validity. Job embeddedness, social exchange, and distributive fairness shared a common factor, indicating low specificity and high convergence. Social exchange and distributive fairness each loaded on two factors, while job embeddedness and negative affectivity both loaded on three factors. The three dimensions of organizational commitment each loaded on a separate factor. Contrasting Crossley, et al.'s (2007) factor analysis results, job embeddedness and affective commitment did not load on separate factors.

Several possible explanations exist for the cross-loadings that resulted from the factor analysis. As it relates to job embeddedness, one item (JE5) shared a factor with one continuance commitment item (CC5). This may be related to the placement of questions on the survey, as JE5 came after CC5. One job embeddedness item (JE6) also shared a factor with one social exchange item (SE7). In addition to the constructs being significantly correlated (.73), it is possible that SE7 (related to organizational investment) was seen as the reason for JE6 (cannot leave). One normative commitment item (NC1) loaded on the same factor as job embeddedness, social exchange, and affective commitment. NC1 reads, "I owe a great deal to my organization." Perhaps this is the reason one may want to stay with the organization (AC), is connected to the organization (JE), and feels a sense of reciprocity (SE).

Related to constructs that did not involve job embeddedness, economic exchange was significantly correlated with continuance commitment (.31). Perhaps these two constructs loaded on the same factor because economic exchange provided the reason for continuance commitment. Normative commitment was significantly correlated with distributive fairness (.58). Perhaps respondent perceptions of fairness are what caused perceptions of normative commitment. Finally, negative affectivity loaded on three factors. According to Watson, et al. (1988), the 10 items contained in the negative affectivity measure may be divided into 5 triads: distressed, angry, fearful, guilty, and jittery. It is possible that negative affectivity loaded appropriately given the original dimensionality of the construct. As shown in Table 5, NA1 and 2 represent the 'fearful' triad, NA3 and 4 represent the distressed triad, and NA7 and 8 represent the guilty triad.

So although research has continued to use negative affectivity as a single-item measure, original authors divided the measure.

In sum, the factor analyzed solution for the independent variables did not establish discriminate validity between job embeddedness, social exchange, and affective commitment. Given that the measures in the current study were well-established and had been used in previous empirical research, job embeddedness, social exchange, and affective commitment were deemed appropriate for hypothesis testing and were therefore used as conceptualized.

Table 5

Results from Exploratory Factor Analysis of Independent Variables

	Factor								
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
JE1	.84								
JE2	.83								
JE3	.57								
JE4	.77								
JE5				.52					
JE6			.51						
JE7	.55								
AC1	.70								
AC2	.53								
AC3	.78								
AC4	.82								
AC5	.82								
AC6	.81								
CC1				.35					
CC2				.73					
CC3				.78					
CC4				.79					
CC5				.60					
CC6				.51					
NC1	.43								
NC2		.65							
NC3		.73							
NC4		.62							
NC5		.52							
NC6		.78							
SE1	.59								
SE2	.59								
SE3	.58								
SE4	.64								
SE5	.57								
SE6	.72								
SE7			.65						
SE8	.56								
EE1		-.45							
EE2				-.64					
EE3				-.68					
EE4				-.68					
EE5				-.77					
Fair1	.44								
Fair2	.61								
Fair3		.55							
Fair4		.79							
Fair5		.79							

Table 5, cont'd

	Factor								
Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Cons1							.82		
Cons2							.85		
Cons3							.76		
Cons4							.78		
NA1									.82
NA2									.82
NA3								.79	
NA4								.76	
NA5						.61			
NA6						.64			
NA7						.76			
NA8						.67			
NA9								.67	
NA10						.69			

Note: Values less than .30 are not displayed. JE = global job embeddedness; AC = affective commitment; CC = continuance commitment; NC = normative commitment; SE = social exchange; EE = economic exchange; Fair = distributive fairness; Cons = conscientiousness; NA = negative affectivity.

Dependent variables were factor analyzed in the same fashion as the independent variables. The resulting 5-factor solution included two variables that loaded on multiple factors and therefore did not provide an ideal summary of the relationships or representation of the variables. Since the current study uses established measures for the dependent variables, conceptually a factor analysis would include one factor for each measure (totaling four factors). To confirm this assumption, a scree test was used to identify the optimum number of factors to be extracted. As shown in Figure 4, the curve indicates 4 factors to be appropriate. Therefore the dependent variables were factor analyzed, specifying a 4-factor solution. Total variance explained was 66%.

Table 6 presents results of the analysis. Counterproductive behavior loaded primarily on factor 4, with one negative loading on factor 3. This negative loading (-.40)

falls below the .55 threshold for a sample size of 113 and is not considered significant. The interpersonal facilitation dimension of contextual performance loaded distinctly on factor 2. The job dedication dimension of contextual performance loaded primarily on factor 3, with one loading on factor 1. Task performance loaded completely on factor 1.

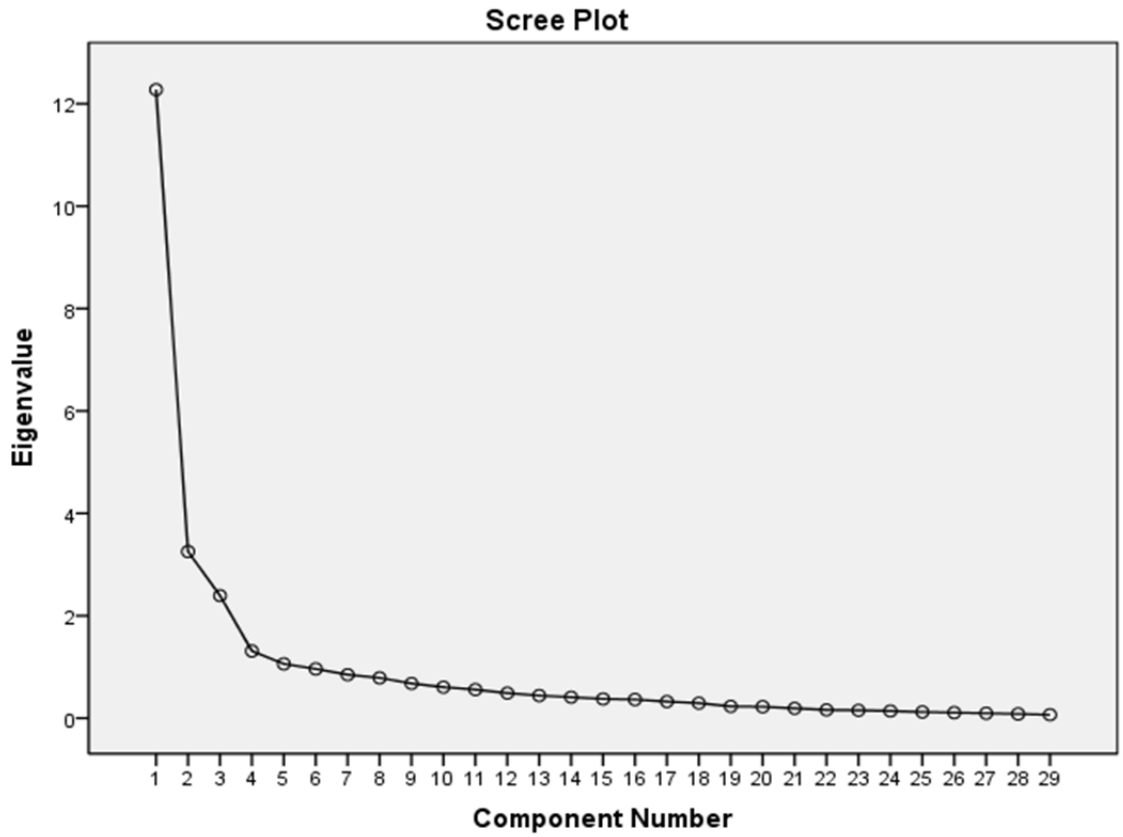

Figure 4. Dependent variable scree test

Though the factor solution produced two instances where more than one variable loaded on a factor, interpretation of the relationships revealed a representative solution. In the case of counterproductive behavior, item 6 ('neglects to follow instructions') is unique when compared to the remaining four items which focus on the withdrawal of effort. Moreover, item 6 loaded negatively on the same factor as job dedication. This relationship can be expected, as job dedication pertains to additional work effort.

In looking specifically at job dedication, item 2 ('pays close attention to details') loaded on the same factor as task performance. This relationship may be due to one's understanding of detail-orientation as a required component of task completion rather than additional effort.

Table 6
Results from Exploratory Factor Analysis of Dependent Variables

	Factor			
Item	1	2	3	4
CB1				.51
CB2				.80
CB3				.54
CB4				.66
CB5				.71
CB6			-.40	
IF1		.84		
IF2		.84		
IF3		.72		
IF4		.85		
IF5		.83		
IF6		.81		
IF7		.68		
JD1			.53	
JD2	.59			
JD3			.65	
JD4			.65	
JD5			.51	
JD6			.64	
JD7			.58	
JD8			.66	
TP1	.58			
TP2	.81			
TP3	.85			
TP4	.73			
TP5	.83			
TP6	.84			
TP7	.82			
TP8	.68			

Note: Values less than .30 are not displayed.
CB = counterproductive behavior; IF = interpersonal facilitation; JD = job dedication; TP = task performance.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

To investigate predicted moderation effects, moderated hierarchical regression analysis (Cohen, 1983) was used to test the hypothesized interactions between job embeddedness and organizational commitment, conscientiousness, negative affectivity, exchange relationships, and distributive fairness. These interactions were regressed on task performance, counterproductive behavior, overall contextual performance, and the two dimensions of contextual performance; interpersonal facilitation and job dedication. Averaged composite variables were created. Hypotheses were tested through a three-step process. Control variables were entered first, followed by the main effects and then the relevant interaction terms. A significant change in R^2 from the main effects model to the interaction model provided an indication of possible moderating effects. Individual beta coefficients were examined to determine the presence of moderation.

Hypothesis 1 proposed that continuance commitment is positively related to counterproductive behavior. As indicated in Table 7, continuance commitment did not explain a portion of the variance in counterproductive behavior ($R^2 = .08$, $F(7, 73) = .898$, $p = .513$). Additionally, the standardized coefficient ($\beta = -.02$, $p = .838$) for the direct effect was not statistically significant. For this sample, continuance commitment did not predict counterproductive behavior. Hypothesis 1 was therefore not supported.

Table 7
Results of Simple Regression Analysis for Counterproductive Behavior

Variables	B	*SE*(B)	β	*t*	*p*
Gender	1.17	.91	.16	1.29	.20
Age	-.03	.03	-.13	-1.13	.26
Ethnicity	.14	.57	.03	.25	.80
Job level	-.59	.82	-.10	-.72	.47
Tenure	-.05	.09	-.06	-.54	.59
Affective commitment	-.14	.31	-.05	-.43	.67
Continuance Commitment	-.06	.31	-.02	-.21	.84

Total $R^2 = .08$
Adjusted $R^2 = -.01$
*$p < .05$.

Hypothesis 2 predicted the moderating effect of continuance commitment on the job embeddedness- contextual performance relationship. As continuance commitment increases the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance would decrease. As reported in Table 8, the results of model 4 did not indicate a statistically significant effect for the interaction of continuance commitment and job embeddedness on contextual performance (β = .01, p = .911). The interaction effects of continuance commitment were also regressed against interpersonal facilitation and job dedication, the two dimensions of contextual performance. As shown in Tables 9 and 10 respectively, no statistically significant effects were found for interpersonal facilitation (β = .02, p = .903) or job dedication (β = .01, p = .929). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 8

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Contextual Performance

Variables[b]	Contextual Performance									
	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Gender	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.05	-.05
Age	.10	.10	.11	.11	.10	.10	.12	.10	.08	.12
Ethnicity	.17	.17	.17	.17	.17	.17	.19*	.17	.17	.20*
Job level	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.02	-.01	.02	-.02	-.03	.02
Tenure	.08	.08	.07	.07	.08	.08	.04	.08	.08	.05
Affective commitment	-.03	-.06	-.15	-.15	-.06	-.06	.00	-.06	-.14	-.10
Job embeddendess		.04			.04			.04		
Job embeddedness			.14	.15		.13	.18		-.01	.03
Continuance commitment			-.16	-.15						
Normative commitment						-.11	-.11			
Economic exchange									-.22	-.19
Job embeddedness x continuance commitment				.01						
Job embeddedness x normative commitment							.23*			
Job embeddedness x economic exchange										-.23*
Total R^2	.05	.05	.07	.07	.05	.05	.09*	.05	.08	.13*
Change in R^2	.05	.00	.02	.00	.01	.00	.04*	.00	.03	.05*

[a] Standardized betas are reported.

[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.

*$p \leq .05$.

Table 9

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Interpersonal Facilitation

Variables[b]	Interpersonal Facilitation									
	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Gender	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.05	-.06	-.06	-.05	-.06	-.04	-.04
Age	.12	.12	.13	.13	.12	.12	.13	.12	.11	.14
Ethnicity	.10	.12	.12	.12	.12	.12	.14	.12	.12	.15
Job level	.01	.01	-.00	.00	-.01	.01	.03	.01	-.00	.04
Tenure	-.01	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.03	-.01	-.00	-.03
Affective commitment	-.07	-.20	-.30	-.30	-.20	-.21	-.16	-.20	-.26	-.22
Job embeddendess		.18			.18			.18		
Job embeddedness			.28	.29		.23	.26		.15	.18
Continuance commitment			-.15	-.15						
Normative commitment						-.06	-.06			
Economic exchange									-.15	-.13
Job embeddedness x continuance commitment				.02						
Job embeddedness x normative commitment							.17			
Job embeddedness x economic exchange										-.20*
Total R^2	.03	.05	.06	.06	.05	.05	.07	.05	.06	.10*
Change in R^2	.03	.01	.02	.00	.01	.00	.02	.01	.02	.04*

[a] Standardized betas are reported.

[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.

*$p < .05$.

Table 10

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Job Dedication

Variables[b]	Job Dedication									
	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Gender	-.09	-.08	-.08	-.08	-.08	-.09	-.09	-.08	-.05	-.05
Age	.07	.07	.08	.08	.07	.07	.09	.07	.05	.09
Ethnicity	.20*	.19*	.19*	.19*	.19*	.19*	.21*	.19*	.20*	.22*
Job level	-.03	-.03	-.04	-.04	-.03	-.03	.01	-.03	-.05	-.00
Tenure	.14	-.14	.13	.13	.14	.14	.10	.14	.14	.11
Affective commitment	.01	.08	-.00	-.00	.08	.07	.15	.08	-.01	.03
Job embeddendess		-.09			-.09			-.09		
Job embeddedness			.00	.00		.02	.08		-.15	-.11
Continuance commitment			-.14	-.14						
Normative commitment						-.14	-.14			
Economic exchange									-.25*	-.23*
Job embeddedness x continuance commitment				.01						
Job embeddedness x normative commitment							.25*			
Job embeddedness x economic exchange										-.23*
Total R^2	.07	.08	.09	.09	.08	.08	.13*	.08	.12	.16*
Change in R^2	.07	.00	.01	.00	.00	.01	.05*	.00	.04	.05*

[a] Standardized betas are reported.

[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.

*$p \leq .05$.

Hypothesis 3 predicted the moderating effect of continuance commitment on the relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior. As continuance commitment increases the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior would increase. As displayed in Table 11, the results of model 4 did not indicate a statistically significant effect for the interaction of continuance commitment and job embeddedness on counterproductive behavior ($\beta = .06$, $p = .653$). Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 suggested that normative commitment moderates the positive effect of job embeddedness on contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as normative commitment increases. As indicated in Table 8, a statistically significant effect was found for the interaction term of normative commitment and job embeddedness on contextual performance ($\beta = .23$, $p < .05$), providing initial support for hypothesis 4. The interaction effects of normative commitment were then regressed against the two dimensions of contextual performance. As shown in Table 9, a significant effect was not found between job embeddedness and normative commitment ($\beta = .17$, $p = .197$) for the interpersonal facilitation dimension. However as Table 10 shows, the results of the interaction between job embeddedness and normative commitment did produce a statistically significant effect when job dedication was used as the criterion ($\beta = .25$, $p < .05$), lending further support for hypothesis 4.

Table 11

Results of Moderated Regression Analyses for Counterproductive Behavior

Variables[b]	Counterproductive Behavior									
	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10
Gender	.16	.14	.15	.14	.14	.16	.14	.14	.14	.17
Age	-.13	-.14	-.13	-.13	-.14	-.16	-.15	-.14	-.12	-.10
Ethnicity	.03	.05	.05	.05	.05	.02	-.03	.05	.04	.07
Job level	-.09	-.09	-.10	-.09	-.09	-.05	-.07	-.09	-.10	-.04
Tenure	-.06	-.06	-.06	-.07	-.06	-.10	-.08	-.06	-.05	-.00
Affective commitment	-.05	-.18	-.24	-.23	-.18	-.24	-.27	-.18	-.06	-.17
Job embeddendess		.17			.17			.17		
Job embeddedness			.24	.25		.18	.22		.12	.22
Continuance commitment			-.10	-.09						
Conscientiousness						.22*	.16			
Negative Affectivity									.21*	.13
Job embeddedness x continuance commitment				.06						
Job embeddedness x conscientiousness							-.25*			
Job embeddedness x negative affectivity										-.33**
Total R^2	.08	.09	.10	.10	.09	.13	.19*	.09	.13	.22**
Change in R^2	.08	.01	.01	.00	.01	.04	.05*	.01	.04	.09**

[a] Standardized betas are reported.

[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.

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

Using the approach suggested by Aiken and West (1991), the nature of the interaction was illustrated by plotting separate regression lines (predicting job dedication) for participants who were ± 1 SD from the mean on job embeddedness and normative commitment. As illustrated in Figure 5, the form of interaction was slightly different than proposed. Those with high normative commitment who are also highly embedded appear to have more job dedication, whereas those with low normative commitment and high job embeddedness display less job dedication. A similar depiction was noted in the two-way interaction plot in Figure 6 predicting overall contextual performance. Thus the interaction was significant however the plot was in the opposite direction. Subsequent simple slope analyses found neither slope to be significant from 0 for job dedication or contextual performance, suggesting only a statistical difference in the two groups.

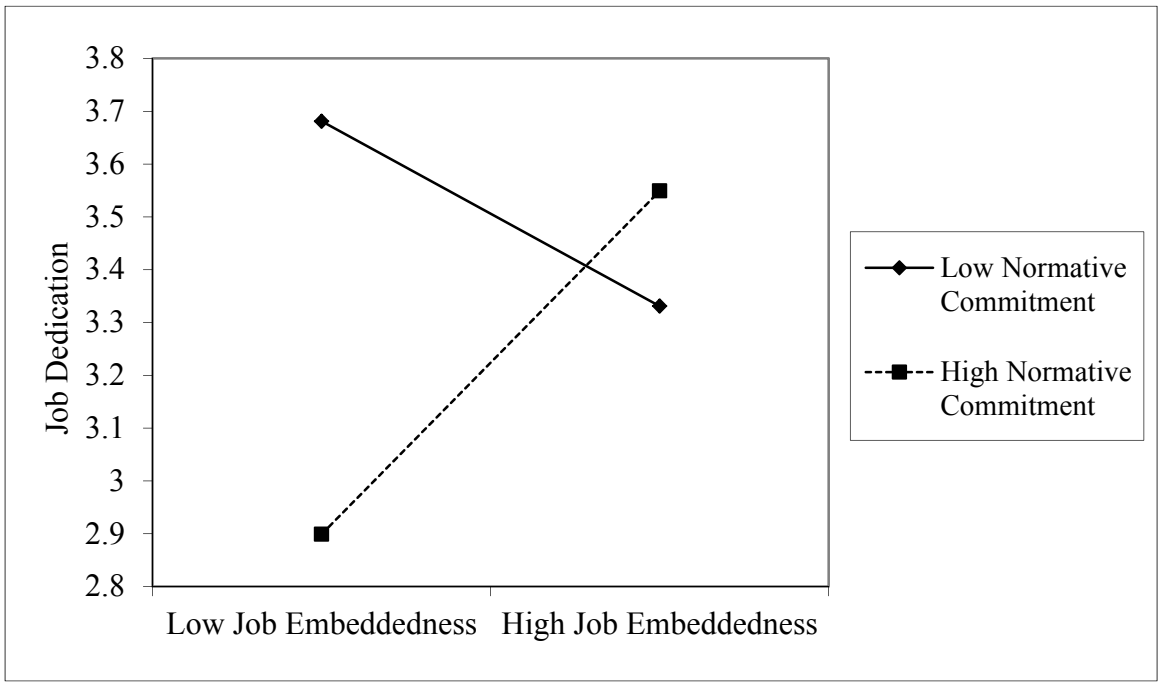

Figure 5. Interaction between normative commitment and job embeddedness on job dedication.

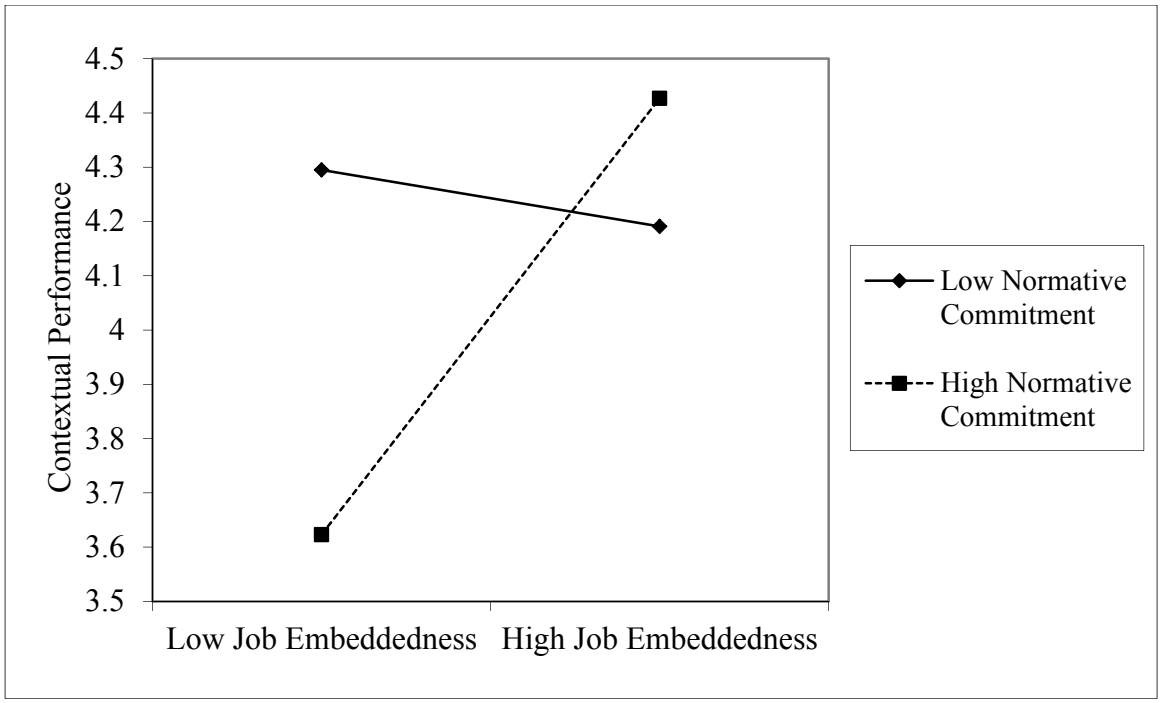

Figure 6. Interaction between normative commitment and job embeddedness on contextual performance.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that conscientiousness moderates the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior such that the relationship will become stronger as conscientiousness decreases. In Table 11, the results of model 7 show that the interaction between job embeddedness and conscientiousness was significantly related to counterproductive behavior ($\beta = -.25$, $p < .05$). The structure of the interaction was explained by plotting separate regression lines (predicting counterproductive behavior) for participants who were ± 1 SD from the mean on job embeddedness and conscientiousness. A subsequent simple slope analysis found the slope of the line for low conscientiousness to be significantly different from 0, suggesting a moderate interaction.

Figure 7 indicates that those who are highly embedded yet are low in conscientiousness, display more counterproductive behaviors than those who are high in conscientiousness. Thus, hypothesis 5 was supported.

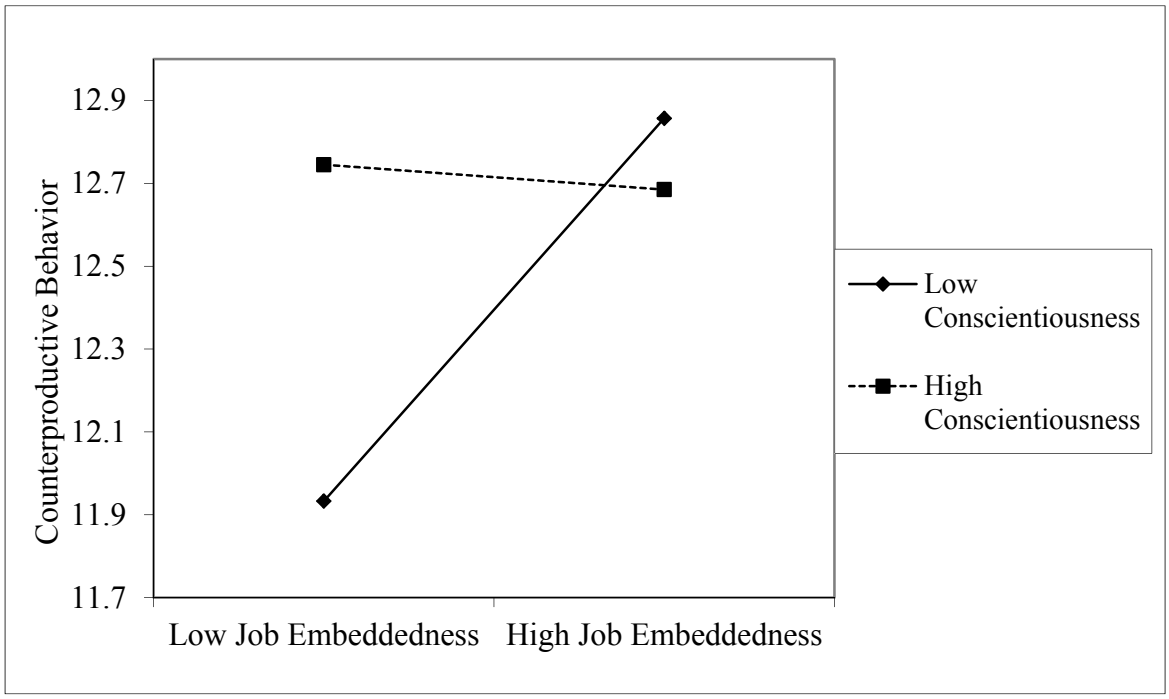

Figure 7. Interaction between conscientiousness and job embeddedness on counterproductive behavior.

Hypothesis 6 posited that the interaction between negative affectivity and job embeddedness will decrease counterproductive behavior as negative affectivity increases. As reported in Table 11, the standardized coefficient for model 10 was statistically significant, showing a negative interaction effect ($\beta = -.33$, $p < .05$). To understand how the interaction influences the relationship, regression lines (predicting counterproductive behavior) were plotted for respondents who were ± 1 SD from the mean on job embeddedness and negative affectivity.

Subsequent simple slope analyses found the slope of the line for both high NA and low NA to be significantly different from 0, suggesting a strong effect. As predicted, Figure 8 shows that those who are highly embedded yet exhibit high negative affectivity appear to demonstrate less counterproductive behavior. Those who are highly embedded with low negative affectivity appear to demonstrate more counterproductive behavior. Hypothesis 6 was therefore supported.

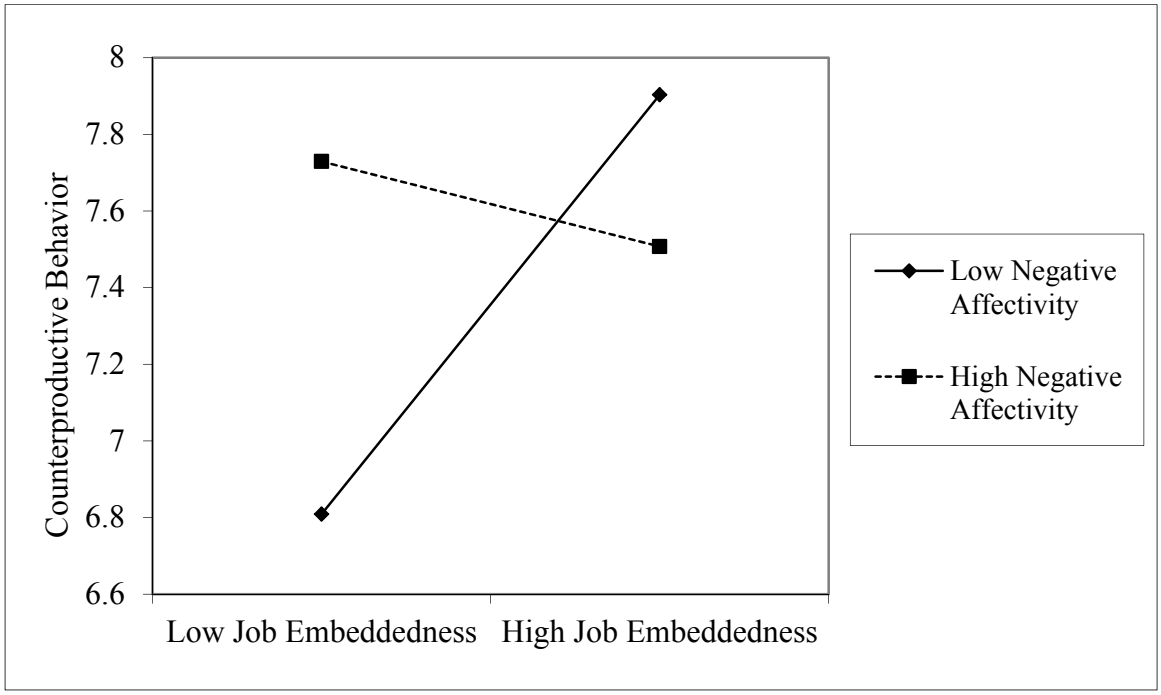

Figure 8. Interaction between negative affectivity and job embeddedness on counterproductive behavior.

Hypothesis 7 suggested that exchange relationship type will moderate the positive relation between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as economic exchange increases. As hypothesized, the standardized coefficient for model 10 in Table 8 was statistically significant ($\beta = -.23$, $p < .05$) showing a negative effect. The interaction effects of economic exchange were also

regressed against the two dimensions of contextual performance. The results in Table 10 show model 10 as statistically significant when job dedication (β = -.23, $p < .05$) was used as the criterion. In a one-tailed test of the interaction, a statistically significant effect was also found in model 10 for interpersonal facilitation (β = -.20, $p < .05$) as shown in Table 9.

To interpret the relationship, a two-way interaction was plotted predicting contextual performance and its dimensions. Figure 9 shows that those with high economic exchange relationships who are also highly embedded have lower contextual performance. As indicated in Figure 10, the same relationship was true of job dedication. As economic exchange and job embeddedness increase, job dedication decreases. Thus, hypothesis 7 was supported. A two-way plot predicting interpersonal facilitation shows a constant relationship between economic exchange and job embeddedness. That is, the level of interpersonal facilitation for those with high economic exchange relationships and high job embeddedness remains relatively flat, decreasing only slightly as illustrated in Figure 11. Subsequent simple slope analyses found neither slope to be significant from 0 for contextual performance. The slope of the line for high economic exchange on job dedication approached significance at .09. The slope of the line for low economic exchange on interpersonal facilitation approached significance at .09 as well.

In further analysis of exchange relationships, statistically significant interaction effects were revealed for social exchange. Specifically, social exchange was found to interact with job embeddedness to produce significant effects on contextual performance (β = .30, $p < .05$). Statistically significant effects were also found when the interaction

between job embeddedness and social exchange was regressed against job dedication (β = .33, $p < .05$). A one-tailed test of the interaction resulted in a statistically significant model for interpersonal facilitation (β = .22, $p < .05$).

Figure 9. Interaction between economic exchange and job embeddedness on contextual performance.

To determine how social exchange influences the relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance, a two-way interaction was plotted for respondents who were ± 1 SD from the mean on job embeddedness and social exchange. As Figure 12 illustrates, employees who are highly embedded, yet have low social exchange relationships appear to have lower contextual performance. As shown in Figures 13 and 14 respectively, a two-way interaction plot for job dedication and interpersonal facilitation revealed similar results to that of the overall contextual performance plot.

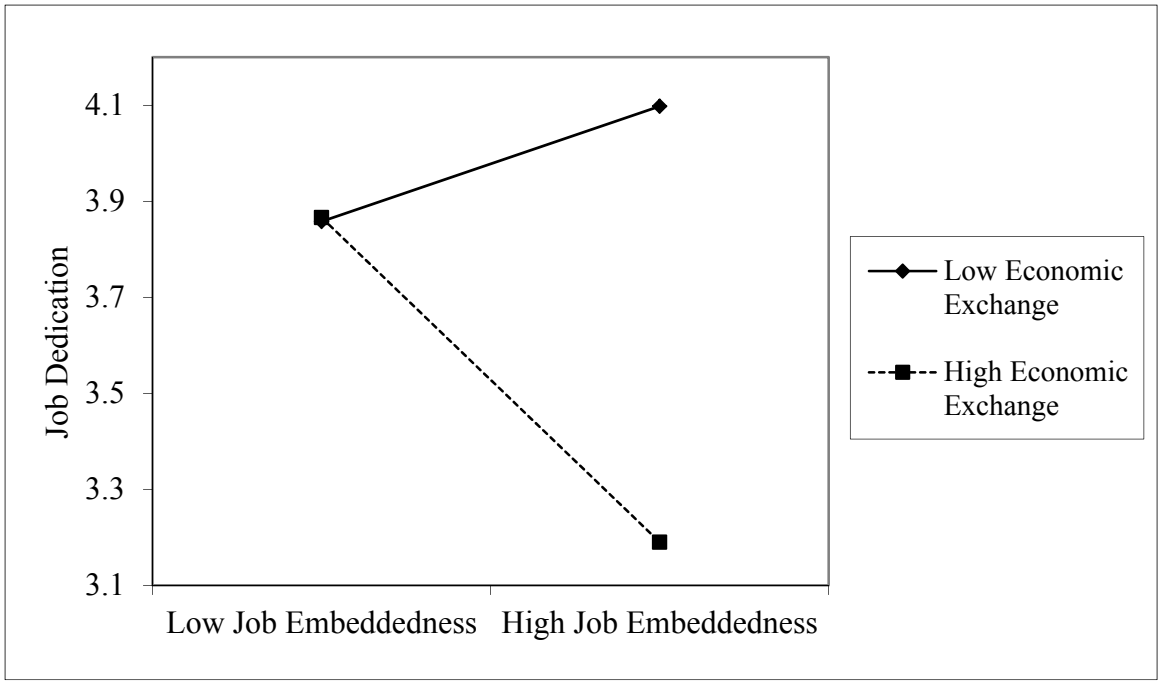

Figure 10. Interaction between economic exchange and job embeddedness on job dedication.

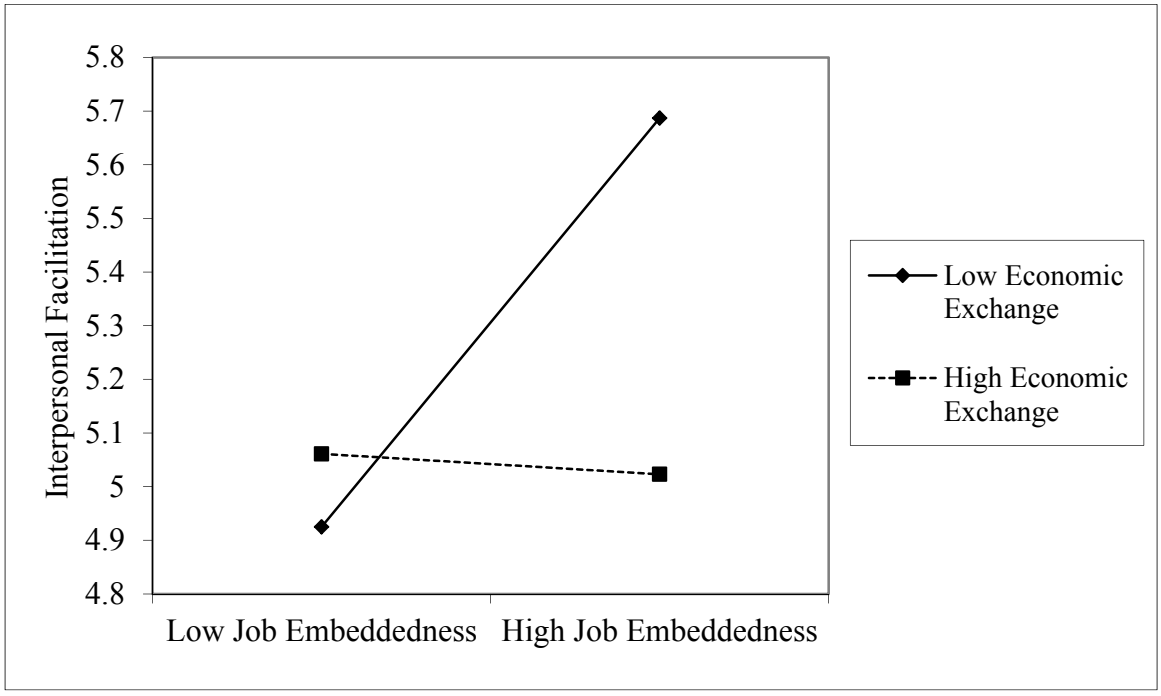

Figure 11. Interaction between economic exchange and job embeddedness on interpersonal facilitation.

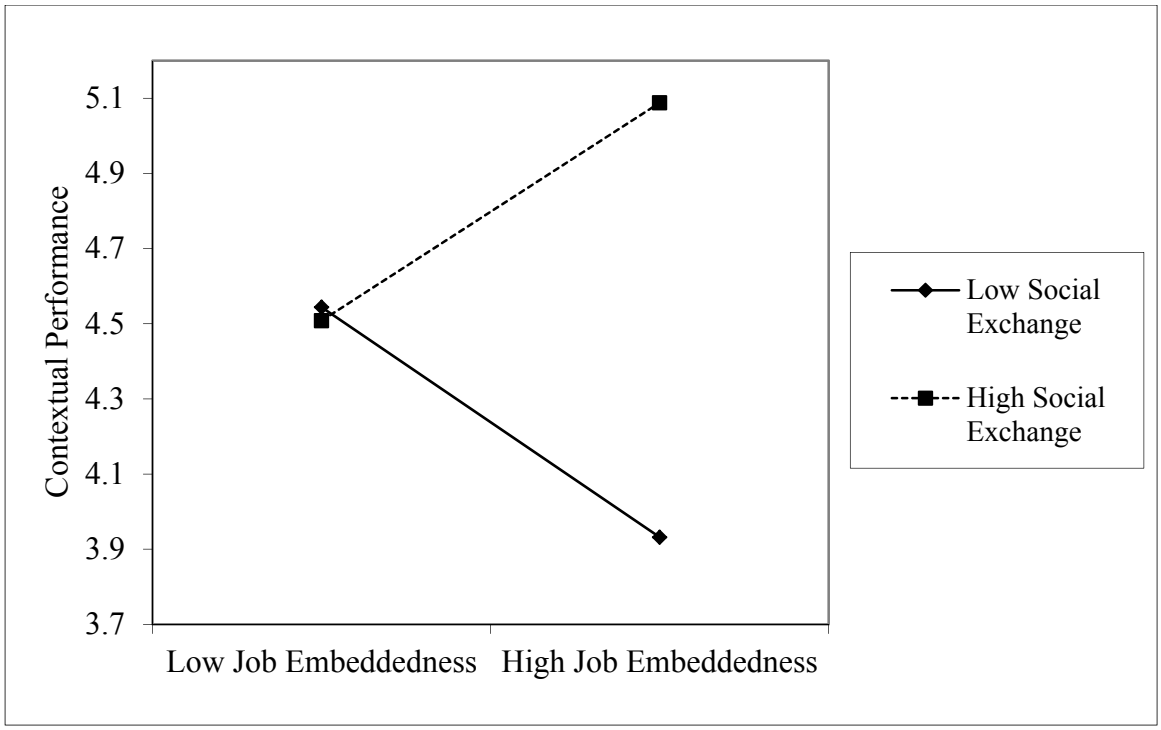

Figure 12. Interaction between social exchange and job embeddedness on contextual performance.

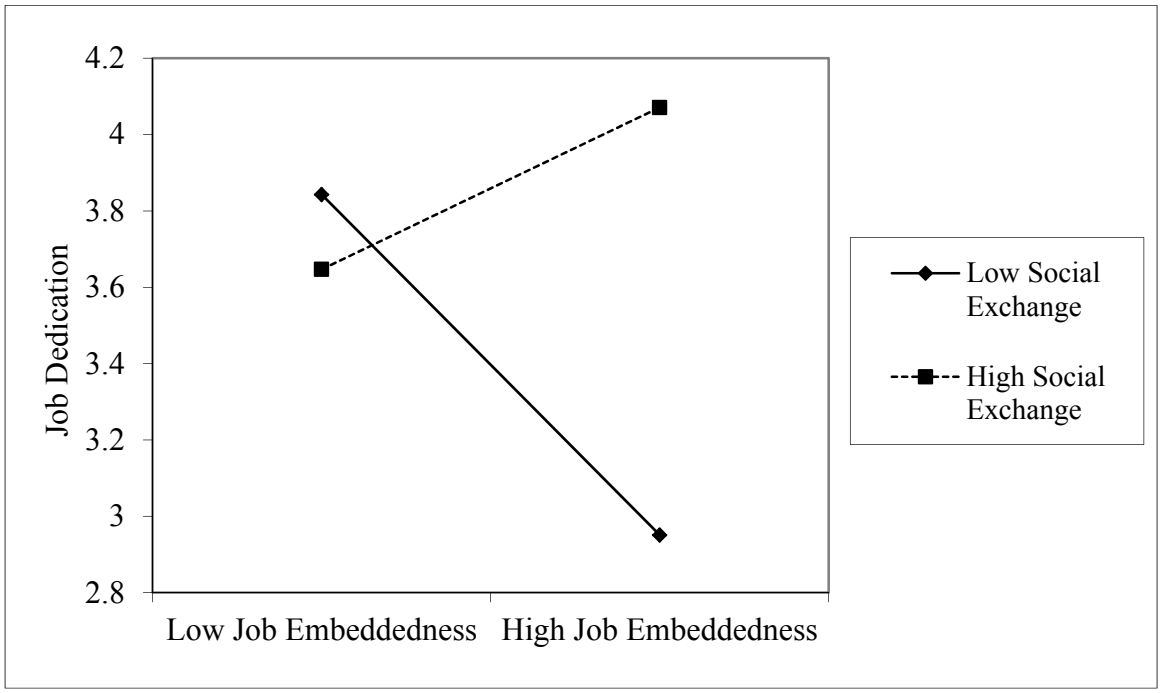

Figure 13. Interaction between social exchange and job embeddedness on job dedication.

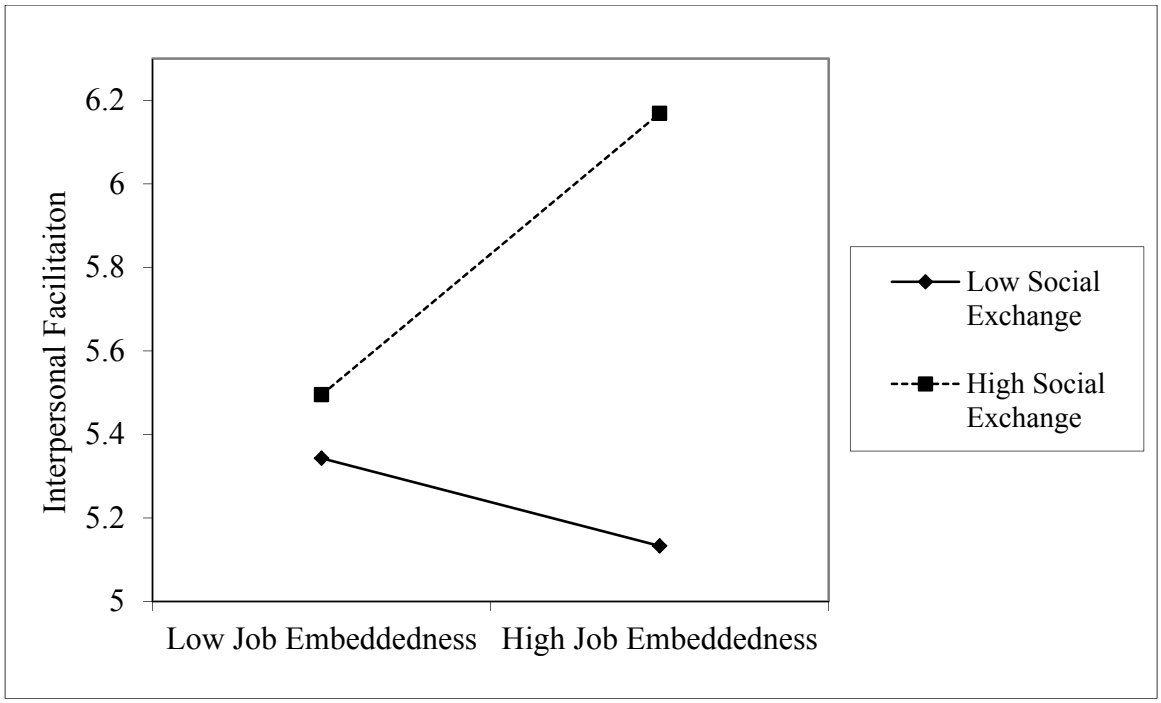

Figure 14. Interaction between social exchange and job embeddedness on interpersonal facilitation.

Though highly embedded, those with low social exchange relationships appear to display less job dedication and engage in less interpersonal facilitation, perhaps lending support for the notion of being stuck. Subsequent simple slope analyses found neither slope to be significant from 0 for contextual performance, job dedication, or interpersonal facilitation.

Hypothesis 8 predicted a moderating relationship between job embeddedness and distributive fairness on task performance. As perceptions of distributive fairness decrease, task performance would decrease. As indicated in Table 12, the standardized coefficient ($\beta = .13$, $p = .315$) for model 4 was not statistically significant. Hypothesis 8 was therefore not supported.

Table 12
Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Task Performance

	Task Performance			
Variables[b]	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	.05	.07	.07	.07
Age	.03	.04	.04	.04
Ethnicity	.16	.13	.13	.13
Job level	-.13	-.12	-.12	-.12
Tenure	.20*	.20*	.20*	.19*
Affective commitment	-.07	.10	.07	.08
Job embeddedness		-.22		
Job embeddedness			-.23	-.22
Distributive Fairness			.05	.09
Job embeddedness x distributive fairness				.13
Total R^2	.07	.10	.10	.10
Change in R^2	.07	.02	.00	.01

[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
*$p < .05$.

POST-HOC ANALYSIS

According to equity theory (Adams, 1965), equity is determined by evaluating ones ratio of inputs to outcomes against the same ratio of a comparative other. As posited in the current study, if inequity is perceived, attempts to restore equity may take the form of decreased outputs such as productivity or effort, which may lead to decreased task performance. Though the interaction between job embeddedness and distributive fairness did not produce significant results on task performance, it is possible that only effort is impacted by the JE-fairness interaction, stopping short of impacting performance. In accordance with the previous argument put forth in this study, an

individual who perceives inequity may indeed feel the need to restore equity; however it may be in a less overt manner than previously suggested. To further investigate the moderating influence of distributive fairness, a supplemental analysis was performed.

In a test of the interaction between job embeddedness and distributive fairness, additional analysis found statistically significant results ($\beta = .21$, $p < .05$) for the job dedication dimension of contextual performance, as shown in Table 13. The two-way interaction plot predicting job dedication that is captured in Figure 15 indicates that those who are highly embedded yet perceive low distributive fairness display less job dedication. The structure of this relationship suggests that job embeddedness may not lead to improved performance when those who are highly embedded perceive low distributive fairness in their workplace. A subsequent simple slope analysis found neither slope to be significant from 0.

Table 13
Post-Hoc Analysis

	Job Dedication			
Variables[b]	Model 1[a]	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Gender	-.09	-.08	-.08	-.08
Age	.07	.07	.07	.08
Ethnicity	.20*	.19*	.20*	.20*
Job level	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03
Tenure	.14	.14	.14	.13
Affective commitment	.01	.08	.12	.14
Job embeddedness		-.09		
Job embeddedness			-.07	-.05
Distributive Fairness			-.07	-.01
Job embeddedness x distributive fairness				.21*
Total R^2	.07	.08	.08	.11*
Change in R^2	.07	.00	.00	.03*

[a] Standardized betas are reported.
[b] All tests are two-tailed unless they are tests of a hypothesis with direction specified.
*$p < .05$.

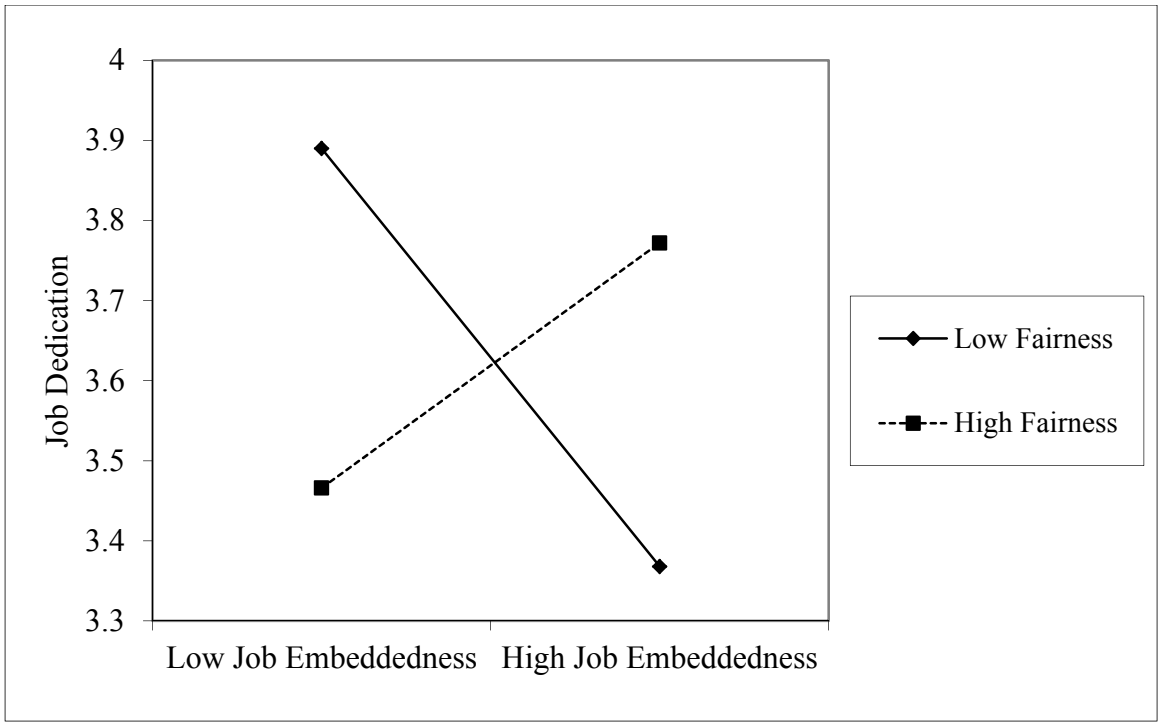

Figure 15. Interaction between distributive fairness and job embeddedness on job dedication

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This study was designed to explore the conditions under which job embeddedness may have adverse effects on performance, creating a potential dark side of job embeddedness. Prior research on JE has highlighted positive work outcomes related to turnover (Mitchell, et al., 2001) as well as job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (Lee, et al., 2004). In a recent study on shocks, job embeddedness, and work behaviors, job embeddedness was found to fully mediate the relationship between negative shocks and counterproductive behavior and partially mediate the relationship between negative shocks and organizational citizenship behavior (Holtom, et al., 2011). Sekiguchi, Burton, and Sablynski (2008) indicate job embeddedness to be an important intervening variable, finding that job embeddedness moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance as well as the relationship between organization-based self-esteem and organizational citizenship behavior. Thus, there is evidence to suggest that job embeddedness plays an important role in understanding employee behavior and performance. In the current study, overall findings provided initial support for the detrimental effects of job embeddedness, demonstrating the potential dark side of this construct. In particular, personality and exchange relationships were found to interact with job embeddedness to negatively impact performance and performance related outcomes such as job dedication.

Regarding the interaction effects of personality, results indicated that when combined with job embeddedness, conscientiousness strengthens the negative

relationship between JE and counterproductive behavior. As predicted, participants in this study who were low in conscientiousness and high in job embeddedness displayed counterproductive behavior more often. Research in personality, particularly as it relates to the Big Five personality dimensions, finds conscientiousness to be the most reliable predictor of performance (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, et al., 2001). Consistent with Colbert, et al.'s (2004) premise that deviant behavior is enacted only when it is consistent with one's personality traits, results from this study showed that the occurrences of counterproductive behavior for those high in conscientiousness remained stable, decreasing only slightly from low to high embeddedness. Essentially the correlation between JE and counterproductive behavior was of no effect for those high in conscientiousness. The tendency for those high in this trait to be dependable and responsible may have prevented them from engaging in a high degree of counterproductive behavior, even if they felt stuck.

Relative to the impact of those who are low in conscientiousness, findings indicated that those who perceive themselves to be highly embedded will engage in more counterproductive behavior when conscientiousness is low. So despite the feeling of connectedness or attachment, individuals in this sample who are self-reportedly low in conscientiousness were judged by their supervisors to more often engage in behaviors that are detrimental to the organization, perhaps due to feelings of being stuck. Prior JE literature suggests the positive effects of job embeddedness, finding that it is negatively related to turnover and absences (Lee, et al., 2004) and positively related to job performance (Mitchell, et al., 2001). However here we see that the combined effects of job embeddedness and conscientiousness resulted in negative performance outcomes.

Likewise, the current study investigated the interaction influences of negative affectivity. As predicted, high NA combined with job embeddedness to decrease counterproductive behaviors. Individuals with low NA were found to engage in counterproductive behavior more often when job embeddedness was high. Prior research concludes that negative affectivity is associated with incivility, counterproductive behavior, and interpersonal conflict (Penney & Spector, 2005). However despite the tendency of those high in negative affectivity to be sensitive to minor frustrations and experience negative emotions (Aquino, 1999; Penney & Spector, 2005), in this study these individuals had fewer occurrences of counterproductive behavior when job embeddedness was high. A review of previous work in negative affectivity may help explain this finding.

In a study on individual differences and workplace aggression, which is a form of counterproductive behavior, negative affectivity was found to be unrelated to workplace aggression (Douglas & Martinko, 2001). Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen (1999) and Douglas and Martinko (2001) suggest that high NA may actually manifest itself as passive behavior rather than active behavior. As negative affectivity has been found to be related to stress and strains (Moyle, 1995; Watson & Clark, 1984), perhaps passive behavior is due to the high levels of emotional stress felt by those high in negative affectivity. In a study on occupational stress and performance, Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986) sampled 171 nurses and found that stress generated anxiety and depression, suggesting that the degree to which events are seen as stressful is dependent upon individual characteristics. Results also indicated that depression led to less warm behaviors toward coworkers while anxiety led to more warm behaviors toward

coworkers, due to either personal disposition or concerns over making a favorable impression.

Because individuals high in negative affectivity are predisposed to experiencing negative emotions such as anxiety and distress (Penney & Spector, 2005), see interactions with others as threats to their identity, and act inappropriately in social situations (Aquino, 1999), it is possible that these individuals may behave in ways that preserve their self-identity and improve or influence others' perceptions of them, particularly if they have stress-induced anxiety as suggested by Motowidlo, Packard, and Manning (1986). This would in turn minimize the occurrences of counterproductive behavior. In the case of individuals low in negative affectivity, the absence of generally negative emotions and reactions to stress may cause them to be less concerned with others' perceptions, as there is little need to compensate for past negative encounters with others. The result may be that those with low NA are less bound by dispositional limitations, allowing them to feel freer than those with high NA to engage in counterproductive behavior, despite perceptions of being highly embedded in an organization.

Another possible explanation for the result that indicates individuals with high negative affectivity and high embeddedness less often engage in counterproductive behaviors may be found in the counterproductive measure used in this study. Prior research on the dimensionality of counterproductive behavior (Spector, et al., 2006, p. 455) suggests that "specific types of counterproductive behavior can occur under different organizational conditions." As such, Spector, et al. (2006) developed 5 subscales, each having different antecedents: sabotage, withdrawal, production deviance, theft, and abuse. The modified measure of counterproductive behavior used in this study

included items such as coming to work late, daydreaming at work, taking longer breaks, neglecting instructions, working slowly, and reducing effort. Two of these items (lateness, long breaks) are included on the withdrawal subscale; two items (neglecting instructions, working slowly) are included on the production deviance subscale. The two remaining items could conceivably be split between the two dimensions. Daydreaming is seen as a form of escape, reducing the amount of time worked and may be categorized as withdrawal. Reducing work effort is more purposeful and could therefore be categorized as production deviance. Withdrawal, which is correlated with strains, is associated with boredom and depression. Production deviance is correlated higher with stressors and is associated with furious and gloomy emotions (Spector, et al., 2006). Spector, Fox, Penney, et al. (2006) assert that withdrawal is an attempt to avoid rather than do direct harm and production deviance is passive and less visible. Using the logic put forth by Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen (1999) and Douglas and Martinko (2001), if individuals high in negative affectivity are perceived to be passive as well as incompetent in social situations (Aquino, 1999) or even on task performance (Motowidlo, et al., 1986), they may choose to minimize the occurrences of counterproductive behavior (in the form of withdrawal or production deviance) and instead opt to engage in a type of impression management.

This boundary condition is not applicable to those low in negative affectivity, thus increased counterproductive behaviors may be more likely. If we look at the counterproductive behavior measure used in this study in the context of withdrawal and production deviance behaviors only, individuals who engaged in such behaviors may have been bored, depressed, furious, or felt gloomy (Spector, et al., 2006).

If these individuals also perceived themselves to be highly embedded, then perhaps feelings of being stuck contributed to the display of counterproductive behavior. Moreover, if an individual who reportedly is less reactive to negative events and more optimistic (low negative affectivity) (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Watson, 1988) still engages in counterproductive behavior, feelings of being stuck may be a factor.

In addition to introducing counterproductive behavior as a potential outcome of job embeddedness, the current study also examined contextual performance relative to exchange relationships. For this sample, findings were consistent with predictions. Contextual performance and the job dedication dimension of contextual performance decreased when job embeddedness and economic exchange were high. The results of the investigation demonstrated the impact exchange relationships have on job embeddedness and the associated effect employment relationships based on economic exchange have on performance. As economic exchange is financial in nature (Shore, et al., 2006), one might assume that efforts would be made to maintain such a relationship so as to not forfeit future gains. However results indicated that the willingness to engage in discretionary behaviors that contribute to the motivational aspects of the work environment (contextual performance) and the willingness to exert additional effort, work hard, and/or follow rules (job dedication) decreases for high economic exchange despite high job embeddedness.

According to Shore, et al. (2006), economic exchange relationships do not assume a long-term obligation or ongoing relationship. As such, those with high economic exchange may be more inclined to leave an organization than those with low economic exchange. However if these individuals stay due to high embeddedness, economic

exchange appears to create a boundary condition on performance leading to negative outcomes, thereby lending support for the notion of being stuck. A possible explanation for this occurrence is that the investments that are tied to the economic exchange may contribute to perceptions of embeddedness. Given that economic exchange is void of trust, commitment, or other socio-emotional elements (Shore, et al., 2006), individuals may feel attached to their organization because of the financial aspects of the employment relationship yet feel stuck in a poor exchange relationship, leading to less job dedication and overall contextual performance.

In the case of the second dimension of contextual performance, interpersonal facilitation decreased from low to high job embeddedness when economic exchange was high. Those who perceived themselves to be highly embedded appear to maintain interpersonal facilitation levels when economic exchange is high. This suggests that the extent to which an individual is embedded may have minimal effect on interpersonal facilitation when employment relationships are based on financial or tangible factors. One possible explanation for this result is that social exchange, unlike economic exchange is a better predictor of citizenship behavior (Organ, 1990; Shore, et al., 2006). Therefore, the interaction between job embeddedness and economic exchange may serve as a weak predictor of interpersonal facilitation when compared to the same interaction on job dedication. Thus to the degree that they might have ordinarily done so, those with high economic exchange relationships who are also highly embedded will continue to engage in acts that serve to improve morale and help coworkers.

When further investigating the exchange relationships of the current sample, social exchange also revealed itself to be an important factor in understanding job embeddedness and subsequent performance. In this study, both contextual performance and job dedication decreased when social exchange was low and job embeddedness was high. These results indicate that social exchange may play a role in identifying situations where job embeddedness may lead to feelings of being stuck in an organization. Since social exchange was low when embeddedness was high, individuals may be connected to the organization for reasons other than trusting, obligation-based employment relationships. The resulting drop in performance may be explained by the lack of trusting relationships. Said another way, though individuals who are highly embedded may feel bound to the organization, the absence of a socio-emotional employee-employer exchange may cause discontent, leading to negative performance outcomes and possible feelings of being stuck in the organization.

This study also examined the interaction effects of distributive fairness. The interaction between distributive fairness and job embeddedness was unrelated to task performance. This may be because distributive fairness pertains to perceived fairness of outcomes received relative to work. As such, its relationship to job embeddedness and subsequent performance may not be significant because the focus is on job specific duties. Individuals concerned over the favorableness of work outcomes may be less likely to decrease performance for fear of further influencing these outcomes. Overt efforts to reduce task performance would be more apparent and therefore avoided. Based on the correlations between the variables in this study, there is no relationship between

distributive fairness and job embeddedness, thus perceptions of fairness would not affect the task performance of those who perceive themselves to be embedded.

A secondary objective of this study was to examine organizational commitment in the context of job embeddedness. In particular, the current study sought to investigate the role organizational commitment may play in creating boundary conditions on performance (i.e. contributing to the dark side of job embeddedness). Given the nature of affective commitment as commitment based on wanting or desiring to stay with an organization, for this study, it was determined that continuance commitment and normative commitment would be more appropriate dimensions for assessing negative performance outcomes.

Findings related to continuance commitment indicated a lack of evidence to support its relationship to job embeddedness and subsequent performance. In the case of contextual performance, the interaction between continuance commitment and job embeddedness did not produce significant results. This may be due to the basis for continuance commitment. As suggested by Sinclair, et al. (2005), continuance commitment increases as side bets accumulate. With that, continuance commitment has been found to be unrelated to citizenship behavior and negatively related to job performance (Meyer, et al., 2002). This suggests that the cost of leaving an organization does little to motivate behavior or performance. As such, embeddedness appears to have minimal impact on the zero sum correlation between continuance commitment and contextual performance. For this sample, the need to stay with an organization because of accumulated side bets did not influence the relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance.

The interaction between continuance commitment and job embeddedness was also examined relative to counterproductive behavior. Results showed the interaction to be unrelated to counterproductive behavior. There was also no support found for a direct relationship between continuance commitment and counterproductive behavior. These findings may be explained by an individual's desire to maintain accumulated side bets. If the costs of leaving an organization outweigh the costs of staying, an individual may temper the desire to engage in counterproductive behavior so as to not jeopardize inducements received. This would be especially necessary for individuals high in continuance commitment that have also assessed alternatives and determined that it is better to stay with the current organization (Sinclair, et al., 2005). Thus continuance commitment would be less likely to predict counterproductive behavior; as such behaviors would put at risk that which the individual holds valuable. The interaction between job embeddedness and continuance commitment then, might have limited influence on counterproductive behavior.

Concerning the interaction between normative commitment and job embeddedness, results indicated a significant relationship to contextual performance and the job dedication dimension of contextual performance; however the nature of the relationship was different than expected. It was hypothesized that the obligatory nature of high normative commitment would combine with high job embeddedness to produce feelings of being stuck, thereby decreasing performance. However results were contrary to this in that when combined with high job embeddedness, it is those with low normative commitment who display low contextual performance and job dedication. For this sample, it is the lack of obligation and loyalty felt by those with high job embeddedness

that decreases contextual performance and job dedication and the presence of obligation or loyalty that serves to boost performance.

One explanation for this phenomenon is that low commitment may serve to release an individual from the pressure to perform deliberate acts that benefit the organization (contextual performance). Therefore the level of embeddedness is overridden by this lack of obligatory commitment, producing negative performance. High job embeddedness then may play a negative role on performance when normative commitment is low.

Interestingly the occurrence of low contextual performance and job dedication by those with low normative commitment and high job embeddedness, though opposite from the hypothesized relationship, still may speak to the detrimental effects of JE on organizational performance. Though individuals perceive themselves as highly embedded, they may choose to decrease job dedication related behaviors and overall contextual performance when there is no perceived duty or responsibility to reciprocate an organizational investment. This finding suggests that the organization has not provided the individual with special benefits or invested in the individual, leading to a decreased need for the individual to reciprocate. If this is the case, the fact that the individual is still perceived to be highly embedded yet decreases performance, contributes to the notion of being stuck in an organization. Essentially the individual is highly embedded but not in an ideal work situation. As a result, performance may be negatively impacted.

LIMITATIONS OF FINDINGS

As previously asserted in this study, the potential dark side of job embeddedness may manifest itself in feelings of being stuck with different implications for performance. To personally assess oneself as being stuck in an organization, a number of factors potentially come together to make this determination. Employees may feel stuck for reasons that cannot be accurately explained within the confines of the original three dimensions of job embeddedness (Crossley, et al., 2007). Thus for this study, it was determined that global JE would be the appropriate measure to investigate the potentially negative outcomes of job embeddedness, however with this determination comes a possible limitation.

One limitation is due to incomplete disclosure of the full global embeddedness measure as originally published (Crossley, Bennett, Jex, & Burnfield, 2011). In a clarification published in the Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol 96(6), November 2011, Crossley and colleagues provide instructions originally omitted from the global JE scale. These instructions ask the respondent to consider both work and nonwork-related factors when rating their level of job embeddedness. Given the organization-centered nature of the global JE measure, nonwork factors parenthesized in the omitted instructions as neighbors, hobbies, and community perks, appear to contradict the focus of and intent behind the existing measure which emphasizes connectedness to an organization.

Data collection efforts for this study were completed prior to the publication of the omitted instructions which were discussed in the methods section and were therefore excluded from the employee surveys. Because the intent of this study was to assess the notion of being stuck specifically in an organization, it was determined that the omission

of the original instruction did not detract from the original intent. However it does inspire a question concerning the mental processing of respondents who are asked to consider nonwork factors. In describing the composite measure of job embeddedness, Crossley, et al. (2007) mentions the tendency of these measures to potentially omit areas that are important to the individual (deficiency). The global measure of JE was designed to minimize this issue. By not including the original instruction, Crossley, et al.'s (2007) objective of allowing for the inclusion of additional relevant information when processing each question may not have manifested itself in this study. Because work considerations are potentially influenced by nonwork considerations, omitting the directive to consider both work and nonwork related factors may have in some cases placed limits on the respondent. A possible result may be that respondents who assess themselves as low JE may indeed be mid to high JE when taking nonwork factors into account. Thus a limitation of this study concerns the possible missed opportunity to assess those with nonwork drivers of job embeddedness.

A second limitation of this study is the size of the sample used to test the hypotheses. The total population sampled was 675 and included both supervisors and subordinates. Though response rates for each group were 67% and 58% respectively, analyses required matched pairs between supervisor and subordinate groups. This parameter decreased the response rate, consequently decreasing the final sample size. Given that the study tested new concepts, a less conservative alpha (.05) was selected. In accordance with Hair, et al. (2010, p. 174), a sample size of 113, with 8 independent variables, a significance level of .05, and a power of .80, will detect R^2 values of 12-15% and above. Although an acceptable power level was attained, the small sample size

limited the probability of detecting statistical significance. However based on the ability of job embeddedness to predict unique variance in turnover variables, it was determined that in this study meaningful relationships would be observed. Thus a moderate effect size (.5) was deemed acceptable.

In addition, it should be noted that sample-specific findings are possible, as the measure of counterproductive behavior used in this study was modified. In terms of the generalizability of results however, Hair, et al. (2010) recommends a ratio of 15-20 observations for each independent variable in the study, though a minimum ratio of 5:1 is acceptable in some cases. The current study included 8 independent variables. As such a 14:1 ratio was achieved, supporting the generalizability of the results.

A third limitation of this study concerns evidence of discriminate validity. As seen in the factor-analyzed solution for the independent variables, overlap existed between job embeddedness, affective commitment, and social exchange. The inclusion of affective commitment as a control variable may have weakened the test of effects because of the amount of variance that was removed. As such, potential findings may have been suppressed (i.e. the lack of a finding does not necessarily mean a finding was not present). Consequently, the current study may provide a less robust test of job embeddedness. The results should therefore be interpreted with caution. Though the overlap between job embeddedness, affective commitment, and social exchange presents a concern, the high reliabilities for each measure (.84 and above) and the not so high correlations among the variables indicate some distinction.

Another limitation concerns potential rater fatigue. The company selected for this study is one that often conducts internal employee surveys. When survey distribution

occurred during the first phase of data collection, only a small duration of time had passed since the sample population had been asked to participate in an internal employee survey. Additionally, the company distributed another internal survey just before the second phase of data collection. Although email communications to employees were restricted to only an 8-day window per data collection phase, it is possible that raters suffered from a kind of rater fatigue that was not so much focused on the completion of a single survey as it was on the task of completing multiple surveys in a condense period of time. Such fatigue may have affected response rates as well as response accuracy.

Due to the organizational structure of the target company, a high percentage of full-time employees also serve in the role as supervisors. As the data collection efforts for this study necessitated the distribution of supervisor and subordinate surveys, a larger than expected number of employees received two surveys due to their roles as supervisor and subordinate. Steps were taken to reduce confusion related to receiving both a supervisor and subordinate survey (i.e. individual and mass email communications) however it is possible that employees chose to complete only one survey either because of fatigue or because of assumptions related to receiving duplicate surveys. Again, response rates and response accuracy were potentially impacted.

Finally, another possible limitation pertains specifically to the supervisors. Since managers (with the exception of the top executives) were privy to both the supervisor and the subordinate surveys, some may have speculated as to how the two surveys were related, thereby introducing bias in response to the subordinate survey they were asked to complete. As well, this speculation may have led to inaccurate performance ratings on surveys they completed in their role as supervisor.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Future research may continue to examine the conditions when there are potential adverse effects of job embeddedness by exploring additional potential moderating influences. Job satisfaction, which has typically been used as a control measure in previous JE research, may be one such variable. Perhaps lack of satisfaction when combined with job embeddedness accentuates the feeling of being stuck, thereby resulting in negative performance outcomes. As job satisfaction has been found to be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and negatively related counterproductive behavior (Mount, et al., 2006), its interaction with job embeddedness may introduce a unique effect on performance when individual job satisfaction is low.

With that, future research should also continue to explore the relationship between job embeddedness and organizational commitment. Like job satisfaction, commitment is a commonly found control variable in the job embeddedness literature. Both normative commitment and affective commitment have been found to be positively related to performance due to the basis for the commitment (Meyer, et al., 2002). Normative commitment is attachment based on loyalty and obligation to remain with an organization, while affective commitment is based on an emotional attachment to an organization where the individual identifies with and is involved in the organization (Meyer, 1990).

Based on Mowday, Porter, and Steers' (1982) categorization of these components of commitment as attitudinal commitment rather than behavioral commitment, Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 2) describe attitudinal commitment as "psychological states that reflect

employees' relationship to the organization." Meyer and Allen (1987) suggest that the strongest antecedent of affective commitment is work experiences that fulfill employees' psychological needs to feel comfortable within the organization and competent in the work-role. Antecedents of normative commitment have been identified as familial/cultural socialization and organizational socialization that serve to create an expectation of loyalty (Allen & Meyer, 1990). According to Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 62), "in the attitudinal approach, the behavioral consequences of commitment are likely to have an influence on the conditions that contribute to stability or change in commitment." Mowday, et al. (1982, p. 26) propose that it is a "mind-set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization." Based on this logic, it is conceivable that individuals with affective commitment and/or normative commitment will display behaviors that enforce their level of and reasons for attachment. As well, the acknowledgment of congruent values and goals may serve to further influence behavior.

Evidence suggests that commitment may produce a unique effect on the JE-performance relationship. In the current study, results show the interaction between job embeddedness and normative commitment to be significant. Low normative commitment was found to negatively impact the relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance. Perhaps affective commitment too has an interaction effect on performance. Low affective commitment may produce negative consequences despite high job embeddedness due to the absence of conditions that would contribute to commitment. As such, future research should examine the influences affective commitment may have on performance when combined with job embeddedness.

Another research direction entails further examination of individual differences and their associated influences on job embeddedness. A potential personality dimension of interest would be goal orientation (Dweck & Leggett, 1988), which has been found to be related to performance (VandeWalle, Brown, Cron, & Slocum Jr, 1999). Goal orientation links motivation and personality together to explain goal-oriented behavior. According to Dweck and Leggett (1988, p. 259), those who pursue performance goals seek to establish adequacy of their ability and to avoid displaying evidence of inadequacy (i.e. achievement situations are seen as tests or measures of competence), whereas those pursuing learning goals view the same situations as opportunities to increase their competence and may seek to acquire new skills. Dweck and Leggett (1988) describe the distinction between orientations as proving one's ability and focusing on competence judgments (performance orientation) versus improving one's ability and pursing competency enhancements (learning orientation). Those with a performance orientation believe one's intelligence is a fixed entity, whereas those with a learning orientation believe one's intelligence is a malleable quality (Dweck & Leggett, 1988).

Bell and Kozlowski (2002) suggest that learning orientation produces an adaptive response pattern (persistence despite failure and pursuit of difficult tasks), while performance orientation is associated with a maladaptive response pattern (withdrawal from complex tasks, especially in the face of failure). Additionally, they found ability to have moderating influences on the relationship between goal-orientation and performance (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002), where learning orientation was shown to relate positively to performance for those of high-ability and relate negatively for those with low ability. In contrast, their findings suggest that performance orientation interacts with ability to

produce negative effects on performance for those with high ability and stable performance effects for those with low ability. As individuals with a learning orientation versus a performance orientation are motivated differently to perform, perhaps these differences will be impacted by the degree to which one feels connected to an organization and whether or not the connectedness includes feelings of being stuck in the organization. It is possible that those with a learning orientation who are motivated by complex tasks will decrease performance if they feel a general sense of connectedness to the organization, yet perceive there to be few opportunities for growth and development. Related to a learning orientation, it is possible that individuals who are highly connected, yet validate their competence by seeking favorable judgments and avoiding negative judgments, may find themselves feeling stuck in a less than ideal situation if they perceive that their abilities have taken them as far as they can go in the organization or if their work efforts do not net favorable judgments. Future research should examine the relationship goal-orientation has to job embeddedness and subsequent performance.

Future research may also consider the impact of other contextual influences on job embeddedness and performance. Perceived organizational support (Eisenberger, et al., 1986) for example, takes into consideration feelings of obligation, fulfillment of socio-emotional needs, and performance reward expectations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Perhaps it is the measure of perceived organizational support which goes beyond measures such as social exchange and commitment that encompasses a broader spectrum of factors contributing to the negative effects of job embeddedness and feelings of being stuck in an organization. Future research may seek to determine which measure explains

a greater degree of variance in relationship between job embeddedness and different facets of performance.

Lastly, future research may consider accountability theory (Tetlock, 1983; Tetlock, 1985) to determine if the degree of accountability one feels toward an organization for individual results combines with job embeddedness to produce negative outcomes. Accountability is seen to have varying effects on performance (Davis, Mero, & Goodman, 2007). The decision making process that ensues as a result of strong feelings of accountability may create an internal struggle or cognitive dissonance if an individual also feels stuck in an organization. In so much as accountability pertains to being held to a certain standard and being required to justify oneself, there is also a component of being answerable *to* oneself (Schlenker & Weigold, 1989). It would be interesting to see if an individual engages in self-regulating behavior despite possible feelings of being stuck or if such feelings create a boundary condition on performance.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The findings of this study have significant implications for management and organizational practices. Previous research has identified job embeddedness as an important factor in understanding turnover and performance (Lee, et al., 2004; Mitchell, et al., 2001). This study continues to examine job embeddedness and its relationship to performance by attempting to identify those conditions when high embeddedness may lead to dysfunctional individual performance. Specifically, when might the characteristics of high embeddedness be interpreted by individuals as being stuck? This research uncovers some of the individual and contextual considerations that may influence this perception and thus impact subsequent individual performance.

Though high levels of job embeddedness have been shown to predict positive work outcomes (Felps, et al., 2009; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008; Lee, et al., 2004), this study contributes to existing research by suggesting that job embeddedness may also result in negative performance implications relative to contextual performance and counterproductive behavior. In terms of individual differences, findings indicate that the interaction between job embeddedness and personality traits such as conscientiousness and negative affectivity may contribute to counterproductive behavior. As such, operating under the assumption that all employees who feel connected to an organization will engage in desirable work behaviors is ill-advised. This has implications for organizations in terms of management interventions. Activities and practices employed to increase embeddedness may not achieve the intended purpose, in that feelings of attachment and connectedness that result from high embeddedness are not necessarily motivators of behavior in all individuals.

Findings also suggest that exchange relationships impact job embeddedness. In particular, when economic exchange is high, job embeddedness is shown to negatively affect performance. Thus employee-employer relationships based on financial transactions should be managed carefully. As well, the degree to which these transactions are emphasized should be considered, as poor performance may result. Relatedly, findings indicate negative contextual performance outcomes when job embeddedness is high and social exchange is low. Organizations should consider the basis for employment relationships, realizing that poor social exchange situations produce poor performance outcomes even when employees perceive themselves to be embedded.

Finally, results of the current study show that job embeddedness negatively impacts performance when normative commitment is low. This suggests that a sense of loyalty and obligation may serve to prevent embeddedness from shifting to feelings of being stuck and producing negative performance outcomes. Organizations should therefore consider the potential implications of minimizing efforts to build commitment by creating reciprocal, obligatory-based relationships with its employees.

Overall, the results of this study suggest that personality, exchange relationships, and commitment may interact with job embeddedness in ways that are detrimental to an organization. As such, management interventions used for the purposes of increasing employee connectedness and attachment should be exercised with a degree of caution. Consideration should be given to how interventions as a whole come together to motivate employees and impact performance. Understanding individual differences, balancing the transaction and trust elements of exchange relationships, and building loyalty will increase the likelihood of positive performance outcomes in those who perceive themselves to be highly embedded. Organizations should also be aware that efforts to increase employee connectedness and attachment may result in poor performers staying with the organization rather than self-selecting out, or staying yet engaging in activities that are a detriment to the organization. This can be difficult for organizations to recognize as negative behaviors may be in the form of subtle actions that occur over time.

In an effort to manage the potential negative effects of job embeddedness, organizations should consider overall strategies used to achieve employee performance. As on-the-job embeddedness stems from the web of connections (involving links, fit, sacrifice) created within an organization, it is possible that links to certain people or

activities (e.g. special committee, current supervisor), job fit (e.g. values, skills, and career goals alignment), and the ease with which links are broken (e.g. perks, retirement, job stability) may lead to complacency or an unwillingness to change when prompted by various organizational factors. As such, high embeddedness may not ensure desired performance and work behaviors. Organizations are therefore encouraged to monitor the effects of both reward systems and performance management systems and to use associated tools to minimize complacency and increase in individuals the capacity to change.

From a reward systems standpoint, an assessment of expected job performance and work behaviors as well as the existing methods of rewarding performance and behavior, may uncover inconsistencies between the method and the message. According to Kerr (1975, p. 769), "reward systems frequently shape and maintain behaviors that organizations are trying to discourage while punishing or ignoring desired behaviors." For example, in the case of economic exchange, financial incentives may be given for the purposes of increasing performance and dedication; however such rewards may actually prompt an employee to decrease performance, as no relationship has been established. In this case, the intended message may have been 'we value your contribution to the organization,' however the method used to enforce the message may be interpreted by employees as 'this is an impersonal employee-employer exchange relationship that is potentially temporary'. Related to ethical ambivalence, Jansen and Von Glinow (1985) suggest that reward systems shape and maintain organizational norms (e.g. be cost-effective, maintain an appearance of consensus) and counter-norms (e.g. spend it or burn it, maintain high visibility). This provides further support for message-method

consistency and highlights the potential of reward systems to contribute to negative behaviors. Thus, organizations should evaluate the norms/counter-norms created by reward systems and discontinue practices that contribute to unwanted work behaviors and performance.

Relatedly, performance management systems should clearly communicate expectations consistent with organizational goals, link individual performance to organizational goals, utilize valid appraisal tools that measure performance, provide consistent feedback relative to current performance and changes in future performance, and be supported by performance-related pay and appropriate training (Armstrong & Baron, 1998). An emphasis on stretch goals, those that necessitate increased effort and require extending oneself beyond previous limits, may serve to minimize complacency. Project rotations and committee reassignments may increase the willingness to engage in new initiatives.

Pertaining to supervisor-subordinate relationships, another connection that may link employees to an organization, a study of dyadic quality and duration on performance appraisal (Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994) found that short-term, low leader-member exchange employees were rated according to results-oriented performance measures while those with high leader-member exchange (LMX) were rated high regardless of performance level. Results also indicated that high LMX employees were consistently rated high regardless of performance and length of time with the supervisor. These findings may emphasize the need for managers to maintain an objective, unbiased position in performance evaluation. As well, they may also speak to the impact comfortable supervisor-subordinate relationships may have on employee behaviors and

performance ratings. Such relationships may serve to connect an individual to an organization however contextual, personality, and/or attitudinal factors may influence the degree to which that connectedness translates to expected work behaviors and performance.

CONCLUSION

This study is among the first to test the potential negative performance effects of job embeddedness and introduces counterproductive behavior as a potential outcome of high job embeddedness in certain conditions. Contextual performance is used to examine citizenship behavior, allowing for the distinction between interpersonal, helping behaviors and disciplined acts resulting in extra effort. The overlap between job embeddedness and commitment is also considered. This study essentially addresses the notion of being stuck, which occurs when the web of connections that creates embeddedness serves to trap the individual in an organization.

Findings suggest that under certain exchange conditions and for those with certain personality traits, job embeddedness may result in undesirable outcomes relative to counterproductive behavior (with a focus on withdrawal and production deviance) and contextual performance (with interpersonal facilitation and job dedication dimensions). Findings also suggest the importance of commitment in accessing the effects of job embeddedness. In all, this study speaks to the emotional side of job embeddedness and considers how emotion, attributions, and interpretation may influence embeddedness to produce adverse consequences for organizations.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Employee

APPENDIX A
SURVEY INSTRUMENT
Employee

GLOBAL JOB EMBEDDEDNESS
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

1. I feel attached to this organization.
2. It would be difficult for me to leave this organization.
3. I'm too caught up in this organization to leave.
4. I feel tied to this organization.
5. I simply could not leave the organization that I work for.
6. It would be easy for me to leave this organization.
7. I am tightly connected to this organization.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organization.
4. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
7. Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization now.
10. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.
11. If I had not already put so much of myself into this organization, I might consider working elsewhere.
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.
15. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now.
16. This organization deserves my loyalty.
17. I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.
18. I owe a great deal to my organization.

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

I see myself as:

1. Organized
2. Efficient
3. Systematic
4. Practical

NEGATIVE AFFECTIVITY
(5-pt scale; very slightly or not at all/extremely)

1. Scared
2. Afraid
3. Upset
4. Distressed
5. Jittery
6. Nervous
7. Ashamed
8. Guilty
9. Irritable
10. Hostile

DISTRIBUTIVE FAIRNESS
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

1. My work schedule is fair
2. I think that my workday flexibility is fair
3. I consider my career development opportunities to be quite fair
4. The skill development opportunities I receive here are quite fair
5. I feel that my training opportunities are fair

IDIOSYNCRATIC DEALS
(5-pt scale; not at all/to a very great extent)

1. Flexibility in starting and ending the workday
2. Individually customized work schedule
3. On-the-job activities
4. Training opportunities
5. Special opportunities for skill development
6. Career development

SOCIAL EXCHANGE
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

1. My relationship with my organization is based on mutual trust.
2. There is a lot of give and take in my relationship with my organization.
3. The things I do on the job today will benefits my standing with my organization in the long run.
4. Even though I may not always receive the recognition from my organization I deserve, I know my efforts will be rewarded in the future.
5. I don't mind working hard today-I know I will eventually be rewarded by my organization.
6. I try to look out for the best interest of the organization because I can rely on my organization to take care of me.
7. My organization has made a significant investment in me.
8. I worry that all my efforts on behalf of my organization will never be rewarded.

ECONOMIC EXCHANGE
(7-pt scale; strongly disagree/strongly agree)

1. My relationship with my organization is strictly an economic one—I work and they pay me
2. I do what my organization requires, simply because they pay me
3. I watch very carefully what I get from my organization, relative to what I contribute
4. I do not care what my organization does for me in the long run, only what it does right now
5. I only want to do more for my organization when I see that they will do more for me.

OPEN ENDED QUESTIONS (for pilot study only)

Were the survey questions worded clearly? If not, please explain.
Was the survey too long? If so, what would you suggest?
Were you confused by any of the questions? If so, which ones?
Did you feel comfortable answering the questions? If not, please explain.
Were any of the questions difficult to answer? If so, which ones?
Were the answer choices appropriate for the questions? If not, please explain.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Supervisor

APPENDIX B
SURVEY INSTRUMENT
Supervisor

TASK PERFORMANCE
(7-pt scale; very ineffective/very effective)

1. Complies with organizational rules or procedures
2. Performs technical aspects of the job
3. Performs job-related tasks
4. Performs complex tasks
5. Maintains proficiency in job-specific tasks
6. Keeps up with new work methods
7. Advises others on task procedures
8. Explains job-related processes

CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE
(7-pt scale; very ineffective/very effective)

Interpersonal Facilitation

1. Praise coworkers when they are successful
2. Support or encourage a coworker with a personal problem
3. Talk to others before taking actions that might affect them
4. Say things to make people feel good about themselves or the work group
5. Encourage others to overcome their differences and get along
6. Treat others fairly
7. Help someone without being asked

Job Dedication

8. Put in extra hours to get work done on time
9. Pay close attention to important details
10. Work harder than necessary
11. Ask for a challenging work assignment
12. Exercise personal discipline and self-control
13. Take the initiative to solve a work problem
14. Persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task
15. Tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically

COUNTERPRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOR
(7-pt scale; never/daily)

1. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working
2. Taken an additional or a longer break than is acceptable at the workplace
3. Come in late to work without permission
4. Neglected to follow your instructions
5. Intentionally worked slower than he/she could have worked
6. Put little effort into their work

APPENDIX C

SURVEY CORRESPONDENCE

APPENDIX C
EMPLOYEE CORRESPONDENCE

Dear Participant,

As part of my research in the doctoral program at Kennesaw State University, I am conducting a study on employee attitudes and perceptions, along with Neal Mero, Professor of Management at Kennesaw. The objective of this research project is to attempt to learn why employees feel attached to their organization. Through your participation, we will better understand the factors that influence decisions about why people stay with their organization.

Your perspective and experience is very valuable and we hope you will agree to complete an online survey. Since the strength of the results depends on obtaining a high response rate, your individual participation is crucial to the success of this study. The questions within this survey will focus on your attitudes toward your current organization. The survey will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Participants must be at least 18 years old. Your submission of the survey indicates your consent to participate in this study. Should you choose not to participate, simply disregard the email and survey information. Please be assured that no one except the researchers involved in this study will have access to your individual responses. Your organization and supervisor have agreed that these surveys can be completed in a way that maintains your anonymity. Survey software has been programmed not to collect internet protocol addresses that may reveal your computer's identity to the researcher. After initial processing of your data, any identifying information will be permanently removed from our database and your responses will be identified by number only. All surveys will be destroyed/deleted immediately after the data are recorded. If the results of this study were to be written for publication, no identifying information will be used.

I hope you will be able to participate in this study. Without the help of experienced professionals like you, research that improves our organizations could not be conducted. If you have any questions or concerns about completing the survey or about participating in this study, please contact one of the individuals listed below:

Juanne V. Greene, Investigator; DBA Program; Kennesaw State University; 1000 Chastain Road, #0404; Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591; 770-420-4729; jgreene@kennesaw.edu

Neal Mero, PhD, Supervisor; Professor of Management; Department of Management & Entrepreneurship; 1000 Chastain Road, #0404; Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591; 770-499-3306; nmero@kennesaw.edu

Sincerely,

Juanne V. Greene

_____

The purpose of this research has been explained and my participation is voluntary. I have the right to stop participation at any time without penalty. I understand that the research has no known risks, and I will not be identified. By completing this survey, I am agreeing to participate in this research project.

THIS PAGE MAY BE REMOVED AND KEPT BY EACH PARTICIPANT

Research at Kennesaw State University that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of an Institutional Review Board. Questions or problems regarding these activities should be addressed to the Institutional Review Board, Kennesaw State University, 1000 Chastain Road, #0112, Kennesaw, GA 30144-5591, (678) 797-2268.

SUPERVISOR CORRESPONDENCE

Dear Supervisor,

As part of my research in the doctoral program at Kennesaw State University, I am conducting a study on employee attachment, along with Neal Mero, Professor of Management at Kennesaw. The objective of this research project is to add to our understanding of the relationship between employee attitudes and performance. Through your participation, I eventually hope to understand how best to satisfy the needs of organizations and their employees.

As an experienced supervisor, your perspective is important to the quality of our research. We hope you will agree to complete an online survey. Survey questions will focus on each of your subordinates' behavior and performance. Since the strength of the results depend on obtaining a high response rate, your participation is crucial to the success of this study. Individual surveys will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.

Participants must be at least 18 years old. Your submission of the survey indicates your consent to participate in this study. Please be assured that your responses will be held in the strictest confidence and identified by number only. All surveys will be destroyed/deleted immediately after the data are recorded. If the results of this study were to be written for publication, no identifying information will be used.

I hope you will be able to participate in this study. Without the help of experienced people like you, research that improves our organizations could not be conducted. If you have any questions or concerns about completing the survey or about participating in this study, please contact one of the individuals below:

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Sincerely,

Juanne V. Greene

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APPENDIX D

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS

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SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESIS TEST RESULTS

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1: Continuance commitment is positively related to counterproductive work behavior.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 2: Continuance commitment will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as continuance commitment increases.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 3: Continuance commitment will moderate the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior such that the relationship will strengthen as continuance commitment increases.	Not Supported
Hypothesis 4: Normative commitment will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as normative commitment increases.	Significant; Opposite Direction
Hypothesis 5: Conscientiousness will moderate the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive behavior such that the relationship will weaken as conscientiousness decreases.	Supported
Hypothesis 6: Negative affectivity moderates the negative relationship between job embeddedness and counterproductive work behavior such that the relationship will strengthen as negative affectivity increases.	Supported
Hypothesis 7: I-deal type will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and contextual performance such that the relationship will weaken as economic exchange increases.	Supported
Hypothesis 8: Perceived distributive fairness [of i-deals] will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and task performance such that the relationship will weaken as perceptions of fairness decrease.	Not Supported
Post-Hoc: Perceived distributive fairness [of i-deals] will moderate the positive relationship between job embeddedness and job dedication such that the relationship will weaken as perceptions of fairness decrease.	Supported