

The Role of Leader Communication Patterns, LMX, and Interactional
Justice in Employee Emotional Exhaustion and Outcomes

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Dedication

The following thesis is dedicated to my father, David Nelson.

I love you and miss you more every day.

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Abstract

Employee burnout contributes to employees' job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and organizational commitment and it can also cause a variety of serious health issues. Evidence has linked leaders' transactional and transformational communication patterns, quality of leader-member exchange (LMX), and employees' perception of justice, and each can affect employee burnout. However, very few researchers have studied the relationships among these variables. This paper provides an overview of the research on the various relationships between transformational and transactional leadership, LMX quality, and interactional justice, and explores how these factors influence employee burnout. Following the literature review, a proposed model of employees' perceived leader communication patterns, LMX quality, burnout, justice, and outcomes was presented and tested using structural equation modeling. Surveying 186 custodial and administrative employees of an organization, several relationships were discovered. The proposed model was not statistically supported, but an alternate model revealed multiple mediating relationships. A discussion of the results and its implications conclude the paper.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Burnout has been shown to negatively impact employees' job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment (Leiter, 1988; Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003). At a more basic level, burnout can cause serious health issues, such as short-term symptoms like headaches, fatigue, and gastrointestinal problems and chronic symptoms including cardiovascular disease and type-2 diabetes (Nixon, Mazzola, Bauer, Krueger, & Spector, 2011; Melamed, Shirom, Toker, Berliner, & Shapira, 2006; Melamed, Shirom, Toker, & Shapira, 2006). These health issues apply not only to employees on the individual level, but also for an organization on a more systematic level (Maslach, 2001). Maslach suggests "just as individuals can be characterized as 'healthy' in terms of their physical and emotional well-being, so can organizations be judged as 'healthy' in terms of the social interactions among their members" (p. 610).

Research into the role of leader communication on employee stress and burnout is not a recent phenomenon (Leiter, 1988; Miller, Zook, and Ellis, 1989; Ray & Miller, 1991). What is more recent is that scholars are beginning to delve into the complex relationships between communication patterns and LMX on various workplace outcomes, including job satisfaction and job attitudes (Zhang, Tsingan, and Zhang, 2013). However, little, if any, research exists that examines the effects of leader communication behaviors on LMX quality, interactional justice, burnout, and job attitudes. Consequently, the goal of this study is to examine the relationships between employees' perceptions of their leaders' transformational and transactional communication behavior, LMX quality, interactional justice, and emotional exhaustion, and in

turn, how these relationships affect employees' perceptions of overall organizational justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

This paper provides a literature review on burnout, LMX theory, transformational and transactional leadership, organizational justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. After a review of the relevant literature, the hypotheses and proposed model are discussed. Following the literature review, the methodology along with an overview of instrumentation and complete measures (see Appendices A-G) are described, as well as the analytical procedures used to test the hypotheses and model. The results revealed support for several hypothesized correlations, but the hypothesized model was not supported. Results are presented in table and model form, and a statistically supported model is provided. A discussion of the results and implications conclude this paper.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

In this study, employee perceptions of leader communication and leader-member exchange quality will be tested to predict employee attitudes. The overarching theory employed to consider these relationships is social exchange theory (SET). Social exchange theory – from a relationship perspective – was introduced by Blau (1964) as a goal-oriented reciprocal exchange of benefits between individuals or groups in a social process. In a review of multiple disciplines' interpretation of SET, Emerson (1976) determined researchers may use different vernacular to describe social exchange process, but essentially social exchanges result in feelings of obligation. In 1979, Clark and Mills introduced economic and communal exchange as types of SET relationships; economic was explained as any exchange that could benefit another and communal was defined as an exchange based on concern for another's welfare. Whether social exchange is viewed as an economic or communal exchange, the interactions are considered interdependent (Blau, 1964).

SET has been applied to a variety of organizational contexts, such as organizational citizenship behaviors and perceived supervisor support (Organ, 1988; Wayne et al., 1997). Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) claimed SET is one of the most influential theoretical frameworks in explaining organizational behavior, but requires further study in regards to the correlation between transactions and relationships. Emerson established the relation in the exchange relationship as the appropriate level of analysis for researchers, and he further suggested scholars view SET not as a theory but as a “frame of reference that takes the

movement of valued things (resources) through social process as its focus” (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 359).

In organizational research, social exchange has been largely explained by Gouldner’s norm of reciprocity, and these two concepts are often applied to explain relationships, behaviors, and attitudes of organizational members (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). According to Gouldner (1960), the norm of reciprocity is a universally accepted principle that posits if one person helps another, then the person who was helped should help and not harm the person who helped him or her. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) explained that while the norm of reciprocity is universally recognized, people will reciprocate at different degrees, which may be explained by his or her exchange orientation (a high “tracking” of exchanges orientation versus a low “tracking” orientation) or the person’s (or the organization’s) culture. This variance in reciprocation can help explain the complexities of the leader-member relationships and employee perceptions of leader communication, interactional justice, and overall leader-member relationship quality. Specifically, this perceived variance in reciprocation – and the quality of exchange – between employees and supervisors is expected to predict employee attitudes.

The criterion variables of this study – burnout, transactional and transformational leader behaviors, LMX quality, and organizational justice – have all been studied and explained using social exchange theory at some point in time (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 1997; Tse, Huang, & Lamb, 2013; Masterson et al., 2000; Cropanzano et al., 2002). For example, Rupp and Cropanzano (2002) applied a social exchange model of organizational justice, with the result suggesting that supervisor-subordinate social exchange mediates the relationship between subordinate-perceived supervisor interactional justice and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Tse et al. (2013) also recently integrated transformational leadership and LMX into the social exchange framework.

The use of SET to explain LMX is prominent in the LMX literature, but it is relatively new in the burnout literature (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Wayne et al., 1997). However, studies on burnout focus on a lack in reciprocity between participants and others or between participants and organization, which allows burnout research to be merged with the reciprocity facet of SET (e.g., Van Horn, Schaufeli, and Enzmann; 1999; Kop, Euwema, and Schaufeli, 1999). One of the goals of this study is to further SET by studying the effect of employees' perceptions of supervisor communication on the LMX relationship and burnout. As suggested by Cropanzano and Mitchell, this study will add to the literature on transactions and relationships in the social exchange framework.

Burnout

Burnout is defined as the “prolonged response to chronic emotional and interpersonal stressors on the job” (Maslach et al., 2001, p. 397). Although employee burnout and stress are both reactions to job stressors, Pines and Keinan (2005) noted the importance of studying each as a separate construct. In a study of 1,182 Israeli police officers, Pines and Keinan discovered stress had a slightly higher correlation than burnout ($p=.65$ and $p=.54$, respectively) with job stressors. Burnout was also more positively correlated than stress with physical and emotional responses to job stressors and turnover intention. The authors also reported burnout to be more negatively correlated than stress with job satisfaction, performance, and perceptions of importance. Pines and Keinan explained these differences in correlations between burnout and stress occur because of the chronic nature of burnout.

A widely used model of burnout is Maslach and Jackson's (1981) three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and diminished personal accomplishment. Maslach and Jackson described emotional exhaustion as one feeling strained and exhausted emotionally because of one's job. Depersonalization was described as an unsympathetic and impersonal reaction towards a receiver of one's care or service, and personal accomplishment was described as one's aptitude and achievement in one's work with others. Maslach and Jackson explained emotional exhaustion and depersonalization are correlated but separate constructs, while personal accomplishment is an independent construct from both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization.

Leiter (1993) further supported this notion, claiming the Maslach and Jackson's model of burnout contains three distinct dimensions of burnout. It is worth noting Maslach and Jackson's burnout model was created for human service providers, and Leiter explained the depersonalization and personal accomplishment dimensions were created specifically for human service providers. As depersonalization delves into the importance of therapeutic relationships and personal accomplishment studies professional efficacy, it is the emotional exhaustion dimension that relates to an employee's environmental conditions (Leiter, 1993).

Burnout can be explained by the conservation of resources model introduced by Hobfoll (1989). Originating from a resource-oriented perspective, the COR model is based on the idea that "people strive to retain, protect, and build resources and that what is threatening to them is the potential or actual loss of these valued resources" (p. 516). Hobfoll explained resources – in the form of valued objects, conditions, personal characteristics, and energy – are essential for better understanding stress; environmental circumstances threaten these valued resources, causing stress.

In a longitudinal study, Wright and Cropanzano (1998) tested the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee performance and attitudes and found support for the COR model. Controlling for employee negative and positive affectivity, emotional exhaustion was related to both job performance and voluntary turnover. Wright and Cropanzano explained the study revealed the consequences of employees' emotional resources being threatened. Furthering the literature on the COR model, Iko and Brotheridge's (2003) studied the effect of coping strategies on resources and emotional burnout in a sample of 600 government workers. The authors found positive coping strategies – such as seeking assistance from others – to be positively associated with resources, while the coping strategy of avoidance was negatively related to resources. Employees' resources were related to lower levels of emotional exhaustion. Wright and Hobfoll (2004) further tested the model of burnout and COR theory. In a study of counselors, the authors discovered employee psychological well-being (considered a resource) had a strong negative correlation with emotional exhaustion.

Different levels of employee burnout have been explained by gender, personality, and organizational culture (Purvanova & Muros, 2010; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010; Zamini, Zamini, & Barzegary, 2011). Despite these differences in burnout levels, burnout – especially the dimension of emotional exhaustion – has many antecedents and outcomes, with many concerning employee behavior. Miller, Ellis, Zook, and Lyles (1990) found employee participation in decision-making and supervisor support affect employee perceptions of stress, burnout (including emotional exhaustion), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. Turnover intentions have been shown to be positively related to emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and reduced personal accomplishment, and emotional exhaustion has been found to be negatively related to employee organizational commitment, supervisory support, turnover

intentions, and job satisfaction (Cole, Bernerth, Walter, & Holt, 2010; Iko & Brotheridge, 2003; Alarcon, 2011). Unlike depersonalization and personal accomplishment, emotional exhaustion has also been shown to have a negative relationship with job performance (Wright & Hobfoll, 2004; Halbelsleben & Bowler, 2007).

In an early meta-analysis of the three dimensions of burnout and their correlates, Lee and Ashforth (1996) discovered emotional exhaustion had a stronger correlation with demands of a job (e.g., role conflict, role stress, and workload) than resources (e.g., support, development opportunities, and rewards). However, the variance in correlations between emotional exhaustion and resources and demands was much stronger than the depersonalization and personal accomplishment's correlations to resources and demands. The difference in correlations between emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment are explained with the idea that people are more sensitive to demands than to loss of resources (Lee & Ashforth, 1996). Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, and Schaufeli (2001) furthered Lee and Ashforth's findings on the three dimensions of burnout and job demands and loss of resources. Using samples of human service providers and non-human services workers, the authors discovered emotional exhaustion to be highly correlated with high or undesirable job demands. Unlike Lee and Ashforth, however, the authors suggested depersonalization's strong correlation with job resources is not an outcome of emotional exhaustion but derives from a shortage of resources.

With the findings on job demand and resources' effects on burnout, Bakker, Demerouti, and Euwema (2005) studied the relationship between job resources and demands. The authors discovered certain resources –relational quality with supervisor, social support from coworkers, and feedback – helped mitigate the relationship between work overload and emotional

exhaustion. Bakker et al. (2005) suggested that job demands are more significant than job resources in predicting emotional exhaustion, but a combination of high job demands with fewer resources offers a better prediction of burnout.

In a more recent meta-analysis of burnout, Alarcon (2011) discovered employee resources, attitudes, and demands have stronger relationships to all three dimensions of burnout than Lee and Ashforth originally reported. Specifically, employee resources (control and autonomy) had the strongest negative relationship with reduced personal accomplishment, and weaker negative relationships with depersonalization and exhaustion. Employee demands (role ambiguity and workload) had the strongest positive relationship to emotional exhaustion and weaker positive relationships with reduced personal accomplishment and cynicism. All relationships between employee attitudes (e.g., turnover intention) and the three burnout dimensions were moderate to strong. Alarcon concluded that his study supports the claim that reduced personal accomplishment and cynicism evolve from emotional exhaustion.

With emotional exhaustion seeming to be at the core of burnout, researchers have focused on the significant role of emotional exhaustion in employee behaviors, attitudes, and outcomes (Cropanzano et al., 2003). Using social exchange theory as a framework, these researchers studied how employees' organizational commitment mediated employee behaviors and attitudes. The authors discovered emotional exhaustion negatively related to organizational citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, and job performance. Interestingly, the authors found emotional exhaustion to be related to organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the organization, but no relationship was found between emotional exhaustion and organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the supervisor. The authors explained emotional exhaustion does not significantly relate to supervisor-oriented organizational citizenship

behaviors because of the close, interpersonal relationships between supervisors and employees. So as employees become emotionally exhausted, supervisors are able to encourage and incentivize employees. Employees closely interact with supervisors but not the organization as a whole, so the organization is withheld organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

Delving further into the mediating effect of supervisor-employee relationships on emotional exhaustion, Wilks and Moynihan (2005) found levels of emotional exhaustion to vary across different supervisors, suggesting a supervisor can influence an employee's emotional exhaustion. Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) furthered Cropanzano et al.'s (2003) claim of the importance of social exchange in employee emotional exhaustion. In a study testing motivation as a mediator of emotional exhaustion and job performance, Halbesleben and Bowler found employees experiencing emotional exhaustion increased organizational citizenship behaviors that benefited the individual, while organization and supervisor-oriented citizenship behaviors decreased. Specifically, these individual-oriented behaviors involved employees gaining social support from coworkers and supervisors. Halbesleben and Bowler noted the importance of employees using limited resources to invest in social support. Although the authors conclude their findings further the conservation of resources model, their findings also support the application of social exchange theory in burnout.

Using a sample of health care providers and customer service workers, Mulki, Jaramillo, and Locander (2006) studied how supervisors' leadership styles influence emotional exhaustion and employee deviant behaviors. The authors found emotional exhaustion to mediate the negative relationship between participative leadership style and employee deviant behaviors, and emotional exhaustion mediated the negative relationship between employee deviant behaviors

and employee job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Mulki et al. suggested the findings show the importance of leadership in decreasing emotional exhaustion, and increasing employee job satisfaction and organization commitment in return.

Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory has been substantially revised since its inception 40 years ago. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) explained LMX theory has developed in four stages. The first stage of research discovered the differentiation of relationships between leaders and followers. The second stage of LMX theory – considered to be the most researched – focused on the different relationships between a leader and his or her members in the unit and built upon the construct of LMX. Stage three used Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1991) Leadership Making Model, which suggests leaders work differently with members to create partnerships. Finally, stage four studied LMX relationships in larger collectives, such as the groups within the organization (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In a meta-analysis by Schriesheim, Castro, and Coglisier (1999), the authors noticed the vast amount of LMX research had no consistent definition of the phenomenon. However, the present study will use Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) and Liden and Maslyn's (1998) definition and relational exchange approach to LMX, which suggest leaders form different relationships with members and exchange with each member differently. These exchanges can be contractual or social, depending on characteristics of the relationship, such as the level of trust, liking, respect, and mutual obligation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

To fully understand LMX theory, it is important to understand its history (Schriesheim et al., 1999). The concept of leader-member exchange was originally introduced by Graen, Dansereau, and Minami (1972). In a study of the relationships between leaders and followers and

these relationships' effects on follower performance, the authors noticed two problems with the commonly used average leadership style (ALS). First, the ALS assumes leaders had one average leadership style with all its members. Graen et al. (1972), however, hypothesized leaders' behavior styles will be different within each leader-member relationship. Second, ALS predicts leadership style to affect unit outcomes, such as productivity and member attitudes. However, Graen et al. hypothesized leadership style could actually have little influence in member unit outcomes (for example, leader authority can affect member performance). Using the Ohio State formula of structuring and consideration – in which structuring refers to a leader's task orientation and consideration refers to a leader's relational orientation – the authors studied 261 managers and 180 office staff and their respective performance ratings, performance expectations, overall job satisfaction, perception of leadership style (LBDQ), and member and leader influence.

Graen et al.'s (1972) analysis of the results revealed members' perception of leader task-oriented behavior moderated the relationship between members' perception of leader relational-oriented behavior and leader-rated member performance. High and low member perceptions of task-oriented leader behavior had a positive and reliable relationship with perceptions of relational-oriented leader behavior and member performance. Intermediate level member ratings of task-oriented leader behavior had no relationship with relational-oriented leader behavior and performance ratings. These moderating relationships were not supported for overall job satisfaction, influence, performance expectations, or role orientation (Graen et al., 1972).

Furthering Graen et al.'s (1972) findings, Dansereau, Cashman, and Graen (1973) introduced Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL), claiming the ALS was too broad in its assumptions. ALS assumes a leader's behavior depends on all members in general, while VDL assumes a

leader's behavior depends on his or her relationship with particular members. VDL also assumes members' perceptions and reactions of leader behaviors will vary. Making use of Graen, Dansereau and Minami's (1972) sample and the respective data records three years later, Dansereau et al. studied high-low and intermediate level task-oriented employee groups and their respective performance and turnover since the 1972 study. The high and low task-oriented groups were combined because both were correlated to performance and rewards, while medium task-oriented groups had no correlations to performance and rewards. The "leavers" in the medium task-oriented group were higher performers than the "leavers" in the high-low task-oriented group.

Dansereau et al.'s (1973) study demonstrated that the ASL approach is too general and supported the VDL approach by separating the dyads into high-low and medium structure groups. In a longitudinal study, Graen and Cashman (1975) studied leaders' behaviors with followers. Graen and Cashman's study further supported the idea that leaders' behaviors were not homogenous, but their behaviors vary with different members. The authors also supported Dansereau et al.'s approach to VDL in separating the dyads into groups. Specifically, Graen and Cashman labelled members in high task-oriented dyads as the "in-group" and members in low task-oriented dyads as the "out-group." Also, furthering the VDL approach, Graen and Cashman claimed trust between leaders and members to be essential in high task-oriented dyads.

In a longitudinal investigation, Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) also discovered leaders form different types of relationships with members. Studying managers and their subordinates, the authors conducted interviews and used instruments to measure negotiation latitude, managers' and members' contribution to the exchange process, leadership attention, leadership support, dyadic problems and manager sensitivity, role behavior, and role outcomes.

Results of the study reported the measured organizational outcomes were different depending on the relationship between a leader and a member. Based on subsequent and predictive behaviors, leaders granted varying degrees of latitude to members. The leaders who had “leadership exchanges” with member influenced the member without asserting authority. On the other hand, leaders who had “supervisor exchanges” with the members influenced the member primarily with authority. Dansereau et al. suggested organizational researchers to focus on the exchange process between leaders and members and the subsequent outcomes.

Studies continued to expand the VDL model. Graen and Schiemann (1978) found agreement on shared events and situations between leaders and members predicted the leader-member relationship. Leaders and members with higher agreement predicted the moderate to higher quality relationships, whereas leaders and members with low agreement tended to have lower quality relationships. Although Liden and Graen’s (1980) study supported the VDL model, the authors noted Graen and Cashman’s focus on in- and out-groups was missing a middle-group. Also, the authors discovered the foremen-manager dyads differ from manager-employee dyads based on job types and not personal characteristics. Liden and Graen also found that higher quality relationships between superiors and members showed increase in responsibility and higher ratings in performance.

Graen, Novak, and Sommerkamp (1982) began using the term “leader-member exchange” instead of vertical dyad linkage. The authors conducted a 26-week field study in which a treatment group of managers received training on LMX practices (expectations, roles, active listening, etc.), performance evaluations, communication, and decision-making. The treatment group was required to spend one-on-one sessions with members putting LMX practices into action. The control group received training on performance evaluations, communication, and

decision-making but did not receive training on LMX practices. The authors discovered productivity – both in quality and quantity – was improved by LMX training but not by training on communication, performance evaluations, and decision-making. Managers who received LMX training also showed greater results in supervisor-rated LMX quality, role orientation, member loyalty, overall job satisfaction, and job motivating potential.

After Graen et al.'s (1982) study, the literature on LMX began to grow substantially. Research revealed high quality LMX was related to increased performance rating, satisfaction with supervisor, turnover intentions, influence, job enrichment, and perceived similarity (Vecchio & Gobdel; 1984; Kim & Organ, 1982; Steiner, 1988; Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986). One largely researched topic in the LMX literature is the relationship between LMX and demographics of the leader-member dyad. Larwood and Blackmore (1978) discovered members of the same sex as the leader were more likely to be in-group than members of the opposite sex of leaders. Duchon et al. (1986) found member status (freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior) and gender differentiated the in-group from the out-group. Higher status participants (junior and seniors) and more women were in the in-group, while lower status participants (freshmen and sophomores) and more men were in the out-group. The authors noted participants recognized the different exchange processes between leaders and their members, but there was not a difference reported in members' experiences.

Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) further studied demographics – specifically age, race, gender, education level, and job and company tenure – and found that the more dissimilar leader-member dyads became, leaders experienced less attraction to their members and perceived lower effectiveness of the exchange while members experience higher role ambiguity. Also, similarity in personality between leaders and members has been found to positively relate to performance

and delegation, which in turn are positively related to LMX quality (Bauer and Green, 1996).

However, findings on gender dissimilarity are inconclusive. Orbell, Dawes, and Schwartz-Shea's (1994) study on trust and gender revealed gender did not predict trust and trusting behavior, and Bauer and Green (1996) also discovered gender did not relate to LMX quality.

Using a model of social exchange, Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) sought to discover antecedents and outcomes of employees' perceived organizational support (POS) and LMX. The authors discovered POS and LMX to be distinct and influential constructs on different outcomes. Specifically, patterns emerged supporting the idea that employees view relationships with leaders and organizational support differently. Both LMX and POS influenced each other, but LMX was found to have a stronger influence on POS. Regarding antecedents of LMX, the authors discovered leaders' perception of liking, leaders' expectations of members, and dyad tenure were positively related to LMX. Contrary to Wayne et al.'s (1997) predictions, the reciprocal relationship between LMX and POS was not supported but POS was related to LMX. Despite the inconsistencies of the relationship between POS and LMX, the importance of supervisor support in improving LMX quality is apparent.

Borchgrevink and Boster (1997) sought to further clarify antecedents of LMX. Using a sample from the hospitality industry, the authors discovered communication between the leader and the member – but not between the leader and all members – is an antecedent of LMX. Reward power had a positive path to LMX while coercive power had a negative path to LMX. More notably, LMX had a positive path to referent power, power in which others identify with and emulate an individual. Education level, tenure with company, and tenure with position were not related to LMX. In a study of a Chinese organization, Aryee and Chen (2006) found the climate of the work unit and supervisors' control of rewards to be positively related to high-

quality LMX, and that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between LMX and overall job satisfaction, task performance, and withdrawal behavior. These two studies show the importance of interpersonal communication between a leader and a member and further exemplified the significance of exchange between the leader and member.

Relevant findings. Research on LMX and burnout has shown LMX to influence employee burnout. In an experiment of part-time MBA students working in various organizations, Kim and Organ (1982) had participants role-play as supervisors and subordinates and complete tasks of varying stress levels. After the experiment, “supervisors” rated competency of subordinates, and all participants provided feedback on the quality of social exchange. The authors discovered the “supervisors” were more likely to have higher quality LMX relationships with the more competent subordinates, especially in more stressful task-oriented situations. Also, task-oriented supervisors revealed to have a lower level of LMX quality than relationship-oriented supervisors.

Studies have shown LMX quality to influence an employee’s level of burnout. In a study of health care workers, Thomas and Lankau (2009) found that high-quality LMX supervisors serve as a resource for reducing emotional exhaustion by decreasing role stress and increasing socialization. Zhang, Tsingan, and Tsingan (2013) found that LMX mediated the relationship between employee role stressors (role ambiguity and role conflict) and job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Also, Son, Kim, and Kim (2014) discovered relationships between LMX and burnout. In a study of 158 MBA students, LMX was found to mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice and burnout, and trust in supervisor moderated the relationship between LMX and burnout. The implications of these studies show the important role of supervisors in mitigating employees’ burnout and support the hypotheses of this study.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership are two widely researched areas in the leadership literature (Bass & Bass, 2008). Transactional leadership dominated leadership research until transformational leadership was introduced by J. V. Downton in 1973. However, it was not until 1978 when J. M. Burns fully differentiated transactional and transformational leadership that research on transformational leadership flourished (Bass & Bass, 2008). Using a qualitative approach to leadership, Burns described historical leaders and events in which either transformational or transactional leadership behaviors were used. In his description of famous figures and events, Burns helped define transformational and transactional leadership as different yet complimentary constructs.

In his study of historical leaders, Burns provided an optimistic view of leaders who engage and motivate followers to reach their own goals, to discover their own values, and to act selflessly. However, the definition of both transformational and transaction leadership were refined by Bass (1985). According to Bass, “the transformational leader uses charisma, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation to inspire employees to make extraordinary efforts” (p. 26). Conversely, Bass described transactional leadership as an exchange process between a leader and a follower. The leader rewards a follower for meeting set expectations, or the leader punishes a follower for not meeting requirements. In transactional leadership, the exchanges between leaders and followers are based on reinforcement or retribution, and rewards and punishments can be psychological, material, or social (Bass, 1985). The transformational leadership exchange between a leader and a follower transcends the reward/punishment dimension and becomes a more personal exchange of emotional support, challenge, and/or inspiration (Bass, 1990).

Literature on the influence of transformational and transactional leadership behavior is vast (Bass & Bass, 2008). Transformational and transactional leader behavior can greatly influence followers' behavior. In a longitudinal experiment, Dvir, Eden, Avolio, and Shamir (2002) trained one group of leaders in transformational leadership, and did not train the leaders in the control group. The authors discovered the followers of the trained group of leaders were better developed in self-efficacy, conduct, and collectivism and performed better than the followers of the control group of leaders. Not only does transformational and transactional leadership influence follower behavior, but it can also influence leader behavior. Avolio and Bass (1995) discovered leaders will adjust their own behavior to the development level of the member. Other studies have found transformational leadership to influence employee psychological well-being, level of dependence on leader, empowerment, and strategies of upward influence (Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Krishnan, 2004).

Many researchers have studied LMX as a mediator or moderator of transformational and transactional leadership and their correlates (Krishnan, 2004; Basu & Green, 1997; Gerstner & Day, 1997). In Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1991) model of LMX development, the authors suggested followers in a less developed LMX relationship will experience transactional leader behaviors, while followers in developing or mature LMX relationships will experience more transformational leader behaviors. The integration of transactional and transformational leadership into the LMX literature is well supported (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura & Schriesheim, 1994). Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, and Chen (2005) studied the relationship between LMX, transformational leadership, and organizational citizenship behaviors. In a study of 162 leader-follower dyads, the authors found that LMX fully mediates the relationship

between transformational leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors. The authors suggested transformational leader behaviors are a social currency in LMX relationships, and in turn, higher quality LMX relationships make transformational leader behaviors seem more personal and meaningful.

According to Gerstner and Day (1997), LMX research has generally been more oriented towards transformational leadership, with most studies focusing on trust, respect, and overall quality. Many studies neglect to measure the influence of transactional leadership and LMX (Wang et al., 2005; Nielsen, Randall, Yarker, & Brenner, 2008; Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Krishnan, 2004). However, some studies have measured the transactional leader behaviors and LMX. For example, in a longitudinal study of followers, Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999) found both transformational leadership and contingent rewards (transactional leadership) to be positively related to LMX. Also, Aryee and Chen found supervisors' control of rewards – a transactional leader behavior – is positively related to high-quality LMX. However, Lee (2005) found transactional leadership to have no relationship with LMX.

Relevant findings. Transformational and transactional leader behaviors' influence on burnout has also been studied. One of the first studies of transformational leadership and burnout was conducted by Seltzer, Numerof, and Bass (1989). Using 875 part-time MBA students, the authors discovered transformational leadership was negatively correlated with burnout, and transactional leadership had a slight positive correlation to burnout. Since Seltzer et al.'s findings, the literature on transformational and transactional leadership and burnout has remained somewhat consistent. Transformational leadership is negatively correlated with burnout, and is widely believed to mitigate burnout (Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006; Kanste, Kyngäs, & Nikkilä, 2007; Hetland, Sandal, & Johnsen, 2007; Kanste et al., 2007). However, the relationship

between transactional leadership and burnout is inconclusive. Hetland et al. (2007) found no relationship between burnout and transactional leadership, while Kanste et al. (2007) found a slight positive correlation between transactional leadership and emotional exhaustion. While the literature remains inconclusive about transactional leadership's influence in burnout and LMX, this study will aim to further the research on these unpredictable relationships.

Organizational Justice

In a conference paper at the Academy of Management Proceedings, Wendell French (1964) described his observation on how a person's feelings of fairness and equity in an organization can cause dysfunction in an organization. French explained employees can react to these perceived injustices – whether it is perceived unfairness in pay, treatment, or policy – by decreasing productivity, becoming apathetic, or voluntarily leaving an organization. French called this phenomenon “organizational justice” and provided a framework for future research. Applying Aristotle's work on distributive and corrective justice to his framework, French provided a dichotomy for organizational justice to be studied: 1) equity in employee rewards and costs, and 2) fairness in the organizational processes.

Following French's introduction of organizational justice, three dimensions of organizational justice emerged from academic research: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Colquitt, 2001). Distributive justice in an organization was introduced by Adams (1965). Adams described distributive justice as perceived inequity in a social exchange relationship; fairness is determined by one's perceived ratio of one's inputs (e.g., education level) to one's outcomes (e.g., salary). Then, one compares his or her perceived ratio to the perception of another's ratio. Although distributive justice has an objective component, Adams explained it is primarily subjective. Deutsch (1975) proposed distributive justice is determined

by more than equity perceptions. Deutsch explained three principles or values can be used to determine distributive justice: 1) equity is valued when financial productivity is the primary goal, 2) equality is valued when a positive social relationship is the goal, and 3) need is valued when personal development and welfare are the goals.

Despite the rules which determine fairness, Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, and NG (2001) point out the end-goal is to achieve distributive justice. Distributive justice has been found to be related to several antecedents and outcomes. Using a social exchange resource model, Tyler (1994) discovered employee relationship concerns (primarily with high social status) and resource concerns (of outcomes) are antecedents of distributive justice. As predicted, employees judged their status within a group using their perception of distributive justice. In a meta-analysis of 25 years of justice research, Colquitt et al. (2001) found distributive justice to positively correlate to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Employee withdrawal and deviant behaviors were found to negatively correlate with distributive justice.

Research focused primarily on distributive justice until Thibaut and Walker introduced procedural justice in 1975 (Colquitt et al., 2001). A general definition of procedural justice is “the perceived fairness of the process used to determine outcomes” (p. 65, Cropanzano, Goldman, and Benson, 2005). However, the general, more modern definition of procedural justice has a more complex definitional history. Thibaut and Walker’s (1975) work focused primarily on procedural justice from the legal perspective and their work revealed the importance of fairness of processes. In a study of third-party conflict resolution, Thibaut and Walker found participants viewed procedures as fair when given control in the process stage. Even if participants had to relinquish control in the decision stage, participant control in the process led

to participants perceiving procedural justice. This control of process effect was called the “voice effect” and has been replicated in other studies (Folger, 1977; Tyler & Folger, 1980).

Procedural justice research was further developed and extended beyond legal procedures by Leventhal (1980). According to Leventhal, fairness of process can be judged using six rules: accuracy, correctability, representativeness, ethicality, consistency, and bias suppression. Since Leventhal’s extension of procedural justice beyond the legal realm, researchers have revealed antecedents and outcomes of procedural justice. Trust in others, neutrality, status recognition from others, employee input, mutually beneficial relationships, and servant leadership are a few antecedents that have been found to relate to procedural justice (Tyler, 1994; Kernan & Hanges, 2002; Lind, Tyler, & Huo, 1997; Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002; Ehrhart, 2004). Outcomes of procedural justice include increased performance, lower member absenteeism, organizational citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance (Colquitt et al., 2002; Ehrhart, 2004; Colquitt et al., 2001).

The final dimension of organizational justice and measured dimension of organizational justice in this study is interactional justice. Cited in Bies (2001), Bies and Moag introduced interactional justice in 1986. Bies defined interactional justice as one’s concern of fairness in terms of interpersonal treatment with another person during organizational processes. In two laboratory studies and one field study, Bies (1987) discovered participants’ perceptions of interactional justice were higher when a manager explained his or her actions and responsibilities *adequately*. From these studies, Bies also concluded interactional justice needed to be divided into two dimensions: one in which focuses on interpersonal treatment and the other that focuses on the completeness of information provided.

Testing Bies' (1987) hypothesis of interactional justice being two-dimensional, Greenberg (1993) conducted a laboratory experiment with undergraduate students. Students were to complete a simple task and were told they would be paid \$5 (equitable) or less (inequitable). Then, experimenters explained the fair or unfair pay with adequate or inadequate information in either a personable or non-personable manner. Once the students completed the task, they were allowed to pay themselves. Students who believed they were paid fairly would take the allotted amount of \$5, while students who were told their pay was less would steal more than allotted. Adequacy of information and interpersonal treatment moderated the amount stolen. For example, underpaid students given adequate information and treated with respect rarely stole, while underpaid students given inadequate information and treated disrespectfully would often steal blatantly. Not only does Greenberg's study support Adams' (1965) on importance fairness in outcomes, it also supports the two dimensions – which he calls interpersonal and informational – of interactional justice.

Studying the dimensionality of organizational justice, Colquitt (2001) further supported interactional justice being dividing into two dimensions. Combining different measures of interactional justice, Colquitt then divided them into interpersonal and informational measures. Colquitt used confirmatory factor analysis from two different studies to determine that interpersonal and informational justice are two distinct dimensions. These two studies also presented varying levels of correlations between interpersonal and informational justice. Although strength of correlations varied, both dimensions of interactional justice were correlated to leader evaluation, helping behavior, group commitment, and rule compliance (Colquitt, 2001).

Interactional justice has been shown to play an important role in employee behavior and attitudes (Colquitt et al., 2001). In the first study of perceptions of workplace fairness and

employee behaviors, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that the three dimensions of justice interact to predict employee retaliation behaviors. Specifically, the results of Skarlicki and Folger's study showed high levels of interactional justice made the interaction between distributive and procedural justice insignificant. The authors suggested their findings show the importance of supervisors properly treating and informing their employees. For example, if an employee perceives injustice in salary, the supervisor's fair treatment and adequate information to the employee can mitigate perceived distributive injustice.

Scandura (1999) also argued for the integration of LMX and organizational justice. According to Scandura, organizational justice literature recognizes the influence of leadership on employee justice perceptions, so LMX should enhance the justice theoretical framework. Leaders influence employee roles, exchanges, decisions, and outcomes and subsequently influencing employees' perceptions of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Scandura also hypothesized a high correlation between interactional justice and LMX because communication plays such a key role in leader-member relationships. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor's (2000) study supported Scandura's claim, which found LMX to fully mediate the effect of interactional justice perceptions on job satisfaction.

In a study of superior-subordinate dyads, Cropanzano, Prehar, and Chen (2002) studied the relationship between each dimension of organizational justice and job satisfaction, LMX quality, satisfaction with performance evaluation, and trust in upper management. Results indicated procedural and interactional justice to have very different correlates. Perceptions of procedural justice were related to trust in upper management and performance evaluation satisfaction, while perceptions of interactional justice were related to relational satisfaction. LMX mediated the relationship between interactional justice and relational satisfaction. Also, the

authors discovered LMX mediated the relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction. Although the study was one of the first integrating LMX and justice research, the authors concluded that “the quality of leader-member relationships seems to be crucial for understanding the beneficial effects of interactional fairness” (p. 341, Cropanzano et al., 2002).

However, not all studies integrated interactional justice into LMX literature. For example, Wayne, Shore, Bommer, and Tetrick (2002) studied perceived organizational support (POS) and LMX and their respective antecedents (e.g., contingent rewards and dyad tenure) and outcomes (e.g., organizational citizenship behaviors and commitment). The authors discovered contingent rewards were related to LMX, but procedural and distributive justice were related to POS and not LMX. Manager inclusion and recognition were also related to POS but not to LMX. Lee (2000) found that procedural and distributive justice mediate the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organizational commitment, but interactional justice was not measured in the study.

Relevant findings. There are two common models of the relationship between organizational justice and stress used in the justice literature (Cropanzano et al., 2005). Both Schmitt and Dörfel (1999) and Van Yperen, Buunk, and Schaufeli (1992) presented models of organizational justice and stress where felt injustice causes stress in some conditions but has a weak effect in other conditions. For example, Schmitt and Dörfel studied employees’ sensitivity to justice as a moderator of the relationship between perceived procedural justice and job satisfaction. Although the authors found perceived procedural injustice to be negatively related to job satisfaction, justice sensitivity was not found to moderate the relationship between procedural justice and job satisfaction, but it was found to be related to procedural justice. In a study of nurses, Van Yperen et al. (1992) found perceptions of interpersonal justice (called

personal imbalance in the study) to be directly related to burnout. However, few studies in the organizational justice literature test for a direct relationship between the dimensions of justice and employee behaviors and attitudes, and most of these studies relate perceptions of justice to psychological and physical health (e.g., Do Boer, Bakker, Syroit, and Schaufeli, 2002; Elovainio, Kivimäki, and Vahtera, 2002; Kivimäki, Elovainio, Vahtera, & Ferrie, 2003).

A more widely used model of justice and stress treats justice perceptions as a mediator or moderator of the level of stress, but results vary. In some research, organizational justice is viewed as a moderator (e.g., Schmitt and Dörfel, 1999). For example, Tepper (2001) found distributive justice to moderate the relationship between procedural justice and psychological strain, whereas Zohar's (1995) study suggested injustice does not moderate the stressor-strain relationship but it adds to the symptoms of stress. However, Elovainio, Kivimäki, and Helkama, (2001) have studied organizational justice as a mediator. Elovainio et al. (2001) found procedural and interactional justice to mediate the relationship between control of job (seen as a stressor) and stress. As exemplified, more research on the relationship between organizational justice and stress and burnout is needed.

Two theories of stress and organizational justice are prominent in the literature. Zohar (1995) presented role stress theory as an explanation of the relationship between organizational justice and stress. According to Zohar, scholars could consider role justice as a fifth stressor (of the classic four role stressors: role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload, and restricted latitude) in the stressor-strain relationship resulting from role negotiation and demands.

Suggesting Zohar's application of role-stress theory simply expands role dynamics theory, Vermunt and Steensma (2001) introduced injustice-stress theory. Injustice-stress theory builds upon the assumption that people have specific things they want from their work. As gaps

occur in what is wanted and what is acquired, stress is experienced. Vermunt and Steensma highlighted three specific gaps related to injustice which lead to stress: social comparison, temporal comparison, and comparison to one's internalized standard. The authors also stress that authority figures' behavior can influence employees' perceptions of these gaps. Several studies supported Vermunt and Steensma's injustice-stress theory in the stress and burnout literature (Van Yperen et al., 1992; Schmitt & Dörfell, 1999; Buunk & Schaufeli, 1993).

Research on burnout and organizational justice has largely been based on Maslach and Jackson's three dimensions of burnout (Cropanzano et al., 2005). Buunk and Schaufeli (1993) used Maslach's Burnout Inventory and found perceived inequity in social situations to be related to burnout. Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, and Sixma (1994) conducted a field study of general practitioners on burnout and organizational justice. Measuring emotional exhaustion and a combined measure of depersonalization and diminished personal, Van Dierendonck et al. found practitioners' feelings of injustice lead to increase in emotional exhaustion, which in turn increased negative attitudes.

The effect of organizational justice – especially interactional justice – on burnout has also been studied beyond human service providers. In a study of teachers, Van Horn, Schaufeli, and Enzmann (1999) found teachers' perceived interactional justice (with students) and distributive justice related to emotional exhaustion. Similar to Van Horn et al.'s findings, Kop, Euwema, and Schaufeli (1999) discovered the emotionally exhausted police officers perceived higher levels of interactional injustice with colleagues and the organization. Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) found interactional justice to be related to employee trust in the supervisor, and all three dimensions of justice were related to trust in the organization.

More recent studies show the inconsistencies of the relationship between organizational justice and burnout. In a study of civil servants and military personnel, Cole et al. (2010) discovered emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between interpersonal and distributive justice and employees' organizational commitment and turnover intentions. Studying MBA students, Son, Kim, and Kim (2014) discovered interpersonal justice and burnout to be partially mediated by LMX. However, Gaudet, Tremblay, and Doucet (2013) found emotional exhaustion to mediate interactional and procedural justice. Interestingly, interactional justice and emotional exhaustion were correlated in Son et al.'s (2014) study, but interactional justice (unlike procedural justice) was not found to mediate organizational citizenship behaviors or absenteeism. These findings clearly suggest the need to further the literature on interactional justice and emotional exhaustion and the role of leadership.

Job Satisfaction

The definition of job satisfaction has undergone significant changes over the last several decades. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as a state of positive emotion resulting from one's job achieving one's values, and in 1976, Locke defined job satisfaction as one's state of positive emotions resulting from one's assessment of past job experience. In 1977, Kalleberg defined job satisfaction as "an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying" (p. 126). Kalleberg explained job satisfaction should be unitary in that fully captures overall satisfaction and not specific factors of a job, but it is multidimensional in its antecedents. However, Weiss (2002) criticized previous scholars for not differentiating between the three distinct constructs of job satisfaction: evaluation, affect, and beliefs. According to Weiss, job satisfaction is one's emotional response to one's overall evaluation, emotional experiences, and beliefs about the job, and this study applies Weiss's

definition. Job satisfaction is critical in organizational research because studies have shown it predicts employee turnover intentions (Porter et al., 1974; Price & Mueller, 1981). Agho, Mueller, and Price (1993) sought to explore determinants of job satisfaction. In a longitudinal study, the authors found job characteristics (e.g., justice), workplace environment, and personality (e.g., employee disposition) to be determinants of job satisfaction.

Relevant findings. The literature in this review strongly supports job satisfaction being predicted as an outcome of LMX, emotional exhaustion, and interactional justice. Pines and Keinan (2005) found burnout to be negatively related to job satisfaction, and Mulki et al. (2006) found emotional exhaustion to mediate the negative relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction. Graen et al. (1982) and Zhang et al. (2013), for example, found LMX to positively relate to job satisfaction, while Masterson et al. (2000) and Colquitt et al. (2001) found a relationship between the three dimensions of organizational justice and job satisfaction. Although not mentioned previously in this study, transformational leadership has been found to be positively related to job satisfaction, but transactional leadership has been shown to have no relationship to job satisfaction (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Emery & Barker, 2007; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been presented as both an attitude and behavior (Sheldon, 1971; Becker, 1960). To fully understand and measure organizational commitment, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) defined organizational commitment as one's level of identification with and involvement in an organization. Mowday et al. explained organizational commitment is not simply passive loyalty, but it is 1) one's trust in an organization's goals and values, 2) one's willingness to exert effort for an organization, and 3) one's desire to remain a

member of an organization. Organizational commitment is not to be compared to job satisfaction. In a longitudinal study of organizational commitment, turnover intentions, and job satisfaction, Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) found the relationship between employee attitudes (job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and turnover intention gets stronger as time passes. The authors also found when levels of organizational commitment are at the lowest, turnover intentions are at the highest, especially before a member voluntarily leaves an organization. However, job satisfaction was found to fluctuate over time, therefore making it less predictive of voluntary employee turnover (Porter et al., 1974).

Relevant findings. The literature on organizational commitment, burnout, and leader communication is somewhat inconsistent. For example, Miller et al. (1990) found organizational commitment to be negatively related to emotional exhaustion, while Cropanzano et al. (2003) found organizational commitment to indirectly mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and turnover intentions, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. However, research does show organizational commitment to be an outcome of organizational justice, perceived organizational support, LMX, organizational justice, and transformational leadership (Colquitt et al., 2001; Lee, 2000; Wayne et al., 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). These findings support organizational commitment being studied as a measured outcome of emotional exhaustion, organizational justice, LMX, and transformational leadership.

Rationale

As cited above in the literature review, social exchange theory links interactional justice and LMX, and research has found both to influence burnout. There is little research as to how LMX and interactional justice relate with one another to influence burnout, leading to changes in

job attitudes (job satisfaction, turnover, intentions, and overall organizational justice). Transformational and transactional leadership – although well-researched – have not been studied to test how they create variance in the relationships between LMX, interactional justice, burnout, and job attitudes. This largely unexplored area provides the rationale for this study. Thus, the goal of this study is to measure the relationships between employees' perceptions of leaders' communication behavior, interactional justice, and LMX quality, and then to test these relationships with emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes. These hypotheses are visually represented in a model in Figure 1.

H1: Transactional leadership will be positively related to informational justice, which in turn will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to overall organizational justice.

H2a: LMX quality will be highly correlated with interpersonal justice.

H2b: LMX quality will be highly correlated with informational justice.

H3: Emotional exhaustion will be negatively related to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall organizational justice.

H4a: LMX quality will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional exhaustion.

H4b: LMX quality will mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and emotional exhaustion.

H5a: Transformational leadership will be positively related to interpersonal justice, and will in turn mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice and LMX.

H5b: Transformational leadership will be positively related to interpersonal justice, and will in turn mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice and emotional exhaustion.

H6: Both interpersonal and informational justice will mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes.

H7: LMX quality will mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes.

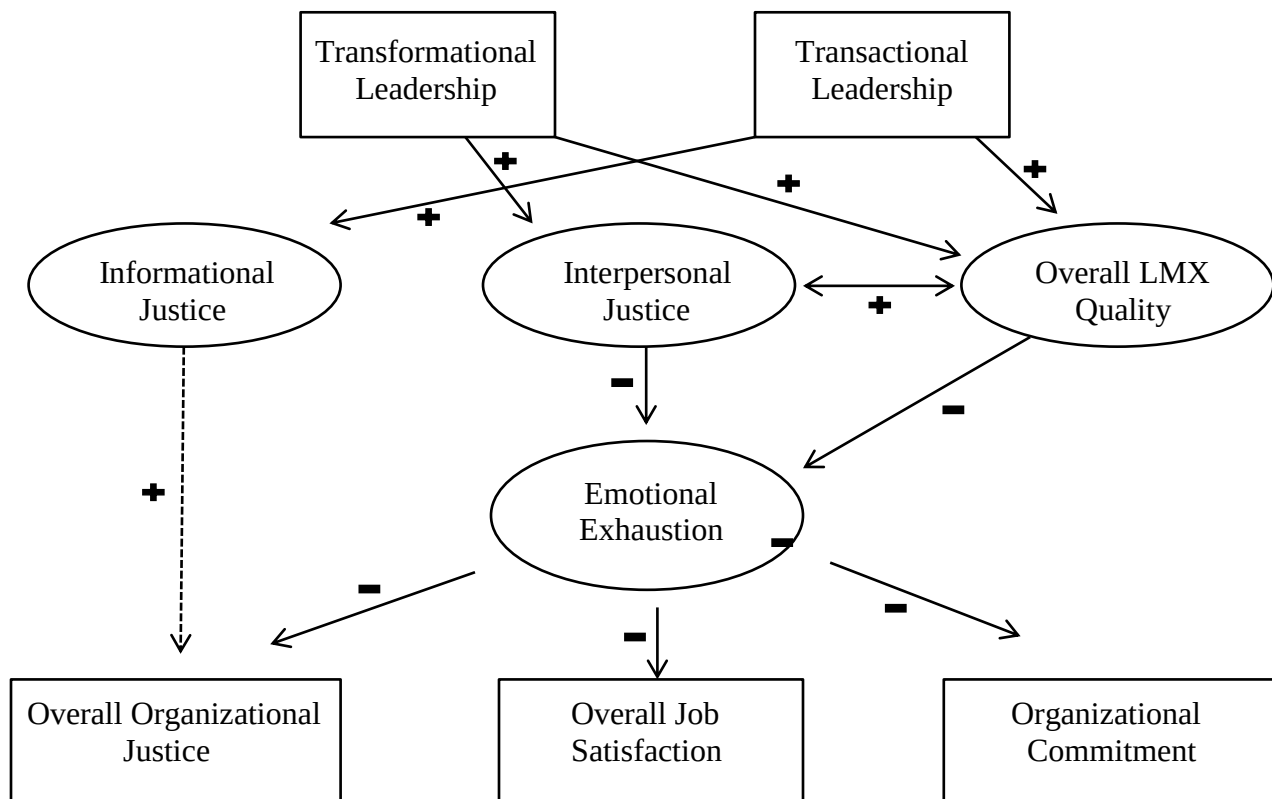


Figure 1, Hypothesized Model

Chapter 3

Methods

Sample

Participants of this study were employees from a mid-sized housing organization located in a medium sized southern city. The sample type was a non-probability convenience sample, and the entire population of the organization was used for this study. All 193 employees were contacted during weekly staff meetings and asked to participate by the investigator. Of the participants contacted, 186 returned usable paper and pencil questionnaires data was collected using self-report questionnaires.

As part of their job, participants had a direct supervisor and are 18 years of age or older. The organization included a variety of full-time and part-time administrative and service workers, including managers, accountants, clerical staff, maintenance workers, and custodial staff. Although the participants included different job types, the sample will provide a more generalizable estimation of effect size than a study measuring only one occupation. The participants' tenure with the organization varied greatly, from less than two weeks to over 25 years. Confidentiality was ensured before participants agreed to participate in study, and all participants were provided with informed consent statements.

Variables

The dependent variables of this study are LMX quality, overall organizational justice, interactional justice, emotional exhaustion, job satisfaction, and organizational justice, and all measured with self-report questionnaires. Transformational and transactional leadership are the independent variables of the study and will also be measured with self-report questionnaires. Criterion variables of this study are LMX quality, interpersonal and informational justice, and

emotional exhaustion. Outcome variables include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall organizational justice. Demographic variables in this study will include tenure with organization and participants' full-time/part-time status.

Measures

Seven measures with 7-point Likert-type scales were used to measure the variables of this study. Each measure was used to score and statistically analyze the hypothesized relationships of this study's variables. Below, the measures are described, including internal reliabilities, validity, and any modifications. In the analysis of the present study, the measures' reliabilities ranged from .87 to .94.

Burnout. To measure burnout, Maslach and Jackson's (1981) Maslach Burnout Inventory was used. The MBI is the most widely used measure of burnout for employees who work in human service professions (Worley, Vassar, Wheeler, & Barnes, 2008). The MBI measures three dimensions of burnout – emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment – and uses a Likert-type scale to measure frequency and intensity of burnout experiences. As suggested by Koeske and Koeske (1989), the MBI's three dimensions are not to be combined as a composite score of “overall” burnout but should be separately related to other measures. Emotional exhaustion is considered a key indicator of burnout and better predicts outcome variables (Lee & Ashworth, 1993; Wright & Bonnett, 1997; Cropanzano et al., 2003). Therefore, only the emotional exhaustion dimension was used to measure experiences of burnout in this study to maintain consistency with the majority of previous burnout research (Worley et al., 2008).

The frequency scale for emotional exhaustion has a reported internal reliability of .89 and the intensity scale has a reported internal reliability of .86; both convergent and discriminant

validity have been established for the emotional exhaustion dimension of the MBI (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Participants ranked the frequency (1=a few times a year, 2=every month, 3=a few times a month, 4=every week, 5=a few times a week, and 6=every day) and intensity (1=very mild, barely noticeable, 4=moderate, and 7=very strong, major) of phrases, including “I feel burned out from my work” and “I feel frustrated with my job.” Participants also had the option to mark “never” (which will equal zero) if they had never experienced the symptoms of emotional exhaustion. The measure of emotional exhaustion contained nine items and was modified to seem relevant to the sample (see Appendix A).

Transformational and transactional leadership. The Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory (TLI) was used to measure transformational and transactional leadership (see Appendix B for full measure). Podsakoff et al. (1990) created the TLI using common dimensions of transformational and transaction leadership from previous research. Transformational behaviors are measured using six dimensions: intellectual stimulation, individual support, high performance expectations, fostering the acceptance of group goals, providing an appropriate model, and articulating a vision. The transactional dimension of the TLI is measured using an adaptation of Podsakoff, Todor, Grover, and Huber’s (1984) contingent rewards scale. As done by Lian and Tui (2012), the scores of the six transformational leader behavior dimensions can be combined to create a one dimensional measure of transformational behaviors. Although the Bass and Avolio’s Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the most widely used, the TLI is recognized as a validated alternative to the MLQ (Bass & Bass, 2008).

The seven dimensions of the TLI have reported Cronbach alphas ranging from .78 to .92 and discriminant and convergent validity has been established (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Bommer, 1996). When used as a measure of one dimension, the Cronbach’s

alpha of transformational leadership is reported at .92 and transactional leadership at .91 (Lian and Tui, 2012). The TLI contains 28 items and uses a seven-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. Respondents of the TLI used the Likert-type scale to assess phrases describing his or hers supervisor's transformational or transactional behavior, such as "Inspires others with his/her plans for the future" and "Always gives me positive feedback when I perform well."

LMX. Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) Leader-Member Exchange Scale (LMX-7) was used to measure participants' perceptions of overall quality of LMX (see Appendix C). The LMX-7 contains seven items measuring members' perceptions of leaders' trust, support, and contributions. Graen and Uhl-Bien suggested each dimension is highly intercorrelated, which creates a unidimensional scale of overall LMX quality. Items on the LMX-7 include questions such as "How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?" and "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" Although the original measure was a 5-point scale, participants answered questions using a 7-point continuous sum of scale and range from 1 to 7, where 1 indicates a negative answer and 7 indicates a positive answer. The LMX-7 is considered one of the most comprehensive measures of overall LMX quality, with a coefficient alpha value of .89 from members' perspectives of LMX quality (Gerstner and Day, 1997).

Interactional justice. The two dimensions of interactional justice – interpersonal and informational justice – were measured using Colquitt's (2001) 9-item scale. Colquitt adapted the interactional justice scale from research and previous studies on justice. The interpersonal justice scale contains four items measuring the extent to which employees feel their supervisors treat them fairly on a personal level. The informational justice scale contains five items measuring the extent to which employees feel their supervisors communicate and share information fairly. Both

interpersonal and informational scales have reported Cronbach alphas of .79 and discriminant, construct, and predictive validity have been established (Colquitt, 2001). Although the original scale was created using a 5-point Likert-type scale, this study used a 7-point Likert type scale (1=to a small extent, 7=a large extent) to have consistency of scales throughout all measures. Participants answered questions pertaining to their perceived supervisor's treatment of them, including "Has he/she treated you with dignity?" and "Has he/she been candid in his/her communication with you?" Appendix D shows the full interactional justice scale.

Overall job satisfaction. Overall job satisfaction was measured using six items from Brayfield and Roth's (1951) 18-item index of job satisfaction. The 6-item measure, created by Price and Mueller (1981), has reported coefficient alpha values ranging from .84 to .91 (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993). Brooke, Russell, and Price (1988) established discriminant validity of the adapted 6-item measure, using confirmatory factor analysis to distinguish the measure from job involvement and organizational commitment measures. The original measure uses a 5-point Likert-type scale, but this study used a 7-point Likert-type scale for consistency, where 7=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree. Items include statements such as "I feel fairly satisfied with my job for the time being" and "I find real enjoyment in my work." One item from the measure is reverse scored: "I am often bored with my job." The 6-item measure of overall job satisfaction can be found in Appendix E.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment was measured using the shortened version of Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The shortened 9-item OCQ is highly positively correlated with the original 15-item OCQ (Huselid & Day, 1991). Cronbach's alpha has been reported at .85, .86, and .92 (Dulebohn & Martocchio, 1998; Aryee, Luk, & Stone, 1998; Huselid & Day, 1991).

Participants rated their agreement or disagreement about statements on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). Examples of phrases include “I really care about the fate of this organization” and “I am proud to tell others I am part of this organization.” The full shortened version of the OCQ can be found in Appendix F.

Overall organizational justice. Employees’ perceptions of overall organizational justice were measured using Ambrose and Schminke (2009) 6-item Organizational Justice Scale (OJS). The OJS scale uses 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree) and includes phrases like “Overall, I’m treated fairly by my organization” and “For the most part, this organization treats its employees fairly.” The OJS has a reported Cronbach’s alpha of .93 and construct validity has been established using confirmatory factor analysis (Ambrose and Schminke, 2009). The full scale can be found in Appendix G.

Demographic variables. Participants were asked to report tenure with organization and their full-time/part-time status. Tenure with organization has been shown to influence burnout (Martin & Schinke, 1998; Weisberg, 1994). In a meta-analysis of the relationship between employee organizational commitment and career stages, Cohen (1991) operationalizes employee career stages in three categories: up to 2 years (early stage), 3 – 8 years (middle stage), and 9 or more years (late stage). As this study also measured organizational commitment, this study measured participants’ tenure using Cohen’s career stages to better protect participants’ identities. Also, studies of the relationship between employees’ full-time/part-time status and job attitudes have varying results on the effect of full-time/part-time status on job attitudes, such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Conway & Briner, 2002; Thorsteinson, 2003; Martin & Sinclair, 2007). A search of the literature on differences between part-time and full-time employees’ levels of burnout revealed small differences in burnout to occur between part-

time and full-time employees, but research is still limited (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). To further this area of research, participants were asked to provide their current full-time/part-time status.

Data Analysis

To test the hypotheses and proposed model, the questionnaire data was coded and entered in SPSS. Below in Table 1, frequencies of the measured characteristics of the sample are provided. In Table 2, descriptive statistics of each measured variable, including means, standard deviations, variance and skewness are provided. A reliability analysis of each scale was conducted. Typically, reliability analysis with a Cronbach's alpha exceeding .70 is acceptable. All scales exhibited strong reliability, ranging from .87 to .94. To test hypotheses 1 – 3, Pearson correlation coefficients (r) were computed to determine relationships between the variables. Correlations between all variables in this study are displayed in Table 3. To test hypotheses 4 – 7, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used. A post hoc analysis of the relationship between participants' full-time/part-time status and tenure with organization was computing using a t -test.

Table 1. Frequencies of Sample

Characteristic	n	%
Tenure with Organization		
Up to 2 years	66	35.7
3 – 8 years	55	29.7
9 or more years	64	34.6
Employment Status		
Part-time	60	32.4
Full-time	125	67.6

Table 2. Scale Variables' Descriptive Statistics

Variable	<i>M</i>	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness
Transformational Leadership	4.49	1.03	1.05	-0.55
Transactional Leadership	4.71	1.41	2.00	-.059
LMX Quality	4.78	1.29	1.67	-0.66
Interpersonal Justice	5.71	1.36	1.84	-1.18
Informational Justice	5.14	1.38	1.91	-0.77
Emotional Exhaustion	2.35	1.18	1.40	0.49
Job Satisfaction	5.11	1.24	1.55	-0.78
Organizational Commitment	5.17	1.28	1.63	-0.90
Overall Organizational Justice	4.75	1.34	1.80	-0.63

Chapter 4

Results

The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between employees' perceptions of their leaders' transformational and transactional communication behavior, LMX quality, interactional justice, and emotional exhaustion, and in turn, how these relationships affect employees' perceptions of overall organizational justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. This section will be organized around the study hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1 suggested transactional leadership would be positively related to informational justice, which in turn would be negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to overall organizational justice. To test the relationships for hypothesis 1, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed. Transactional leadership was positively related to informational justice ($r = 0.68, n = 182, p = 0.01$), informational justice and emotional exhaustion had a moderate negative correlation ($r = -0.36, n = 154, p = 0.01$), and informational justice and overall organizational justice had a moderate positive correlation ($r = .49, n = 184, p = 0.01$). Hypothesis 1 was fully supported.

Hypothesis 2a suggested LMX quality would highly correlate with interpersonal justice. To test hypothesis 2a, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed, and a strong positive relationship between the variables was found ($r = 0.76, n = 178, p = 0.01$). Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Hypothesis 2b suggested LMX quality would highly correlate with informational justice. To test hypothesis 2b, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed, and a strong positive relationship between the variables was found ($r = 0.79, n = 177, p = 0.01$). Hypothesis 2b was supported.

Hypothesis 3 was fully supported. A Pearson's correlation coefficient was computed to test the negative relationships between emotional exhaustion and three employee perceptions: job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall organizational justice. There was a moderate negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and job satisfaction ($r = -0.53$, $n = 156$, $p = 0.00$), a moderate negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and organizational commitment ($r = -0.39$, $n = 156$, $p = 0.00$), and a moderate negative correlation between emotional exhaustion and overall organizational justice ($r = -0.46$, $n = 156$, $p = 0.00$).

Table 3. Summary of Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Transformational Comm.	-									
2. Transactional Comm.	.73*	-								
3. LMX Quality	.75*	.71*	-							
4. Interpersonal Justice	.64*	.62*	.76*	-						
5. Informational Justice	.72*	.68*	.79*	.78*	-					
6. Emotional Exhaustion	-.35*	-.27*	-.30*	-.29*	-.36*	-				
7. Overall Job Satisfaction	.52*	.44*	.49*	.42*	.55*	-.53*	-			
8. Org. Commitment	.52*	.39*	.47*	.36*	.45*	-.39*	.59*	-		
9. Organizational Justice	.57*	.39*	.52*	.42*	.49*	-.46*	.54*	.75*	-	
10. Organizational Tenure	-.07	.00	-.05	-.19*	-.12	.18*	-.21*	-.07	-.22*	-

*Correlations are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), using Pearson's r

Hypotheses 4 – 7 suggest mediating relationships among the study variables. Per guidance from Anderson and Gerbing (1988), structural equation modeling was used to test hypothesized mediating relationships using aggregated measures. Prior to aggregating the measures, factor analyses on the measures were computed to verify the factor structure of each measure. As expected, each measure exhibited a factor structure consistent with theory and prior evidence. A global fit index provides evidence that constructs are correctly specified. The hypothesized relationships were tested first using SEM. As is evident in Table 4, model fit was not acceptable according to standard heuristics. Standardized Total Effects, Direct Effects, and Indirect Effects of the hypothesized model can be found in Tables 5 – 7. Thus, three additional models were developed to determine an acceptable fit. The final model exhibited acceptable global fit, as is evident in Table 4. The original and final models are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

Table 4. Global Fit Indices of Hypothesized and Alternate Model

Model	<i>TLI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMSEA</i>	<i>Chi-square</i>	<i>df</i>
Hypothesized Model	.283	.665	.303	380.265	21
Alternate Model	.919	.948	.120	380.265	23

*TLI (Tucker Lewis Index): model accepted at .90 or higher

**CFI (Comparative Fit Index): model accepted at .90 or higher

***RMSEA (Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation): model approaching .10 or lower

Table 5. Hypothesized Model, Standardized Total Effects (Fixed N=141)

	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Informational Justice	LMX Quality	Interpersonal Justice	Emotional Exhaustion
Informational Justice	.264	.593	-.616	.569	.382	.000
LMX Quality	.427	.541	.023	-.021	-.014	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.210	.562	-.584	.540	-.637	.000
Emotional Exhaustion	-.098	-.222	-.101	-.216	-.141	.000
Overall Org. Justice	.120	.270	.161	.260	.173	-.327
Org. Commitment	.042	.094	.043	.092	.060	-.426
Job Satisfaction	.054	.121	.055	.118	.077	-.546

Table 6. Hypothesized Model, Standardized Direct Effects (Fixed N=141)

	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Informational Justice	LMX Quality	Interpersonal Justice	Emotional Exhaustion
Informational Justice	.043	.000	.000	.000	1.054	.000
LMX Quality	.435	.563	.000	.000	-.039	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.000	.711	-1.611	1.489	.000	.000
Emotional Exhaustion	.000	.000	-.328	-.006	-.043	.000
Overall Org. Justice	.000	.000	.333	.000	.000	-.327
Org. Commitment	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.426
Job Satisfaction	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.546

Table 7. Hypothesized Model, Standardized Indirect Effects (Fixed N=141)

	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Informational Justice	LMX Quality	Interpersonal Justice	Emotional Exhaustion
Informational Justice	.221	.593	-.616	.569	-.671	.000
LMX Quality	-.008	-.022	.023	-.021	.025	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.210	-.149	1.026	-.949	-.637	.000
Emotional Exhaustion	-.098	-.222	.227	-.209	-.098	.000
Overall Org. Justice	.120	.270	-.172	.260	.173	.000
Org. Commitment	.042	.094	.043	.092	.060	.000
Job Satisfaction	.054	.121	.055	.118	.077	.000

Table 8. Alternate Model, Standardized Total Effects (Fixed N=141)

	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	LMX Quality	Informational Justice	Interpersonal Justice	Job Satisfaction	Org. Justice
Transformational Leadership	.718	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
LMX Quality	.762	.477	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Informational Justice	.651	.567	.582	-.657	.369	.000	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.606	.528	.542	-.611	-.657	.000	.000
Job Satisfaction	.384	.241	.504	.000	.000	.000	.000
Overall Org. Justice	.324	.282	.290	.171	.184	.000	.000
Emotional Exhaustion	-.241	-.174	-.276	-.050	-.054	-.380	-.292
Org. Commitment	.324	.258	.322	.118	.126	.263	.688

[illegible]

Table 10. Alternate Model, Standardized Indirect Effects (Fixed N=141)

	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership	LMX Quality	Informational Justice	Interpersonal Justice	Job Satisfaction	Org. Justice
Transformational Leadership	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
LMX Quality	.343	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Informational Justice	.651	.567	.582	-.657	-.705	.000	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.606	-.256	-1.037	1.169	-.657	.000	.000
Job Satisfaction	.384	.241	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
Overall Org. Justice	.324	.282	.290	-.327	.184	.000	.000
Emotional Exhaustion	-.241	-.174	-.276	-.050	-.054	.000	.000
Org. Commitment	.324	.258	.322	.118	.126	.000	.000

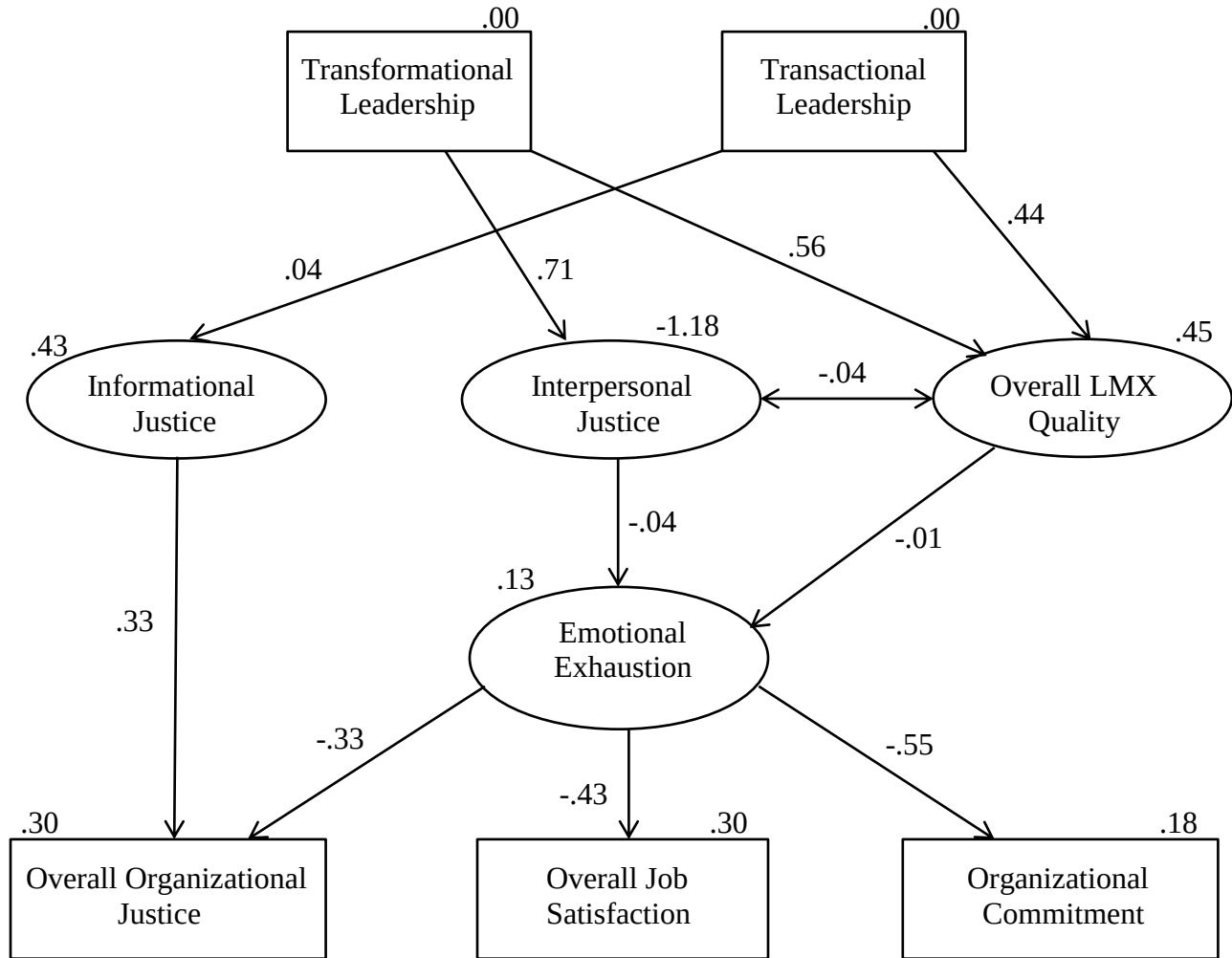


Figure 2. Hypothesized Model Results

As Figure 2 of the hypothesized model and Table 4 show, the hypothesized mediating relationships of hypotheses 4 – 7 were not statistically supported. However, the alternate model in Figure 3 had an acceptable global fit (as shown in Figure 4), and seven total mediators are implied. Hypothesis 4a and 4b claimed LMX quality would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional exhaustion and the relationship between transactional leadership and emotional exhaustion. As shown in Table 4 and Figure 2, LMX quality does not

mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional exhaustion. Instead, the alternate model indicated an indirect relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership. The alternate model implied that LMX quality mediated the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership and employee job attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational justice). In turn, these job attitudes negatively influenced emotional exhaustion.

Both hypotheses 5a and 5b suggested transformational leadership to positively relate to interpersonal justice, and transformational justice would mediate the relationship between interpersonal justice and LMX (5a) and the relationship between interpersonal justice and emotional exhaustion (5b). To test for a positive relationship between transformational leadership and interpersonal justice, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed and a strong positive relationship was found between the two variables ($r = 0.638$, $n = 178$, $p = 0.01$).

The hypothesized model did not support the proposition that transformational leadership mediates the relationships between interpersonal justice and LMX or interpersonal justice and emotional exhaustion. However, the alternate model did imply interpersonal justice mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and informational justice, suggesting transformational leadership positively influenced interpersonal justice, leading interpersonal justice to positively influence informational justice.

Hypothesis 6 suggested interpersonal and informational justice would mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes. This hypothesis was not supported by the hypothesized model or the alternate model. However, the alternate model did suggest employee job attitudes to mediate the relationship between informational justice and

emotional exhaustion. Informational justice positively influenced employee job attitudes, which in turn negatively influenced emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis 7 suggested LMX quality would mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes. This hypothesis was not supported by either the hypothesized model or the alternate model. The alternate model did suggest, however, that employee job attitudes also mediated the relationship between LMX quality and emotional exhaustion. As LMX quality increases, employee job attitudes increase, which in turn decrease emotional exhaustion.

Several unpredicted relationships were revealed in the alternate model. First, transactional leadership was found to mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and LMX quality. Transactional leadership positively influenced transformational leadership, which in turn positively influenced LMX quality. Second, LMX quality was found to mediate the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership and interpersonal justice. Both transformational and transactional leadership positively influence LMX quality, which in turn positively influences interpersonal justice. Finally, both job satisfaction and organizational justice positively influenced organizational commitment.

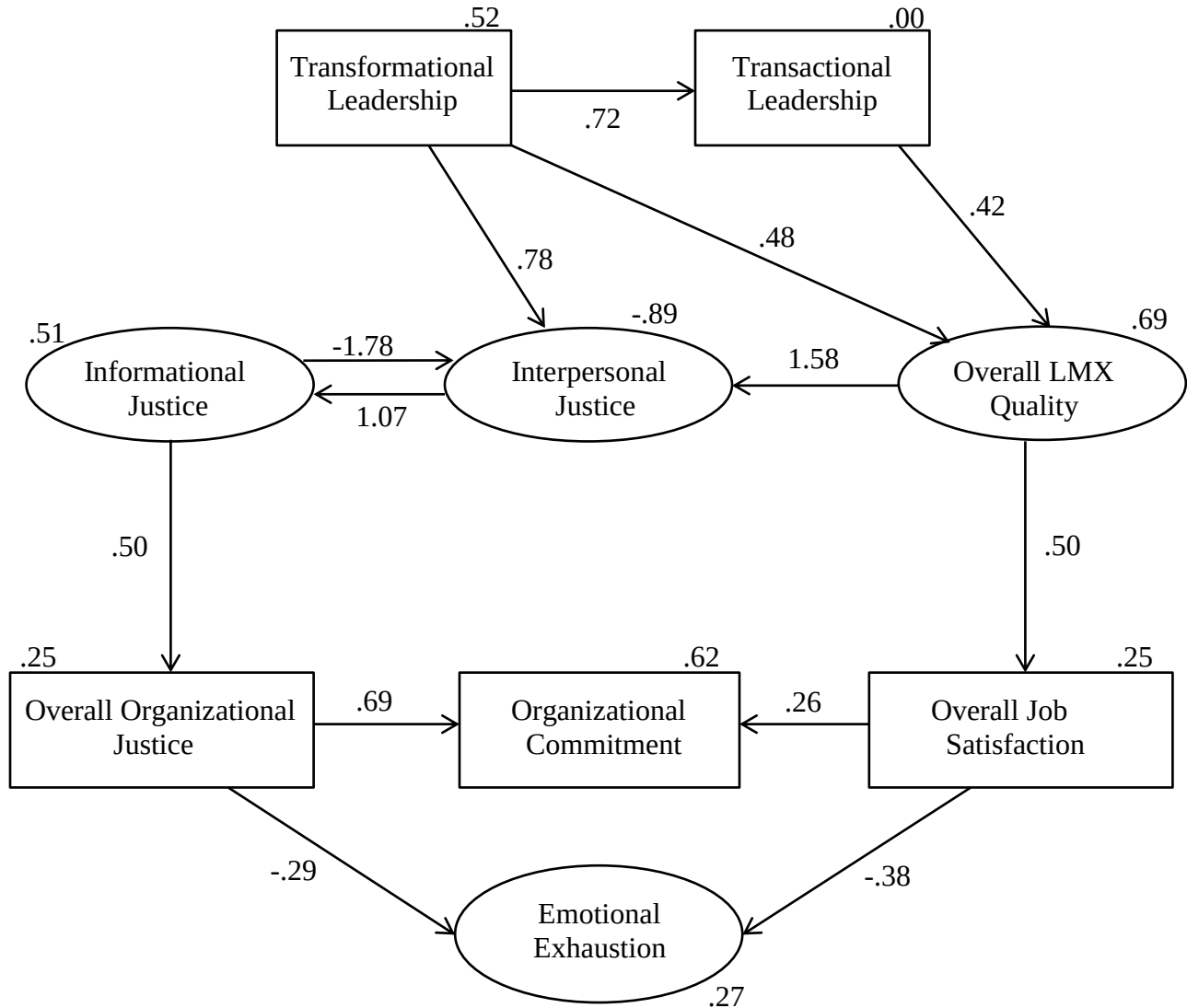


Figure 3. Alternate Model Results

As a whole, the alternate model suggests a chain of relationships which indirectly influence emotional exhaustion. According to Figure 3, transformational leadership moderately influence emotional exhaustion. According to Figure 3, transformational leadership moderately influences overall LMX quality, and strongly influences interpersonal justice and transactional leadership. Transactional leadership moderately influences overall LMX quality. In turn, LMX quality then positively influences interpersonal justice, and interpersonal justice then positively

influences informational justice. In turn, informational justice influences interpersonal justice. At this point on the alternate model, informational justice mediates the relationship between interpersonal justice and overall organizational justice, and LMX quality mediates the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership and both interpersonal justice and overall job satisfaction.

As organizational justice is influenced by informational justice and job satisfaction is influenced by LMX quality, both organizational justice and job satisfaction positively influence organizational commitment. Finally, both organizational justice and job satisfaction negatively influence emotional exhaustion. Thus, emotional exhaustion is shown to be indirectly influenced by overall LMX quality and informational exhaustion on the interpersonal level, and directly influenced by organizational commitment and job satisfaction on the organizational level.

Post Hoc Analysis

Participants' full-time/part-time status and tenure with the organization were measured but not tested along with hypothesized relationships. To test the relationships between participants' full-time/part-time status and the measured variables of the study, an independent sample *t*-test was computed. The test revealed several significant differences in all measured variables – except organizational commitment – between part-time and full-time participants. The full-time group of participants ($M = 29.72$, $SD = 7.69$) showed lower levels in job satisfaction than the part-time group of participants ($M = 32.63$, $SD = 6.64$), with $t(183) = -2.57$, $p < .05$. For emotional exhaustion, the full-time group of participants ($M = 45.49$, $SD = 22.30$) showed higher levels of emotional exhaustion than the part-time group of participants ($M = 36.98$, $SD = 18.35$), with $t(152) = 2.40$, $p < .05$. For LMX quality, the full-time group of

participants ($M = 31.66$, $SD = 9.59$) showed significantly lower LMX quality than the part-time group of participants ($M = 36.92$, $SD = 6.58$), with $t(174) = -3.74$, $p < .05$.

For interactional justice, the full-time group of participants showed significantly lower levels of perceived interpersonal and informational justice ($M = 21.52$, $SD = 5.69$; $M = 24.69$, $SD = 7.19$ respectively) than the part-time group of participants ($M = 25.40$, $SD = 3.65$; $M = 27.65$, $SD = 5.86$), with $t(174) = -4.81$, $p < .05$ for interpersonal justice and $t(181) = -2.77$, $p < .05$ for informational justice. Part-time participants also showed higher levels of perceived organizational justice ($M = 31.45$, $SD = 6.98$) than full-time participants ($M = 26.94$, $SD = 8.13$), with $t(182) = -3.68$, $p < .05$. Finally, full-time participants showed lower levels of perceived transactional and transformational supervisor communication ($M = 22.66$, $SD = 7.32$; $M = 104.35$, $SD = 25.79$ respectively) than part-time participants ($M = 25.00$, $SD = 6.17$; $M = 113.27$, $SD = 20.38$ respectively), with $t(180) = -2.14$, $p < .05$ for transactional communication and $t(175) = -2.33$, $p < .05$ for transformational communication.

To test the relationship between participants' tenure with the organization and the study variables, a general liner model (GLM) was computed for each study variable. Applying a 95% confidence level, the GLM revealed significant differences between the groups in job satisfaction, interpersonal justice, and overall organizational justice. Job satisfaction was significantly different with $F(2, 185) = 4.66$, $p = .01$. Participants who worked for the organization 0 – 2 years revealed the highest levels of job satisfaction ($M = 32.27$, $SD = 6.56$), followed by participants who worked 3 – 8 years with higher levels of job satisfaction ($M = 31.29$, $SD = 7.18$) than participants who worked 9 years or more ($M = 28.47$, $SD = 8.16$).

Interpersonal justice was also significantly different between groups ($F(2, 184) = 4.84$, $p = .01$). Participants who worked for the organization 0 – 2 years revealed the highest perceptions

of interpersonal justice ($M = 24.41$, $SD = 4.34$), followed by participants who worked 9 years or more with higher perceptions of interpersonal justice ($M = 21.98$, $SD = 5.52$) than participants who worked 3 – 8 years ($M = 21.75$, $SD = 6.09$).

Finally, there was a significant difference between groups in perceptions of overall organizational justice ($F(2, 184) = 4.50$, $p = .01$). Participants who worked for the organization 0 – 2 years revealed the highest perceptions of overall organizational justice ($M = 30.45$, $SD = 7.35$), followed by participants who worked 3 – 8 years with higher perceptions of overall organizational justice ($M = 28.40$, $SD = 8.77$) than participants who worked 9 or more years ($M = 26.29$, $SD = 7.62$).

Discussion

The goal of this study was to examine the relationships between employees' perceptions of their leaders' transformational and transactional communication behavior, LMX quality, interactional justice, and emotional exhaustion, and in turn, how these relationships affect employees' perceptions of overall organizational justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. The relationships between employees' perceptions of supervisor communication, interactional justice, and emotional exhaustion were studied, and the influence of these relationships on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational justice were tested. Only a few hypotheses proposed were supported, and the proposed model was not supported. However, an alternate model was statistically supported and provides significant insight into the relationships between the study variables.

This study contributes to employee burnout, leadership, justice, and communication literature in several ways. Little research on the influence of leader communication on employee burnout has been conducted, and scholars are now only beginning to study the complex

relationships between leader communication patterns and LMX on various workplace outcomes. However, no existing research studies the effect of leader communication behaviors on LMX quality, interactional justice, burnout, and job attitudes.

The first hypothesis suggested transactional leadership is positively related to informational justice, and informational justice is negatively related to emotional exhaustion and positively related to overall organizational justice. This hypothesis was statistically supported. The finding that transactional leadership positively relates to informational justice adds to the literature gap on transactional leadership's relationship with interactional justice. Previous research has failed to directly test the relationships between specific dimensions of organizational justice and burnout, so this finding expands the literature on a dimension of organizational justice – interactional justice – and its direct correlates (e.g., Do Boer et al., 2002; Elovainio et al., 2002; Kivimaki et al., 2003). This finding also adds to the SET literature. As supervisors interact with employees using transactional communication, shared information can be seen as a relationship-building reward, causing perceptions of informational justice to increase. By sharing this information with employees, as the analysis indicated, supervisors' communication patterns can decrease employees' emotional exhaustion and increase their perception of overall organizational justice.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b suggested LMX quality to highly correlate with interpersonal justice and informational justice, and both hypotheses were supported. This finding is consistent with Scandura's (1999) argument that LMX quality should enhance employees' interactional justice perceptions, and Masterson et al.'s (2001) study on LMX quality, which suggested LMX fully mediated the relationship between interactional justice and job satisfaction. Based on the

findings, as the overall relationship quality between supervisors and employees increases, both interpersonal justice and informational justice will increase with it.

The third hypothesis suggested emotional exhaustion would negatively relate to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and overall organizational justice, and the hypothesis was supported. The literature on burnout largely supports emotional exhaustion's negative influence on organizational commitment and job attitudes (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Pines & Keinan, 2005; Alarcon, 2011). This negative relationship is easily accepted, considering as one experiences emotional exhaustion, more negative attitudes are expected to occur as well.

Both hypotheses 4a and 4b proposed LMX quality would mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional exhaustion and the relationship between transactional leadership and emotional exhaustion. Neither hypothesis was supported in the hypothesized model, but the alternate model proposed in this study suggests an indirect relationship between LMX quality and both transformational and transactional leadership. The alternate model implies that LMX quality mediates the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership and employee job attitudes (job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational justice). This finding is consistent with several previous studies that suggest LMX quality often mediates the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and their correlates (Krishnan, 2004; Basu & Green, 1997; Gerstner & Day, 1997). This finding is also consistent with the SET literature, suggesting that both the communication patterns and relationship quality between a supervisor and an employee influence an employee's level of emotional exhaustion.

Both hypotheses 5a and 5b suggested transformational leadership to positively relate to interpersonal justice; transformational justice would then mediate the relationship between

interpersonal justice and LMX and the relationship between interpersonal justice and emotional exhaustion. A strong positive relationship was found between transformational leadership and interpersonal justice, but the data analysis of the hypothesized model did not support the proposition that transformational leadership mediates the relationships between interpersonal justice and LMX or interpersonal justice and emotional exhaustion. No research was found on the above relationships, so the hypotheses were exploratory in nature. However, these two hypotheses were based on Rupp and Cropanzano's (2002) social exchange model of organizational justice – in which a study revealed supervisor-subordinate social exchange mediates the relationship between perceived interactional justice and citizenship behaviors – and Mitchell and Cropanzano's (2005) suggestion for more research on transaction and relationships.

However, the alternate model did reveal that interpersonal justice mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and informational justice, suggesting transformational leadership positively influences interpersonal justice. Then, interpersonal justice positively influences informational justice. As mentioned above, no literature was found on the relationships between transformational leadership and the two dimensions of interactional justice. The alternate model introduces an idea in which an employee's perception of interpersonal justice facilitates the relationship between the supervisor's transformational leadership and the employee's perception of informational justice. Although this idea is new, more research is needed to further test the relationships between transformational leadership, interpersonal justice, and informational justice.

Hypothesis 6 was not supported, which proposed interpersonal and informational justice mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes. However, the alternate model did show employee job attitudes mediated the relationship between

informational justice and emotional exhaustion. Informational justice positively influenced employee job attitudes, which in turn negatively influenced emotional exhaustion. The literature on emotional exhaustion in a mediated relationship is varying, and the findings of emotional exhaustion in this study are inconsistent with the few, found studies (Zohar, 1995; Tepper, 2001; Elovainio et al. (2001). Van Dierendonck et al. (2004) and Cole (2010) suggested emotional exhaustion mediates the relationship between perceptions of justice and job attitudes. Although this finding contradicts previous research, it implicitly suggests emotional exhaustion, job attitudes, and justice are more complex relationships than previously believed.

The final hypothesis – which proposed LMX quality would mediate the relationship between emotional exhaustion and employee attitudes – was not supported. However, the alternate model did suggest employee job attitudes mediated the relationship between LMX quality and emotional exhaustion. So as LMX quality increases, employee job satisfaction and overall organizational justice increase as well. In turn, the employee job attitudes negatively affect emotional exhaustion. This idea that emotional exhaustion is influenced by job attitudes was not found in the literature, and as mentioned above, the literature on emotional exhaustion and its mediators and outcomes is inconsistent.

Most researchers have tested emotional exhaustion as a correlate of job attitudes, but have not sought to determine a directional relationship between emotional exhaustion and job attitudes (Cole et al., 2010; Iko & Brotheridge, 2003; Alarcon, 2011). More notably, Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) and Mulki et al. (2006) published studies that suggest emotional exhaustion to be a determining factor of job attitudes, which contradict the findings of the present study. This finding is a reversed model of most emotional exhaustion studies, which typically views emotional exhaustion as a determining factor of job attitudes. Thus, the relationship between

emotional exhaustion and job attitudes may seem more complex than previously believed, and more studies on their relationship is suggested.

LMX quality was also found to mediate the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership and interpersonal justice. Both transformational and transactional leadership positively influence LMX quality, which in turn positive influences interpersonal justice. This finding is consistent with the literature of on LMX quality as a mediator between transformational and transactional leadership and employee attitudes (Wang et al., 2005; Dvir et al., 2002). However, no research was found on LMX quality as a mediator between both transformational and transactional leadership and interpersonal justice.

Several unpredicted relationships were revealed in the alternate model and are worth noting. Transactional leadership was found to mediate the relationship between transactional leadership and LMX quality. Transactional leadership positively influenced transformational leadership, which in turn positively influenced LMX quality. This finding is inconsistent with the literature on transformational and transactional leadership and LMX, which largely suggests LMX mediates the relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership (Krishnan, 2004; Basu & Green, 1997; Gerstner & Day, 1997). However, this corresponding relationship between transactional and transformational leadership is consistent with Burns' proposition that the two variables are opposite yet complement one another.

Finally, the alternate model showed both job satisfaction and organizational justice positively influenced organizational commitment. This finding is somewhat consistent with the literature presented in this study. Colquitt et al. (2001) found organizational commitment to be an outcome of organizational justice, and Porter et al. (1974) found job satisfaction and organizational commitment be strongly correlated. This finding suggests both job satisfaction

and organizational justice strongly influence organizational commitment, but organizational commitment does not necessarily influence job satisfaction or organizational commitment.

The post hoc analysis also revealed significant differences between both part-time and full-time participants and participants' tenure in the organization. Part-time participants showed higher levels of job satisfaction, LMX quality, interpersonal and informational justice, overall organizational justice, and both transactional and transformational supervisor communication. Full-time participants, on the other hand, reported higher levels of emotional exhaustion. These findings not only add to the organizational behavior research, but they also expand the literature on burnout, which is relatively inconclusive on the effect of employee full-time/part-time status on burnout.

Participants' tenure in an organization was shown to influence participants' job satisfaction, interpersonal justice, and overall organizational justice. Specifically, participants working 2 years or less with the organization showed the highest levels of job satisfaction, followed by participants employed for 3 – 8 years. Participants who worked 9 or more years with the organization reported the lowest levels of job satisfaction.

Interpersonal justice was also significantly different between groups. Participants who worked for the organization 0 – 2 years revealed the highest perceptions of interpersonal justice. Although participants who worked 9 years or more had higher perceptions of interpersonal justice than participants who worked 3 – 8 years, the difference was by a relatively small margin.

Finally, there was a significant difference between groups in perceptions of overall organizational justice. Once again, participants who worked for the organization 0 – 2 years revealed the highest perceptions of overall organizational justice, followed by participants who

worked 3 – 8 years with higher perceptions of overall organizational justice than participants who worked 9 or more years.

These findings on organizational tenure are consistent with Cohen (1991), who suggested career stages moderate organizational outcomes. These findings are also consistent with Porter et al.'s (1974) findings, which discovered employees' attitudes to become less favorable over time. Thus, as employees progress through career stages, perceptions on job satisfaction, interpersonal justice, and organizational justice become less favorable over time. Also, it is worth noting the relationship between tenure and organizational commitment were not significant in this study, but was supported in Cohen's study.

Limitations. Despite the significant findings of this study, several limitations exist. First, the employees who participated in this study performed very different jobs, from manual labor to wholly administrative positions. These varying job functions could have influenced the findings because of the differing job functions and industry expectations. Second, this data was collected at one time using questionnaires, so it is lacking longitudinal support and could be influenced by transient bias and common method variance. Third, social desirability could also have influenced the findings of this study. Participants were informed their supervisors were also participating in the study. Although supervisors were not administered the survey in the same area as employees, this knowledge of supervisors' participation in the study could have influenced the findings. Finally, the questionnaire contained 76 items – with nine of these items being two-parted – so survey fatigue could also have influenced the findings of this study.

Future research. The study of the relationships between supervisor communication, LMX, interactional justice, burnout, and employee attitudes is very limited, so there are many avenues for further research. First, several relationships were discovered between supervisors'

transformational and transactional communication and interactional justice, but research on these variables is sparse. More exhaustive studies are suggested to better understand the relationships between these transformational and transactional communication and interpersonal and informational justice. Another variable suggested to be studied in more detail is emotional exhaustion. The correlations and relationships in this study regarding emotional exhaustion reveal contradictory relationships compared to previous studies. Whether is an antecedent, a mediator, or an outcome, emotional exhaustion needs to be further studied to better understand its relationship with the variables in this study.

Also, this study focused solely on employees' perceptions of supervisors' communication patterns, LMX quality, and interactional justice. To better understand supervisor-employee relationships and the effects of supervisor communication patterns, a study including both supervisors and employees (paired together) would provide a better understanding of how supervisors' perceptions of their communication patterns compare to employees' perceptions of the supervisors' communication style. Additional external factors suggested for study include additional industries, different types of jobs, organizational culture, and cultural comparisons (i.e., collectivist culture versus individualist culture). These external factors – along with others not listed – could easily influence supervisors' communication and employees' perceptions.

Chapter 5

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between employees' perceptions of their leaders' transformational and transactional communication behavior, LMX quality, interactional justice, and emotional exhaustion, and in turn, how these relationships affect employees' perceptions of overall organizational justice, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Little research exists that examines the effects of leader communication behaviors on employees' perception of LMX quality, interactional justice, burnout, and job attitudes. Specifically, these relationships can influence employees' organizational commitment, turnover intention, and the overall health of employees and the organization. This study's hypothesized model posited that transformational and transactional supervisor communication influence interactional justice and LMX quality, and in turns these variables influence emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion was then predicted to influence employees' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and perception of overall organizational justice.

Although support for only a few hypotheses was reported and support for the hypothesized model was not established, an alternate model revealed several significant relationships between the study variables. The alternate model revealed that supervisors' communication does influence interpersonal justice and LMX quality, and in turn, LMX quality influences job satisfaction and informational justice (which is influenced by interpersonal justice) influences overall organizational justice. Organizational justice and job satisfaction then influenced organizational commitment and emotional exhaustion.

This model shows how employees' perceptions of their supervisors' communication patterns can influence both the supervisor-employee relationship, the attitudes of employees, and

employees' stress levels. Although perceived supervisor communication had a weak effect on employees' emotional exhaustion, it is important for supervisors and organizations to understand the indirect effects of supervisors' communication and how these indirect effects can influence the health of both employees and the organization. The direct and indirect effects in the alternate model also add to social exchange theory, which is the overarching theory for this study. Future researchers should further study the relationships among the variables of this study to better understand the direct and indirect effects of supervisor communication on LMX quality, justice, job attitudes, and emotional exhaustion.

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Appendix

Appendix A

Maslach's Burnout Inventory (Maslach & Jackson, 1981)

		A few times a year	Monthly	A few times a month	Every week	A few times a week	Every day
Never	How often:	1	2	3	4	5	6
	How strong:	1	2	3	4	5	6
							7
		Very mild, barely noticeable			Moderate		Very strong, major

<u>Items</u>	<u>Dimension Measured</u>
1. I feel emotionally drained from my work	Emotional Exhaustion
2. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	Emotional Exhaustion
3. I feel burned out from my work.	Emotional Exhaustion
4. I feel frustrated by my job.	Emotional Exhaustion
5. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.	Emotional Exhaustion
6. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.	Emotional Exhaustion
7. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	Emotional Exhaustion
8. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	Emotional Exhaustion
9. I feel used up at the end of the workday.	Emotional Exhaustion

Appendix C

LMX-7 Scale

1. Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Often	Very often

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not a bit	A little	Some	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A good deal	The most

3. How well does your leader recognize your potential?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all	A little	Some	Moderately	Fairly well	Mostly	Fully

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that you would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
None	Very small	Small	Moderate	Moderately High	High	Very high

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances he/she would “bail you out,” at his/her expense?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
None	Very small	Small	Moderate	Moderately High	High	Very high

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely ineffective	Ineffective	Worse than average	Average	Better than average	Effective	Extremely effective

Appendix D

Interactional Justice Scale

The following items refer to (the authority figure who enacted the procedure). To what extent:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To a small extent			To some extent			To a large extent
Item						Dimension
1. Has he/she treated you in a polite manner?						Interpersonal
2. Has he/she treated you with dignity?						Interpersonal
3. Has he/she treated you with respect?						Interpersonal
4. Has he/she refrained from improper remarks or comments?						Interpersonal
5. Has he/she been candid in his/her communication with you?						Informational
6. Has he/she explained the procedures thoroughly?						Informational
7. Were his/her explanations regarding the procedures reasonable?						Informational
8. Has he/she communicated details in a timely manner?						Informational
9. Has he/she seemed to tailor his/her communication to individuals' specific needs?						Informational

Appendix E

Overall Job Satisfaction

Using the scale below, describe your agreement with the following statements:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided/ Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I am often bored with my job. (reverse scored)
2. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.
3. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.
4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.
5. I like my job better than the average worker does.
6. I find real enjoyment in my work.

Appendix F

Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Directions: Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided/ Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I am willing to put a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
3. I would accept almost any types of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
4. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
6. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.
7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.
8. I really care about the fate of this organization.
9. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

Appendix G

Overall Organizational Justice Scale

Directions: Listed below is a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Undecided/ Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

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

Vita

Ashley Nelson was born in Chattanooga, Tennessee to the parents of David and Karen Nelson. She has a sister and brother-in-law – Kristen and Ryan – and two delightful nieces named Clare and Grace. She grew up in Harrison, Tennessee, where she attended Snow Hill Elementary School, Hunter Middle School, and Ooltewah High School. Ashley then attended the University of Tennessee – Knoxville, becoming a third-generation Volunteer. She majored in Communication Studies and minored in Journalism and Electronic Media. After graduating summa cum laude, Ashley moved to Sevierville and managed a property management and vacation rental office in Gatlinburg, Tennessee.

Inspired by a former professor and a thirst for knowledge, Ashley decided to return to the University of Tennessee to pursue a Master of Science in Communication and Information degree with a concentration in Communication Studies. She accepted a graduate assistant position with University Housing, where she served as an assistant hall director and worked with the campus living and learning communities. Upon completing her master's degree, Ashley plans to reenter the professional workforce before returning to academia to pursue a doctorate degree.