

**T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES**



**THE EFFECT OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE ON JOB
EMBEDDEDNESS: THE ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT: A
CASE STUDY OF WHITE-COLLAR EMPLOYEES**

MASTER'S THESIS

IKHLAS ABDIRAHMAN ALI

**Department of Business
Business Administration Program**

SEPTEMBER, 2022

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APPROVAL PAGE

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the research "The Effect of Leader-Member Exchange on Job Embeddedness: The Role of Psychological Contract." Which I presented as a master's or doctoral thesis is written without any aid in breach of scientific ethics and traditions throughout the entire project phase until the conclusion of the thesis, and that the works I have benefitted from are those included in the references (October 2022).

IKHLAS ABDIRAHMAN ALI

FOREWORD

After honoring Allah Almighty and my family for their unwavering support, I'd want to convey my gratitude to Dr. Burcu Aydın Küçük, my thesis advisor. For all her help, input, and suggestions. Thanks to her! With Dr. Burcu's help, I was able to improve my research skills and have a better understanding of the academic and research fields.

September 2022

IKHLAS ABDIRAHMAN ALI

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ABSTRACT

One of the most significant ideas for organizations is job embeddedness, which was examined in this study by focusing on the influence of leader-member exchange and psychological contracts. In this context, firstly, the concepts used in the research were explained and an in-depth literature review was conducted on the variables. Organizations' importance was discussed and relationships between variables explained after the theoretical study of the variables. This study, which is quantitative in nature, utilized not just demographic information but also three different measurement methods to determine the correlations between these variables during the research data collection process. In this context, data were obtained using the self-reporting technique through the Leader-Member Exchange LMX-7 Scale, the Work Embedded Scale and the Psychological Contract Scale. White-collar workers in Istanbul's service industry make up the study's sample. There were 301 participants in all who completed the survey, and the results were analyzed using SPSS (version 21), a statistical software for social science research. First, the construct validity and reliability of the scales were tested, and then hypothesis tests were started. As a result of the regression and moderator analyzes adopted in testing the hypotheses, the relationships between the variables were explained. According to the results of the research, firstly, there is a strong relationship between leader-member exchange and the degree of job embeddedness (β -value .702, $R^2 = .787$, P-value .000). This relationship shows that leader-member exchange has a significant impact on job embeddedness. In testing the sub-hypotheses, leader member exchange have a significant effect on fit to community, as evidenced by the statistical significance of all sub-variables (β -value .774, $R^2 = .733$, P-value .000). Moreover,

leader-member exchange have a significant impact on the organization to fit (β -value .678, $R^2 = .682$ P-value .000). In addition, leader-member exchange has a deep impact on community-related sacrifice (β - value .673, $R^2 = .634$, P value ,000). In addition, leader-member exchange is found to significantly affect organization related sacrifice (β - value .685, $R^2 = .727$, P-value 0.000). The results of the study reveal that leader-member exchange has an important impact on job embeddedness. The findings show that increasing exchange between leaders and their subordinates has a positive effect on job embeddedness. Finally, the moderator analysis applied in the research found that the psychological contract had a moderating effect on the link between leader member change and job embeddedness. However, the value of this interaction is that the psychological contract has a low level of moderator effect. Thus, the findings of the research were evaluated, and it was seen that the hypotheses of the research were also supported in the light of the statistical analyzes applied. For this reason, the study explains the effect of leader-member exchange, which has an important place in the literature, on job embeddedness. In addition, the role of psychological contract in this relationship confirms that moderator variables can be effective in explaining such a relationship between variables.

Keywords: Leader Member-Exchange, Job Embeddedness, Psychological Contract, White Collar Employees.

LİDER-ÜYE ETKİLEŞİMİNİN İŞE GÖMÜLMÜŞLÜK ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ: PSİKOLOJİK SÖZLEŞMENİN ROLÜ

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, örgütler için önemli kavramlardan olan işe gömülmürlük üzerine odaklanarak lider üye deęişimi ve psikolojik sözleşme kavramlarının işe gömülmürlük üzerindeki etkisi araştırılmıştır. Bu bağlamda ilk olarak, çalışmada kullanılan kavramlar açıklanmış ve deęişkenler üzerine derinlemesine bir literatür taraması yapılmıştır. Deęişkenlerin teorik olarak tartışılmasının ardından bu kavramların örgütler için önemi tartışılmış ve aralarındaki ilişkiler açıklanmaya çalışılmıştır. Nicel bir çalışmaya dayanan bu çalışmada, söz konusu deęişkenler arasındaki ilişkilerin tespit edilmesi amacıyla, araştırma verilerinin toplanması aşamada demografik deęişkenlerin yanı sıra üç farklı ölçme aracından faydalanılmıştır. Bu kapsamda, Lider-Üye Deęişimi LMX-7 Ölçeęi, İşe Gömülmürlük Ölçeęi ve Psikolojik Sözleşme Ölçeęi aracılığıyla veriler öz-deęerlendirme teknięi kullanılarak elde edilmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemini İstanbul ilinde hizmet sektöründe çalışan beyaz yakalı bireyler oluşturmaktadır. Toplam 301 katılımcıya uygulanan anket sonucu elde edilen veriler, sosyal bilimlerde araştırmalar için kullanılan bir istatistik paketi olan SPSS program (version 21) ile analiz edilmiştir. İlk olarak ölçeklerin yapı geçerlilięi ve güvenilirlięi test edilmiş ve ardından hipotez testlerine geçilmiştir. Hipotezlerin test edilmesinde benimsenen regresyon ve moderatör analizleri sonucunda deęişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler açıklanmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, ilk olarak, lider-üye etkileşimi ile işe gömülmürlük derecesi arasında güçlü bir ilişki bulunmaktadır (β -deęeri .702, $R^2= .787$, P deęeri .000). Bu ilişki, lider- üye deęişiminin işe gömülmürlük üzerinde önemli bir etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Lider üye deęişimlerinin, tüm alt deęişkenlerin istatistiksel anlamlılıęıyla kanıtlandığı gibi, topluma uyum üzerinde önemli bir etkisi vardır (β -deęeri .774, $R^2= .733$, P-deęeri .000). Dahası, lider-üye deęişimi, organizasyona uyumu üzerinde büyük bir etkiye sahiptir (β -deęeri .678,

R²= .682, P-deđeri .000). Ayrıca, lider- üye deđişiminin toplumsal fedakarlığı önemli ölçüde etkilediđi (β - deđeri .673, R²= .634, P deđeri .000) ve son olarak, lider- üye deđişiminin örgütsel fedakarlık düzeyini de önemli ölçüde etkilediđi (β - deđeri, .685, R²= .727, P-deđeri .000) görölmüştür. Çalışmanın sonuçları, lider-üye etkileşiminin işe gömülmüşlük üzerinde büyük bir etkisi olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bulgular, liderler ve astları arasındaki etkileşimi artırmanın işe gömülmüşlük üzerinde bir etkisi olduğunu göstermektedir. Son olarak, araştırmada uygulanan moderator analizi, psikolojik sözleşmenin, lider üye deđişimi ile işe gömülmüşlük arasındaki bağlantı üzerinde düzenleyici bir etkiye sahip olduğunu doğrulamaktadır. Ancak söz konusu etkileşimin deđeri psikolojik sözleşmenin düşük düzeyde düzenleyici etkisinin olduğu yönündedir. Böylece, araştırmanın bulguları deđerlendirilmiş ve uygulanan istatistiksel analizler ışığında araştırmanın hipotezlerinin de desteklendiđi görölmüştür. Bu nedenle çalışma, literatürde önemli bir yere sahip olan lider-üye deđişiminin işe gömülmüşlük üzerindeki etkisini açıklamaktadır. Ayrıca psikolojik sözleşmenin bu ilişkideki rolü de moderatör deđişkenlerin deđişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi açıklamada etkili olabileceđini doğrulamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Lider-Üye Deđişimi, İşe Gömülmüşlük, Psikolojik Sözleşme, Beyaz Yakalı Çalışanlar.

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ABBREVIATIONS

JB : Job Embeddedness

LMX : Leader member exchange

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I. INTRODUCTION

There are still issues in workplace Training and attracting staff can give companies an edge over their rivals, but the best techniques for doing so remain a mystery (Abdul Hakim Ahmad Dardar, Ahmad Jusoh and Amran Rasli , 2012). Off-the-job integration and the exchange of leadership roles have been studied by researchers to see what factors influence whether a worker stays in a particular position (LMX). Having an emotional connection to one's community outside of work can help a worker stay in the organization and thus help them remain a part of the community (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). The formation of an alliance between a leader and a member or a member of the workforce may also be connected to employee satisfaction and plans to leave the company. For many business leaders, finding and retaining skilled employees is one of the most difficult challenges they face. (Melissa Rodrigues Ataide Silva , 2019). Organizational leaders who recognize and enforce strategies to decrease the amount of voluntary turnover of staff would be best prepared to face the related difficulties. It is the degree to which a person is unwilling or unable to resign or leave a job (Mitchell, Holtom Lee.Thol mas S ablynski, 2001)

The term "out-of-the-workplace integration" refers to a person's subjective attachment to a residential group that is strong enough to keep them at their current firm to remain part of the community. For example, community-based social organizations, church attendance and fundraising are all examples of workforce involvement in the local community. It is a social construction known as "out-of-the-job embeddedness" that might influence a person's decision to stay or leave a work (Maura Galletta MSc, PhD, Igor Portoghese MSc, PhD, Maria Pietronilla Penna MSc, Adalgisa Battistelli MSc, PhD, Luisa Saiani RN, BNSc, MNsc, 2011). In the context of job integration, employees' personal attachments play an important role in shaping their behavior Unlike on-the-job integration, it is made up of elements that have nothing to do with the job itself, but rather with the desire to remain in the four areas where one currently resides. Family, church, social, educational, charity and

community events all play a role. (Saravanakumar, 2019).

Off-the-job embeddedness is a subjective attachment that an individual may have to a residential group that would produce emotions intense enough to remain within the current company as a way of remaining within the community (M. Secret & Jennifer E. Swanberg, 2008). Retaining quality employees is a necessity for executives and small business owners (Mohamat-Sabri Hassan Norman Mohd Saleh Aulia Rahman Zaleha Abdul-Shukor, 2010).

A recent study by (Uta Wilkens, Daniel Nermerich, 2011) found that an agreement on an understanding or contract between the manager and the workers is a basic basis for the building of relationships, as it establishes an existing understanding between the two parties to the contract. This unwritten contract is the way relationships are formulated, established, (M. Secret Jennifer E. Swanberg, 2008) and if they are ignored, they are reprehensibly destroyed in the workplace. Research from Wilkens and Nermerich (2011, also points out that workers need a flexible and up-front management system to maintain a high level of job satisfaction. In other words, the success of the employee depends heavily on the employer's style of management. More specifically, small business owners stressed the need to fulfill the verbal obligations of workers defined in the verbal contract.

These verbal contracts are unwritten partnerships and are seen as a crucial element in the formation and preservation of a quality workforce (Madhavi Raulapati Manasa Vipparthi Sisira Neti, 2010). These unwritten agreements or verbal contracts are referred to as psychological contracts.

Representatives and followers enter psychological contracts that determine a variety of workplace outcomes, including productivity and employee loyalty Using the Psychological Contract, you may create a shared understanding of the reciprocal nature of the connection between employer and employee, as well as the implicit responsibility that both parties' bear (Dulac Tanguy Coyle-Shapiro, Jacqueline A. M Henderson, David J Wayne, Sandy J, 2008). Despite its lack of formality, the psychological contract aids in determining what tasks must be completed to keep the business viable and profitable (David W. Warren David J. Gutierrez Eric R. Keim, 2008). To improve the psychological contract between the leader and his or her subordinates, this study can be of help. It has been suggested that the psychological contract acts as a moderator of the interaction between leader member exchanges

(LMX) and job embeddedness because it was initially designed to establish objectives, values, and obligations as defined by the employer and the employee.

A. Significance of the Study

When employers know how off-the-job embeddedness affects leader member interaction and the importance of a psychological contract, they may better target their efforts at employee retention. Since the service sector is always changing, this study may be of interest to the corporate world. It's tough to pin down exactly what changes and activities will be required to keep a business profitable and growing in the future. Employees and managers often have an informal, unwritten agreement known as a "psychological contract." It is difficult to describe this type of organization because it is unbound and has no boundaries. This study will assist to clarify the relationship and give future academics an opportunity to expand on it. Employees with low degrees of dedication are more likely than those with high levels of commitment to leave their jobs fast. Absenteeism rises, failures cost money, and stress levels rise because of a lack of commitment. Such disappointing outcomes will cost a company dearly (Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J, 1997).

B. Problem Statement

In private and public organizations, job satisfaction has been examined, but little is known about Job embeddedness (Biddle, W. A., 2010) in this field. Quitting one's job can be extremely expensive, both financially and in terms of one's standing in the company. "Why do people leave?" and "Why do they stay?" have been constant questions for social scientists for years. (T. R. Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablenski, & Erez, 2001.) (T. R. Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablenski, & Erez, 2001.) Researchers in the subject of job embeddedness have discovered that job embeddedness comprises a wide range of influences on employee retention. Employers have likened job embeddedness to a "net in which a person may be trapped" (T. R. Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001, p. 1104). The degree to which people are connected to one other and the ease with which those relationships can be severed are two of the most important features of job embedding. For even more information, please see the paper by T. R. Mitchell and colleagues (2001): Holtom, Lee, Sablenski and Erez. Trust in leadership and

followership might be lost without having a knowledge of the psychological contract that was always applied to. In the end, unsuccessful contracts led to a broken partnership and a lack of trust between the leader and the follower. An examination of psychological contracts and their effect on employee retention was undertaken in this study. Employees with low levels of job embeddedness and an inadequate leader member exchange were the focus.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Research on "job embeddedness" is featured in this chapter. The concept of embeddedness was formed by breaking down the theory's six elements. The 2001 study by Mitchell et al. and the subsequent usage of the idea by other researchers were both thoroughly examined. Sections of the chapter were separated off. An introductory literature review was followed by an in-depth discussion of recent advancements in the subject of job embeddedness. Fit, ties, and sacrifice are the three pillars of the theory, along with the six subcategories: fit to the organization, community, ties to the organization, links to the community, and sacrifice to the organization, community. Fit and sacrifice are also subcategories. Research on job embeddedness patterns will be displayed after the breakdown of components and sub-divisions. "embeddedness" has been used in sociology to describe how social interactions influence and limit economic activity (Granovetter Uzzi, 1996).

Digital networks may be viewed as a "stuckness" or "limitation" during this process. According to Mitchell and his colleagues (2001), an employee's commitment to his or her employer was initially characterized as "embeddedness" in the workplace. They defined job embeddedness as the sum of all the factors that maintain people in their current jobs. According to Mitchell and his colleagues (2001), an employee's commitment to his or her employer was initially characterized as "embeddedness" in the workplace. They defined job embeddedness as the sum of the factors that retain people in their current jobs. Researchers have long sought to understand why people join organizations, why they are motivated to perform, and why they choose to stay. Are there any implications for employee work enmeshment from the psychological contract? Job embeddedness, a non-affective notion, questioned the prevalent belief that disgruntled people leave and money keeps them in the workplace. Several studies have shown that work embeddedness has a positive effect on employee retention, including those conducted in retail establishments, hospitals (Holtom & O'Neill, 2004), and financial institutions (Mitchell et al., 2001).

According to the Leader–Member Exchange (LME) model should be linked to the notion of job embedding that prevents employee exit in a broader sense. Holtom Brooks C. Theodore McCoy Eberly, Thomas Lee Marion, 2008) All of these factors work together to establish a web of connections between employees and their employers. Employees who are subject to a variety of limits are less likely than those who aren't to quit on their own choice.

A. The concept of job embeddedness

"Embeddedness" is a term used by sociologists to describe the ways in which social relationships effect and limit economic activity (Granovetter, 1985; Uzzi, 1996, 1997). This is an example of a social network "stuckness" that can be observed. Job embeddedness was first defined by Mitchell and his colleagues (2001) as an emphasis on employees staying with their employer. A person's level of job embeddedness, according to this theory, is the sum of all the things that maintain them in their current roles. Mitchell and colleagues (2001) first used the sociological notion of embeddedness to describe work embeddedness as being focused primarily on the retention of personnel. They defined job embeddedness as the sum of the factors that retain employees in their current roles. Research into the reasons people join companies, what drives their performance, and why they stick around has been going on for decades. Workplace Embeddedness and Leader-Member Exchange. Job embeddedness, a non-affective concept, questioned the widely held view that disgruntled workers leave their jobs while financial incentives keep them there."

In retail enterprises, hospitals (Holtom & O'Neill, 2004; Mitchell et al, 2001), and financial organizations (Holtom & O'Neill, 2004), work embeddedness has been found to have an effect on employee retention. According to the (Allen, 2006; Lee et al., 2004) LMX model should be related to the notion of job embedding that prevents employee exit in a larger sense because of this. Employees become entangled with their employers because of a variety of relationships, investments, and emotional and cognitive judgments. Multiple restraining pressures make it more difficult for people to depart a company. Many of the most important aspects of job embeddedness are influenced by an employee's "social network." What a person would give up if they left their current job or town is referred to as their "life space," which includes their connections to other people and activities both within and outside the workplace.

March and Simon's model shows how static decision-making occurs in the real world. It's a content model, not a process model, and that's why it's useless for understanding turnover. This theory does not sufficiently account for the fact that turnover decisions may be affected by goals for long-term growth and may be predicted not only by job type, but also by career stage and an employee's opinion of a certain company's career development chances. In the words of Krau (Krau 1981).

For those who are contemplating quitting their jobs, the possibilities can seem almost endless. In a prior study, people's motives for quitting their jobs were studied (March & Simon, 1958). In the workplace, there has been a shift in the balance of power, giving employees more control than ever before (Rousseau & Sperling, 2003). Numerous studies have investigated the best techniques to keep valuable employees and the high rate of employee turnover. In other words, this isn't exactly a novel concept. In the words of March and Simon, an organization's employees can either manufacture or participate (1958). While a worker can decide whether to remain in his or her position, delivering is a decision that a worker can make about whether to remain in his or her role. As a result of the attitude-driven process of optimism or pessimism, newer conceptualizations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been made available (Mitchell et al., 2001). Dissatisfied with their existing position, many people begin searching for a new one as soon as possible. The term "job embedding" comes from earlier notions regarding employee turnover.

March and Simon developed a wide-ranging voluntary turnover paradigm (1958). On the premise that quitting one's job would be easy and desired, the concept was constructed' (Jiang et al., 2012). When it comes to explaining why people leave their jobs, March, and Simon (1958, p. 99) claim that workers' views on the merits of mobility are affected by their level of job satisfaction. Writings on turnover theory typically reference the model of Kirschenbaum and Mano Negrin (1999). (Hom & Griffeth 1995; Kirschenbaum and Mano Negrin 1999).

According to the general attrition model employed by Mitchell et al. (2001), which integrates components of Lewin's (1951) Field Theory model, there are both organizational and group factors that aid an individual in remaining at work. Field theory (Lewin, 1951) and embedded figures (Witkin, 1950) are "research related notions that constitute the essence of the construct" in 1943 (Lewin) (Lee, Burch, &

Mitchell, 2014, p. 200). In his work on the planned approach to change, Kurt Lewin incorporated three fundamental concepts: field theory, group dynamics, and the "three-step" model of change (Bernard Burnes Bill Cooke, 2012). It is thanks to Lewin's work that academics can better grasp how a stronger or weaker environment could affect intended behavioral change. A key source of inspiration for the development of a formative or composite instrument for measuring job embeddedness came from Mitchell et al. (2001). People's interconnections, the amount to which work and communal life are linked with other elements of their existence, and the ease with which these connections can be broken compose this construct. Both your personal and professional lives are well-represented. In Lee, Mitchell, Sablenski, Burton, and Holtom's view, there are two kinds of embeddedness: on and off the work. Off-the-job embeddedness predicted turnover and absenteeism more than on-the-job embeddedness. The three components of job embeddedness are related. social exchange theory is used to better understand the relationship between workers and organizations. Originally developed by (Homans, 1958).

The social exchange theory seeks to explain how human connections resemble economic transactions. Influence is traded in social situations for a fee and a bonus. Lawler's (2001) affect theory is one of the most recent advances to the subject of social interaction theory. According to recent research, emotions play a critical role in the development of personal and community securities alike. Due to organizational decision-making considerations, this is the case (Robinson et al., 2014). These organizational or community embeddedness decision-factors influence employee performance and turnover (Welty Peachey Laura J Burton Janelle E. Wells, 2014).

Lacey Janet Burton Janelle E. Wells Connections, fit, and sacrifice all play a role in assessing job embeddedness. When studying low productivity and high employee turnover, researchers have relied on the classic Ampofo et al. (2017) paradigm, which posits that employee discontent is to blame (Jeong-Sil Choi Kyung Mi Kim, 2015).

Some of the most important aspects of job embeddedness, such as job satisfaction and commitment, have nothing to do with the Voluntary Turnover Intention (VTOI). To answer the question, "Why do employees stay or leave their

job?" Holtom and Inderrieden (2006) developed a new paradigm called "Job embeddedness." Several scholars have studied the connection between embeddedness and employee performance and turnover over the years. In the Hussain and Deery (2018) study on self-initiated expatriates' turnover intentions, embeddedness on the work was found to be correlated with lower turnover intentions. The result that (Hussain & Deery, 2018) discovered that off-the-job integration reduced the link between shock and the intention to leave is highly noteworthy. While Job Embeddedness can focus on the factors that encourage people to stick with their jobs, it also considers the sacrifices that individuals would have had to make within their workplace and their community for them to leave. Employee turnover costs can be reduced by evaluating and improving job embeddedness.

Shared knowledge of historical events can establish shared experiences among people who were born at the same time. If different generations were exposed to distinct historical events, they may have formed their own unique perspectives. It is based on a "selected optimized primary compensation" (SOC). A combination of these interactions and biological variables leads to the formation of personalities that are deemed stable by the age of 30 (Alexandra M Freund Paul B. Baltes, 1997,1989). Be prepared for generational differences in personality traits because of the life experiences people have while they are still growing up (Schuman & Scott, 1989). Recruiting workers from different generations will become increasingly challenging due to generational differences in job goals. (Lyons& Kuron, 2013). Learning about other people's sacrifices and efforts can have a positive effect on each of these generations.

The theory of "job embeddedness," on the other side, focuses on why someone stays rather than why they quit. In 1994, Lee and Mitchell (referred to as the unfolding model) did a report on a recent attrition study in which they uncovered several ways in which employees left their professions (Lee et al., 2004). Focusing on outcomes such as satisfaction, participation, and commitment to a more objective standard of quality (Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014). Mitchell et al. (2001) put out a notion that they considered was critical to determining when people had left their positions. The concept of job embeddedness evaluates whether a person should stay to work despite their dissatisfaction. Their definition of job embeddedness was "individual links to other individuals, teams, and organizations; their expectations of

work and community fit; and what they think they would have to lose if they leave their positions," as stated by Mitchell and colleagues (2001). People who are "job entrenched" (Kohyar Kiazad Brooks) are more likely to stay in their existing positions. Christopher Holtom The Honorable Peter W. Hom, Jr. Alexander Newman (2015, Alexander Newman, 2015)

A few antecedents of the phenomena were uncovered using March and Simon's turnover model. Employees who outperformed their expectations were more likely to leave their positions, according to a 1973 study by Porter and Steers. A subsequent study by Price (1977) indicated that employees' feelings about other aspects of their work could influence their decision to leave the organization. They are less likely to quit if they have good ties with both their boss and coworkers. An employee's likelihood of leaving the company increases when the job's requirements are not clearly explained or if the remuneration is insufficient. Furthermore, both the work environment as well as the non-work environment have been linked to employee retention by Price and Mueller (1981, 1986). Research shows that employee turnover can be reduced by an employee's sense of family responsibility. It is critical to examine the antecedents of employees' views of embeddedness in their employment and organizations considering the established relationships between embeddedness and critical individual and organizational outcomes. This theory has shown the existence of work embeddedness as a distinct notion and its predictive validity in predicting employee performance and engagement. One of the earliest study streams defined the concept, demonstrated its distinctness, and created an accurate and trustworthy measurement. Researchers have also looked at how embeddedness affects things like job satisfaction, performance in and outside of the role, and employee turnover. Except for Allen (2006) and Felps et al., (2009) studies, few attempts have been made to find elements that may drive employees to get immersed in their jobs and organizations. First, the theory of job embedding sought to explain more variance in employee turnover (Mitchell et al., 2001). In a sample of retail and healthcare employees, Mitchell et al. (2001) found a partial correlation of -.08 and -.14 between the variables.

B. The dimension of job embeddedness.

According to these academics, the three primary components of employment embeddedness are links, fit, and sacrifice. Managers that pay attention to each of these aspects will be able to improve productivity and morale while also reducing employee retention and tardiness.

1. Sub-divisions to Job embeddedness

Job embeddedness can be divided into two categories: "on" and "off." Off-the-job embeddedness is a link to the group, whereas on-the-job embeddedness is a relationship to the employer Rebecca J. Bennett is a writer Steve M. Jex (2007). On-the-job or organizational embeddedness, as well as off-the-job or community embeddedness, have a role in an employee's decision to quit an organization (Lee, Mitchell, Sablinski, Burton, & Holtom, 2004). Workers have both link and fit embeddedness because of their ties to the organization and community (link embeddedness) as well as their attachment to the organization and community if they leave it (fit embeddedness) and the sense of abandonment they would experience if they left it (loss embeddedness) (sacrifice embeddedness). Embeddedness in one's job can be measured in three ways: via links, fit, and sacrifice. Each level has two sub-dimensions dependent on whether the effects occur at work or in the community, creating a six-dimensional structure.

C. The three dimensions are explained further below

1. Fit

Opinion is the only factor that can determine how an individual fits into his or her work environment. Having a common set of goals, beliefs, and future aspirations is essential for anyone to believe that they fit in with their organization or culture. An organization or group is less likely to leave if an individual is well-suited to the job (Mitchell, et al., 2001). When a person can fit better in one location and not the other, the evaluation of how well they fit into their workplace or community should be conducted separately. They have a strong fit with the organization but not with the community since they are dissatisfied with where they reside Possibly because of the company's closeness, the person would have to relocate to a place they don't like, or

perhaps the only place where they can afford it (Charles A O'Reilly Jennifer A. Chatman David F. Caldwell, 1991). It's likely that this will be a source of contention for them. However, the same might be said for someone who liked where they lived but loathed working for the organization they were employed by. Despite their displeasure, the employee is likely to stay with the company because they are such a good fit for the firm. A person's values influence the career they select, and an employer's values influence the person they choose to hire for the position (Holtom et al., 2014). To feel like a part of one's company, one must have a good sense of fit.

Fit organization: To be "fit" is to feel a part of something. Personal values, professional goals, knowledge, skills and abilities, and the qualifications of their work" are all factors that contribute to a person's strong fit inside a company. At the end of the day, people want to feel like they have a place in their workplaces. Having a contented atmosphere makes it more difficult for someone to leave that setting (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell & Lee, 2001; Mitchell et al., 2001). It is more common for employees to be fired if they don't share the company's values than those who do. Individuals who don't share the company's values are more likely to be fired than those who do. A strong sense of belonging to the organization is critical to a company's success.

Fit community: A sense of belonging in one's community is a sign that one has successfully integrated into society. A person's sense of belonging in a community can be enhanced by factors such as the weather, access to hobbies and interests, societal ideals, or even the choice of school district for one's children. This dimension was inspired by Mitchell and Lee (2001), who discovered that no previous studies had been conducted on the compatibility of an employee's work and home lives. According to the theories that helped form the theory of "Job embeddedness," all aspects of an employee's life must be considered.

2. Links

Get along with your coworkers and you'll reap some perks. It is referred to as "links" when people build informal or formal interactions with other people (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). Links facilitate in the absorption of a new employee into their company and its culture. More connected someone is to a career or community, the more committed they are. These connections are more significant

than others, such as those with colleagues and peers or with a religious leader (Maertz, Stevens, Campion, & Fernandez, 1996). As people grow older and enter committed relationships, they place greater value on certain kinds of connections than others (Mitchell et al., 2001). For example, those who have been in a position for a long period of time, are older, or have a family to take care of may be less likely to resign from their post. Cutting these links might be a challenge, therefore the person is more focused on their work because of this connection.

Links-organization: Organizational links could include coworkers or individuals they work with on a team. An organization's users feel more connected when they are connected to their organization. A strong sense of commitment to one's job can be fostered by having a large network of coworkers (Lee et al., 2004; Mitchell et al., 2001). The significance of the connections also influences the degree of embedding. When you have a solid working relationship with your supervisor, you feel more integrated into the workplace. A person's social network grows stronger as they make more friends and interact with more people. The number of persons a person knows within or outside of their company or community can be used to measure their level of connection. Although they dislike their employer or work, many people choose to stay in their current positions due of family ties (Gibbs, 2015). Friendships formed at work can build and deepen employee relationships. Their relationship has developed this way since they've spent so much time together (Asgharian, Yusoff, Yaser Mazhari, Mardani, & Hazrat Soltan, 2013). Because of the importance of connections, some organizations will employ advisers or role models on the job (Cho & Son, 2012). An employee's capacity to connect with their work improves because of this.

Links-community: Having links to one's local community might mean anything from being a member of a family or a friend group to being a part of a club or other organization. Relationships with these people outside of work can also have an effect. Individuals' decision-making is made more difficult by the presence of loved ones. Church, social groups, and sports teams, among other extracurricular activities, can all add to the stress of working full-time (Gibbs, 2015). It has been a goal of several firms to help employees improve their ties to their communities by supporting community service efforts, allowing volunteers in local events, and fostering professional interest in the community (Felps et al., 2009). To save money

on travel costs, many organizations have solely recruited locally (Felps et al., 2009). Using these strategies, employers hope to increase the likelihood that their employees will become more deeply rooted in the company.

3. Sacrifice

Sacrifice is the final component of Job embeddedness. In the context of quitting a job, sacrifice refers to the sum of the perceived costs and psychological benefits that will be lost (Mitchell, et al., 2001). The bigger the sacrifice, the less likely an individual is to give up. As an amazing example of a sacrifice that one must weigh before deciding on quitting, job security is a good one (Mitchell, et al., 2001). Also, moving up the corporate ladder is another example of an obligation that some people are unable to fulfill.

Sacrifice-organization: Sacrifice is the final component of Job embeddedness. In the context of quitting a job, sacrifice refers to the sum of the perceived costs and psychological benefits that will be lost (Mitchell, et al., 2001). The bigger the sacrifice, the less likely an individual is to give up. As an amazing example of a sacrifice that one must weigh before deciding on quitting, job security is a good one (Mitchell, et al., 2001). Also, moving up the corporate ladder is another example of an obligation that some people are unable to fulfill.

Sacrifice-community: Sacrifice can occur both inside and outside of a company. Quitting a job could mean giving up their home or church, their children's education or even the convenience of getting to work (Zhang et al., 2012). There are other possibilities for compensation, such as free daycare or even a business vehicle given by the firm (Gibbs, 2015). Also at risk is the safety of an individual within a neighborhood. There is no need to relocate to start a new career, but it may need a shift in travel hours or the ability to juggle other personal commitments. Because of this inconvenience, exiting the organization may be a more difficult decision for some people.

D. Job embeddedness in other countries

The term "job embeddedness" was developed by U.S. scholars. By Ramesh and Gelfand (2009), job embeddedness has been extended from an individual to a collective community and from the United States to India (Lee et al., 2014). Call

centers in the United States and India were put side by side by Ramesh and Gelfand. Work embeddedness has been found to be culturally suitable, according to these researchers' results" (Lee et al., 2014). Analysis of job embeddedness discrepancies in Denmark, Finland, Italy, and Spain by Tanova and Holtom (2008) was used to confirm the concept of Job embeddedness. The study demonstrated a negative association between turnover intentions and the actual turnover in countries that are more collectivistic and less individualistic. To put it another way, you can say (Kaifeng Jiang David P. Lepak Jia Hu Judith C Baer, 2012). Gender and organizational structure were studied in the research. Job embeddedness can be challenged by a turnover culture that is larger in private enterprises than in public organizations, research finds. They investigated the differences in employee values between the public and private sectors. Those who work in the public sector strive to have more fundamental traits that make them better suited to their workplace. For the most part, people who work for privately held organizations are more focused on meeting their own personal financial goals than on how their work aligns with the values of the company (Jiang, et al., 2012). To properly compensate your employees, employers must be aware of the disparities in pay that exist between different sorts of jobs. As a result of this, retention methods may need to be reevaluated.

E. Job embeddedness on public and private organizations and gender

Gender and the structure of the organization were investigated. An attrition culture that is pervasive in the private sector threatens employment embeddedness, according to the findings of this study. To be more specific, they looked at the discrepancies between the values held by employees in the public and private sectors. More crucial traits are sought for by those in the public sector to better fit into organizations. People who work for private companies tend to be more concerned with their own financial well-being and less concerned with how their job aligns with the company's core values (Jiang, et al., 2012). Employers should be mindful of the disparities in pay and benefits among different job categories. Retention strategies may need to be reevaluated considering these developments. In research, job employee may be mixed with other theories. Carlson et al. (2015) applied Job employee theory to conservation of capital theory (COR) to see whether there is an effect on an individual's degree of embeddedness. They speculated that employees

who are often in charge of the treatment of a partner, child, or parent could be more invested in their work due to the benefits than employees that do not have those same responsibilities (Carlson et al., 2015). With research, assumptions are often made. When the initial study on job embeddedness was published, it was assumed that if anyone was embedded in their job, they were still embedded in the organization (Mitchell et al., 2001). This was not the case, according to Ng and Feldman (2009).

According to their findings, a person might be immersed in several aspects of their profession, but not necessarily in the organization. Ng and Feldman (2009) felt that there should be a distinct difference between on-the-job embeddedness and occupational embeddedness once this research was published. As a result, the concept of workplace embedding was introduced. The Job embeddedness principle excludes occupational embeddedness since it does not always motivate people to stay in their jobs.

F. Research on specific components of Job Embeddedness

Community embedding is the original focus of Job embeddedness. Mitchell et al. (2001) looked at how well people fit into their communities and organizations, as well as the sacrifices they make as a result. As a result, this component of job embedding has drawn the attention of researchers. Since looked at workers who returned from foreign assignments, their degree of Job embeddedness before they left and their likelihood to leave the company following their return, researchers have taken a deeper look at this community embeddedness component (Maria L Kraimer Margaret A. Shaffer David A. Harrison Hong Ren, 2012). The authors concluded that this made sense because a person who is more integrated into their organization may become more integrated into their organization and group while on assignment. Family embeddedness has been added to the research of community embeddedness (Feldman et al., 2012; Ramesh & Gelfand, 2010). This novel idea will be the subject of additional research. Another hypothesis drawn from the Job embeddedness theory is Client embeddedness. Workers might become inseparable from their clients or customers, according to this notion (Treuren & Frankish, 2014). Dissatisfaction with pay and plans to depart were examined by Treuren and Frankish in 2014. They concentrated on low-wage workers who cared for people with impairments. Client embeddedness may assist them comprehend how a person may despise their

employer but still want to work there because of their embeddedness with clients, they thought.

G. Generational Differences in Job Embeddedness

To ensure that everyone in the office gets along, what can we do? Members of a generation have characteristics that promote social cohesiveness, as well as common values and life experiences, all of which can lead to generational stereotypes (Blythe et al., 2008). The fact that we were born in the same year makes it possible for us to share many of the same historical moments. Age and life experiences are assumed to influence one's ideas as well as one's social interactions and behavior (Ziefle, 2018). Prisms for categorizing generational differences are used to identify generational cohorts based on a person's beliefs, developmental milestones, and life experiences (Gursoy & Lu, 2016). In addition, historical, cultural, and social events shape successive generations, resulting in wide variations in their day-to-day activities, interests, and viewpoints (Ziefle, 2018). Generational differences must be considered when anticipating future actions because they might be a distinguishing element among groups. Working with people from different generations requires managers to be aware of the similarities and contrasts between the various generations. Their attitudes toward authority and institutions are influenced by their shared life experiences and fundamental values, both of which they share. There is a distinct set of values, habits and motivations associated with each generational cohort. Using demographic cohorts to examine workers will reveal job patterns and the causes of attrition for each cohort of employees. Understanding the comparisons and contrasts between groupings of people in their respective generations in terms of intent to remain will thus assist workforce managers in maximizing employee retention (Wiedmer, 2015), as well as companies in developing generation-specific methods to attract and empower workers within each generation in their workplaces (Chapman & Radford, 2015).

1. Generational cohorts.

The post-World War II Baby Boomer generation, which now makes up half of the labor force, was born between 1946 and 1964. (Saber, 2013). Today, Baby Boomers are the wealthiest and healthiest generation, thanks to their upbringing in an

era of economic expansion and opportunity (Lewis & Wescott, 2017). When it comes to the traditional Baby Boomer family, the father was a key breadwinner, and the woman was a primary caretaker (Saber, 2013). A third of the population is comprised of Generation X, which was born between 1965 and 1980. (Lewis & Wescott, 2017). Parents were laid off because of business downsizing, and the social and technological landscape was rapidly changing as a result (Saber, 2013).

When a child's parents are divorced or both work, the term "latch key kid" is sometimes used to describe the child (Lewis & Wescott, 2017). A majority of today's workforce is comprised of those born between 1995 and 2010. There is a scarcity of literature on this century, although it is growing (Chicca & Shellenbarger, 2018). The world in which Generation Z grew up is well-known, even though little is known about them (Wieder, 2015). They are considered the most technologically adept age since they have grown up with the internet and have never known life without it (Andrea, Gabriella & Timea, 2016). Although the extent and depth of research into job embeddedness has increased, there is no empirical evidence to support claims that Generations X, Millennials, and Generation Z all make similar or distinct decisions about quitting or staying at jobs.

Given the fact that there are significant cultural divides between the generations of workers, which may lead to issues with employee retention (Oladapo, 2014), several researchers have investigated the topic of job embeddedness from a broader perspective (Drost, et al., 2015), with a particular emphasis on how it relates to Millennials. Younger employees' perceptions of organizational embedding have been examined in other studies. According to Ng (2016a), the value of HR tactics in retaining older workers is understated (Bruno Emans Annet de Lange B.I.J.M. van der Heijden Hubert P. L. M. Korzilius Klaske N. Veth, 2015). These examples from the literature show a wide range of results and differences when taken as a whole. An examination of criteria such as job embeddedness across the contemporary multigenerational workforce is useful for determining if generational cohort differences matter.

H. Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-member sharing was first presented by Dansereau, Cashman, and Graen back in 1973. The vertical-dyad connection theory was the initial name for

this theory. In contrast to other organizational leadership notions, the phrase stresses the interaction an organization's leader and an employee. It is borrowed from the larger field. The most important aspect of this principle is its focus on the working relationships between members of a work unit, squad, department, or organization. (Dockery, T. M., & Steiner, D. D, 1990). Researchers use the exchange relationship between a leader and a single individual as a primary unit of analysis (dyad). Organizational and individual outcomes can be predicted by the organization's leadership-member connection, says this idea (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). A leader's limited time and energy means that he or she will only build close working relationships with a select few of their subordinates, according to Graen (1976). According to Dockery and Steiner, "these subordinates are known as the in-group, and leader-member contacts with this group are known as leadership exchanges". Those who remain in the out-group are referred to as supervisory exchanges, and communications with them are known as such According to Dienesch and Liden(1986). leader-member exchanges revolve around the concept of mutuality. Both the leader and the member benefit from mutuality, which is characterized by a mutually beneficial exchange of value. Dienesch and Liden postulated three dimensions of mutuality: contribution, loyalty, and affect. Each member's contributions (spoken or implied) were referred to as work-oriented activities that contributed to the shared goals (expressed or implied). (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 624).

Perceived high performers are entitled to more resources than those who are thought to be underperformers. When the leader and the member openly praised each other's activities and character, it was referred to as loyalty. "Loyalty is essential" for a leader-member connection to thrive (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, p. 625). Dienesch and Liden (1986) describe addiction as "the reciprocal relationship individuals have for each other based largely on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional standards".

The leader and the member's first meetings are influenced by the leader's affect, whereas loyalty and contribution grow over time. Depending on the outcome of this first meeting, the relationship may evolve into one of leadership or supervisory type. The relationship begins with the leader delegating and progresses through the stages of member response, leadership attributions, and leadership acts

(Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

For Liden and Maslyn, professional respect is an individual's "perception of how far [he or she] has developed] within and/or outside of the company a reputation for success in his or her line of work" (2005). The lack of dedication and contentment of leadership and subordinates was linked by a difficult connection. In Maertz and Griffeth's view, the quality of supervision has a substantial effect on an employee's motivation to stay (2004). Research by Dockery and Steiner (1990) studied the effect of the first meeting between leaders and members on the development of their relationship. The authors examined the leaders' level of liking for the members, the employees' tactics for influencing the leaders, and the members' skill. Findings from this research show that a leader's liking for certain subordinates and their assessment of each subordinate's competency determine the quality of the exchange after the initial interaction. According to the research, members can gain from being open to appreciating their leaders, using some ingratiating actions, and refraining from assertiveness during their initial engagement (Dockery & Steiner, 1990). A study by Gerstner and Day (1997) found a strong link between leader-member exchange and job performance, contentment, commitment, attitudes of leadership positions, and turnover intention. The writers, Gerstner, and Day discovered this "lens through which the entire work experience is interpreted" in the literature they studied (p. 840). Even while the theory has changed over time, the basic unit of analysis, the leader-member exchange, has remained the same. Traditional leadership approaches that highlight the leader's actions are an alternative to this new paradigm (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

I. Classifying leadership theory

They have made strong arguments for the necessity of taking degrees of interpretation into account in theory growth by the likes of Klein and colleagues (Klein and Dansereau 1994; Dansereau and Alutto and Yammarino, 1984) as well as by Rousseau (1985). Klein & al. (1994) claim that the "transparency, testability, comprehensiveness, and creativity of organizational theories would be improved if more attention was paid to levels concerns" (p. 224). This is especially true for those in positions of leadership responsibility. Many years and thousands of studies have been devoted to the subject of leadership, yet we still don't have a good grasp on

what it is or how to execute it. There are a lot of theories about leadership, but there doesn't appear to be a unified approach to understanding how they all fit together. The fact that taxonomies of methodologies for leadership research have not been fully investigated from a level's perspective is one reason for the uncertainty in the field of leadership research. Taxonomy development from this perspective could help fill in the gaps in existing leadership analyses. For example, it gets more difficult to classify new leadership concepts into broad approaches as they emerge. Categorizations like personality, behavior, and contingency/situational (Yukl, 1989) have traditionally focused on how a supervisor's traits, habits, and styles affect how effective or ineffective he or she is situations.

Although there are many views on leadership, this typology does not explicitly encompass other styles of leadership (like the follower or the relationship between the leader and the follower). Studies on ideas like Leader-Member Exchange and Empowerment Models, which do not neatly fit into this typology, may be classified incorrectly because of the lack of clarity. Trying to organize the numerous leadership theories in a way that students can understand can be difficult for textbook authors and instructors.

Due to its narrow focus on the primary and lack of consideration of secondary outcomes, this typology runs the risk of resulting in ineffective research plans (e.g., the follower or the dyadic relationship). A proper taxonomy must be constructed to have a greater knowledge of the dynamics of leadership. We can do this by expanding our classification system to include both the leader and the follower, as well as examining the dyadic interaction between the two. There are several studies that support the idea that a person's mental health can be affected by their socioeconomic status (Hollander, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Because leadership involves all three domains (e.g., situational approaches), a study of leadership could concentrate on one or more of these areas, such as models that focus on the leader (such as trait or behavioral approaches), the follower (such as empowerment approaches), or the relationship in general (such as LMX).

The taxonomy recommends a multi-domain approach to leadership research to acquire the most accurate representation of the process. According to Rousseau's 1985 theory and Klein and colleagues' 1994 proposal.¹ Due to the unique and relevant knowledge that can be derived from studying only one domain, the

prediction power and generalizability of the information derived from that study may be diminished. A larger proportion of the likely leadership contribution can be captured through careful sampling from diverse contexts within a single study, increasing both the statistical significance and the practical utility of the findings. According to Graen and Cashman, Liden and Graen were the first to build the LMX-7 (1975, as mentioned in Scandura and Graen, 1984). The year was 1980, and the source was Scandura and Graen (1984). They employed LMX-7 member scales in their study of leadership effects on 83 computer-processing employees at an international service organization to examine how the initial leader-member exchange status tempered those effects on leaders.

J. Domains of leadership

Table 1 depicts the three leadership domains: leader, follower, and connection. In a leadership-based environment, the leader is the primary focus. Robert J. House (1995). This is the most pressing problem: What mix of personal characteristics and leadership activities is most effective for achieving desired results? Tests can be used to determine how leaders act and think about themselves and how they are perceived by people around them. It is important to conduct contingency design analyses to identify how the leader-focused factors interact with the situational aspects to influence the outcomes. Taking a follower's perspective will lead to hypotheses and analyses that are primarily focused on the issues of the follower. Is there a good balance between follower characteristics and follower behavior? Questions provided by this method focus on how certain leadership types and strategies are formed and effective in terms of followers' traits, actions; personalities; views; aspirations; and so forth. That is why this research will offer insight on how followership affects leadership outcomes.

To summarize, a relationship-based strategy focuses on the relationship between the leader and the followers. Is there a favored set of interpersonal characteristics that, when combined, will produce the best outcomes? Other dyadic relationship characteristics (such as reciprocal influence between leaders and followers) will be examined, including aspects like mutual respect, mutual obligation, and trust. We'll also look at the correlations between these relationships and the outcome variables of interest, as well as the ways in which effective

leadership relationships can be developed and maintained. Each of these areas should be acknowledged in accordance with the leadership taxonomy. Exactly how much do leadership outcomes depend on the interplay of a leader's, a follower, and the relationship between the three? To get a fuller picture of the leadership process, it's important to look at the results from each area in combination. After determining the ideal mix for each of these domains, further research might study how they can be changed to improve leadership effectiveness in specific scenarios (e.g., how leadership relations can be improved). When it comes to nurturing positive attributes in people's leadership, followership, and interpersonal connections, it might be worthwhile to investigate the topic. There are references to Katherine Klein (1995) and Robert J. House's (1995).

Table 1. Three Domain Approaches to Leadership

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What is leadership?	Leader-based Appropriate behavior of the person in leader Role	Relationship-based Trust, respect, and mutual obligation that generates influence between parties	Follower-based Ability and motivation to manage one's own Performance
What behaviors constitute leadership?	Establishing and communicating vision; inspiring, instilling pride	Building strong relationships with followers mutual learning and accommodation	Empowering, coaching, facilitating, giving up Control
Advantages	Leader as rallying point for organization; common understanding of mission and values; can initiate wholesale change	Accommodates differing needs of subordinates; can elicit superior work from different types of people	Makes the most of follower capabilities; frees up leaders for other responsibilities
Disadvantages	Highly dependent on leader; problems if leader changes or is pursuing inappropriate vision	Time-consuming; relies on long-term relationship between specific leaders and members	Highly dependent on follower initiative and ability
When appropriate?	Fundamental change; charismatic leader in place; limited diversity among followers	Continuous improvement teamwork; substantial diversity and stability among followers; Network building	Highly capable and task committed followers
Where most effective?	Structured tasks; strong leader position power; member acceptance of leader	Situation favorability for leader between two extremes	Unstructured tasks; weak position powers; member nonacceptance of leader

Concerns about leadership (leadership-based), followership (follower-based), and interpersonal relationships (relationship-based) may prompt researchers to investigate how specific attributes might be fostered to promote desired outcomes. It was George B. Graen Mary and George B. Graen Mary U hl-Bien (1995). Leadership is the dependent variable in an inverted fashion. Prescriptive techniques and experimental designs would be employed in the investigation. This information can be used to create training courses that focus on the advancement of leadership in a variety of contexts.

K. Stages of LMX Theory Development

Numerous stages of progress have taken place in Leader member-exchange research, as it is presently known.

1. Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory (1978-1983)

Between 1978 and 1983, a theory known as the vertical dyad connection hypothesis was initially put forth as an official hypothesis (Bess & Goldman, 2001, Dansereau, 1995 House & Aditya, 1997). The key idea of the vertical dyad linkage theory is that each subordinate's relationship with the boss is distinct (House & Aditya, 1997). There are two types of dyads: in-group dyads and out-group dyads, which represent the many types of partnerships (House & Aditya, 1997). Vecchio and Gobdel confirmed the validity of the in vs. Out group theory. At this period, there was a major shift in how people thought about leadership. As a result of the research conducted by Ohio State and Michigan, the Average Leadership Style Approach (ALS) became the dominant concept on leadership at this time (G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). A major idea of the ALS theory is that all members of a group are treated uniformly by the group leader, and this uniformity extends to their interpersonal connections as well. As a result, leadership is analyzed from a group perspective. As Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argued, leadership is best understood and conceptualized at the individual level rather than the collective level of an organization. This was the time when the ALS technique was replaced by the ALS approach, which was based on different assumptions. The individual leadership approach assumes that the leader handles each subordinate differently because of the diverse relationships or dyads they have with each other. ' Research by Dansereau,

Graen and Haga (1975) is commonly referenced in this field. Based on the number of citations to works that cite the ALS and individual leadership seminal pieces, the individual leadership research stream is more prevalent.

2. Individual Leader-Member dyad relationships (1984-1989).

Individual leader-member dyad relationships were the subject of a second official development of the LMX theory between 1984 and 1989. (Bess & Goldman, 2001, pp. 439-440; Dansereau, 1995; House & Aditya, 1997). Now that we've shown that certain connections exist, we can turn our attention to evaluating the quality of those connections (House & Aditya, 1997). It also focuses on the connection between LMX and the features of the organization (G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Bess and Goldman (2001, pp. 439-440) and House and Aditya (2001, pp. 439-440) identify some notable authors in this stage of development (1997). Schriesheim (Castro), (Schriesheim, Chester A Castro, Stephanie L Cogliser, Claudia C, 1989).

3. High quality (in-group) and low quality (out-group)

The third and final stage of LMX research is centered on three main issues. Initially, it examined the issue of in-group vs. out-group behavior in a group (Bess & Goldman, 2001, pp. 439-440). First and foremost, "investigating and describing the formation of high-quality LMX partnerships" was a top focus" (House & Aditya, 1997, p. 431). Finally, according to Graen and Uhl-Bien, "managers should enable all employees to have access to the LMX process by making the initial offer of forming LMX partnerships to each subordinate" (G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 229).

4. Various dyads and effects on outcomes.

Individual leader-subordinate interactions, leader-all-subordinate relationships, and group subordinate connections are the subject of the fourth phase of the LMX study. LMX research is divided into these three categories (Bess & Goldman, 2001, pp. 439-440). By House and Aditya, this level aims to "understand group outcomes and network phenomena" through LMX (House & Aditya, 1997, p. 431). According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), in this phase, the focus shifted from formal links to other types of information relationships, as well as an analysis of how the collective differences in relationships within a unit affected the total group.

5. Criticisms of LMX – Construct and Instrumentation

The design of the LMX theory and the measuring equipment required to verify it are two of the most frequently criticized aspects of it (Burns & Otte, 1999, p. 240; Northouse, 2007, pp. 159-161). A two- or three-dimensional model would be more accurate. This is by far the most divisive issue surrounding the framework. As far back as 1986, it wasn't until Dienesch and Liden (1986) established the concept of multiple dimensions for LMX that it became widely accepted. An important part of being a LMX member is showing "public support for the goals and character" of the other member, which includes "public support for their work-oriented activity" (Dienesch & Liden, 1986, pp. 624-625). If Graen and Uhl-study Bien's published in 1995 is to be believed, LMX can either be one-dimensional or multidimensional. Both Dienesch and Liden agreed that LMX is multidimensional, although Dienesch and Liden disagreed on which dimensions it had. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien, these three aspects are: respect, trust, and obligation (G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 237). According to the authors, LMX is more about "working together" than it is on "liking-based features of interpersonal attraction" (G. B. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 238). LMX-7 apparatus was also built to measure the LMX generated by this construction. Respect for one's peers is a new addition to the Dienesch and Liden's LMX framework, presented in 1998 by Liden and Maslyn. Perception of how well each person of the duo has established a name for himself or herself as an expert in their respective fields within and/or outside of business, as defined by the term (Liden & Maslyn, 1998, p. 49). In addition, the LMX-MDM instrument was created to evaluate these four elements. LMX can be measured with more than these two pieces of equipment. Many inventories are used to quantify LMX, but there isn't a universally accepted approach for doing so.

L. Measuring Leader member exchange

This is one of the most used LMX measurement instruments. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), the LMX-7 questionnaire measures "leader-member exchange quality" (Northouse, 2013, p. 179). The scale measures respect, trust, and obligation between a leader and their followers. (Northouse, 2013, p. 179.). Do you feel that your boss [follower] understands your employment challenges? It is self-administered and responses are graded on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5

(always) (very often). According to Graen, and Uhl-Bien, the LMX-7 questionnaire is a valid LMX measurement (Northouse, 2013).

M. Hypothesis development

1. The Effect of Leader - Member Exchange on Job Embeddedness

Job embeddedness is addressed by a good manager who ensures that his or her staff have a decent work-life balance. Strong ties between the workplace and the broader community may and should be fostered by implementing programs designed to foster these kinds of interactions. Employees who are considering quitting may feel a sense of sacrifice because of financial incentives linked to years of service. Off-the-job sacrifices such as company cars or tickets to local sporting or cultural events might be made more desirable by a skilled manager (T (Terence Mitchell Brooks C. Holtom Thomas Lee Chris J. Sablinski, 2001). According to research on leader-member exchange relationships, leaders devote more time and attention to in-group members (those they expect to perform well) than out-group members (those they do not expect to perform well; George & Jones, 2008). However, as previously indicated, the better the leader-member exchange relationship is, the more satisfied the followers are with their work. To keep his or her employees, a smart leader should take steps to ensure that his or her team has a large enough "in-group." Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (2011, as cited in Ngoma, 2011) recommended five steps for establishing high-quality leader-member exchange relationships:

Stage 1: Begin by meeting with your team one-on-one to get a sense for each other's intents and attitudes, and to establish mutual role expectations.

Stage 2: Those who showed the greatest promise during the first meeting should be given more attention to strengthen the initial interaction and foster a sense of mutual trust and respect among the "in-group" members.

Stage 3: It is possible that some of these connections will evolve to the point where they go from being purely commercial to being really committed to the goals and vision of the work unit.

Stage 4: As a reward for their attention, provide these second and third-stage members of the "in-group" a higher level of prestige, influence, and prizes in exchange for their continued attention.

The theory of leader-member exchange is not a one-way track. It also refers to the leader's relationship with his or her employer.

Stage 5: Increase the number of people who are part of the in-group by observing and talking about it daily. According to Ngoma (2011),

The leader-member exchange paradigm is not a one-way road. It also refers to the relationship between the leader and his or her boss. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2010, as cited in Lunenburg, 2010), the leader should keep the organization's goals in mind and have faith in the organization's ability to accomplish them. Organizational bonds and organizational sacrifices are assumed to lessen the influence of leader-member exchange on the employee's willingness to stay with the business.

Therefore, the study proposes the following hypotheses:

H1: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on job embeddedness.

H1.1: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the fit to community.

H1.2: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the fit to organization.

H1.3: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the community-related sacrifice.

H1.4: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on organization-related sacrifice.

2. The definition of psychological contract

Psychological contracts are at the heart of the company-employee relationship. The psychological contract that employees sign with their employers has a direct effect on their level of effort at work (Landry et al., 2014). Psychological contracts, which determine the nature of the exchange relationship between employees and firms, are the subject of employee opinions. Employee attitudes and actions can be studied using psychological contracts, which some researchers believe are essential to the study of work relationships (Conway and Briner, 2002a). According to (Upasna A Agarwal Shivganesh Bhargava, 2009), a psychological

contract specifies what an employee owes the company and what the company expects in return. There have been studies on the psychological contract by Sharkie (Sharkie, 2005) and others that show how it affects employee attitudes and behavior. Both transactional and relational psychological contracts have been identified by academics as the two primary types of psychological contracts. A relational contract, as opposed to a transactional one, is based on emotive social interactions that are not solely economic in nature and include terms of loyalty in exchange for advancement or aid inside the company, such as getting a promotion (Robinson et al., 1994). Full-time and part-time employees may see the psychological contract in various ways. Because part-time employees have a different understanding of the psychological contract than full-time employees do, this could lead to or exacerbate existing disparities in views toward job results. Psychological contracts cause varied anxiety among full-time and part-time workers, say Freese and Schalk (1996).

A transactional contract was the focus of this study rather than a psychological contract in relational context. Full-time employees' perceptions of relational psychological contracts differ from those of part-time employees (McLean et al., 1998). For employees, psychological contracts are a representation of the terms and conditions of their work-employer relationship in their minds (Rousseau, 1995). The organization has been the principal target of psychological contract study (Rousseau, 1995). It is recognized by psychological contract theory that an individual's psychological contract can be influenced by interactions with organizational agents, such as interviews, performance evaluations and written personnel policies (e.g., supervisors, human resources staff, senior managers; Deery, Iverson and Walsh, 2006; Rousseau, 1995; Rousseau and Greller, 1994; Shore and Tetrick, 1994).

Psychological contracts might be misunderstood since they are based on sense-making processes (Rousseau, 1995). An incentive for high-performing employees is the prospect of future professional development. Employees' psychological contracts will be breached if their employers fail to offer them with enough training and promotion possibilities. This is a circumstance in which the employee evaluates his or her performance considering the goals set forth by the company leadership. When an employee perceives that the promises made do not match the actual deliverables, a psychological breach of contract has occurred.

Innumerable research has shown that breaking a psychological tie has harmful effects on businesses (Bordia et al., 2008a; Restubog and Tang, 2006; Robinson, 1996; Robinson and Morrison, 2000; Robinson and Rousseau, 1994).

N. Types of psychological contracts

Research on various types of psychological contracts serves as a logical basis for our search for various forms of job partnerships. We were left with two options after a thorough review of the literature. There is a well-known contrast between transactional and relational contracts (Rousseau, 1990, 1995). In the Shore and Barksdale typology, the degree of balance and the level of obligations are the center of attention. This is an important component of the study since it reveals the strengths and shortcomings of each type.

1. Transactional versus relational contracts

For the first time, Rousseau (1990, 1995) distinguished between psychological contracts that are only transactional and those that are merely relational. Different viewpoints on time and tangibility are to blame for their diverse qualities. There are two distinct types of transactional psychological contracts: short-term and long-term. They're extremely targeted and cost-efficient. On the other hand, long-term employment arrangements characterized by unknown duties for both parties describe relational contracts. Both economic and social/emotional, they are less well-defined and open-ended to some degree (Rousseau, 1995).

2. Degree of balance and level of obligation

Shore and Barksdale have created a new sort of psychological contract (1998). To circumvent the difficulty of psychological contract content, Shore, and Barksdale (1998) used more broad qualities that were less context dependent. As a result, the degree of equality in obligations between employers and employees, as well as the number of requirements, were both regarded key sub factors in the analysis. L.M. Shore and K. Barksdale It is said that a psychological contract is balanced when both the employee and the employer are convinced that their responsibilities are equal in scope. In determining the level of duty, the level of commitment felt by both parties to a contract was considered.

3. Psychological and implied contract

Both the truth and the recompense (Schein, 1980; Nicholson & Johns, 1985). It is a part of a psychological contract in which certain acts are judged more appropriate than others. Normative belief on the other hand, contractility can be said to apply only to those normative perspectives that include reciprocity responsibilities. Expectancy models use the phrase "performance-outcome" (PO) to describe expectations, which take on a contractual nature when services performed are the consideration for the employee.

O. Violation of a psychological contract

It is illegal for a party to violate a contract if they fail to meet the terms of the agreement. Agreements can be broken if they aren't upheld. To break a contract, you must ignore its conditions. breaching a contract means failing to fulfill its conditions. A "psychological contract violation" occurs when a corporation or other party fails to respond to a worker's contribution in a way that the worker believes they are expected to. There are many factors that lead to a person's conviction in an organizational reciprocity responsibility, including employment for an extended period, receiving subpar compensation to stay a job, and developing company-specific talents that are difficult to transfer to another employer. Breaching the parameters of a psychological contract results in more than just unfulfilled expectations. Because of this, we might deduce that the relationship between us and the organization has not progressed. A psychological contract establishes a link between one party's acts and the expectations of the other party that their contributions will be reciprocated. Rebuilding a shattered relationship takes time and effort on both sides. An extra layer of trust and a sense of connection are added to equity model transactions by psychological contracts, as are expectations of benefits that have already "paid for" themselves (reciprocal obligations).

1. The moderator role of psychological contract

Recently, there has been a lot of interest in using psychological contracts and the Leader-Member Exchange (LME) to better understand how the Leader member exchange effects employee attitudes and behaviors in the working relationship. So, it's worthwhile to investigate the psychological contract's influence on the

relationship between Leader member exchange and Job embeddedness. There are three key components to a successful exchange partnership: mutual respect and trust, as well as a shared commitment to the success of the venture. Leader-member interaction theory suggests that the quality of exchanges between employees and their leaders might predict results in terms of performance and attitude at work, especially for employees (Gerstner and Day, 1997). Exchange relationships that are characterized by trust, respect and a sense of responsibility can also help a worker's boss gain influence (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004). Jamil and colleagues (2013), for example, found that burnout and feelings of violation may be mediated by the psychological contract, which makes the relationship stronger when it is high. See Jamil for further information (Amber Jamil Usman Raja Wendy Darr, 2013). An employee-employer connection built on loyalty, trust, and long-term commitment will be undermined if their organization fails to meet a psychological contract (Jamil et al., 2013). A reduction in trust, loyalty and commitment to an employer may occur if employees perceive a negative imbalance in employee expectations, according to the social exchange hypothesis. Furthermore, employees who have high transactional contracts are more likely to lower employee creativity because of the poor quality of their work environment.

Firms and white-collar employees have had a historical "contract" that guarantees lifetime employment, a meaningful job, a good wage, and benefits, as well as a comfortable retirement. It wasn't until the 1990s that theories about the psychological contract began to gain traction, allowing for a fresh look at how the employee-manager relationship has evolved since the 1960s and '70s. When it comes to the employee-employer relationship, the obligations are split into two categories: transactional and relational. Employer-employee relationships that are based on mutual trust, respect, and loyalty are increasingly gaining attention because of the second option's increased visibility. An emphasis on reporting employee views and documenting organizational failure resulting from this imagined scenario has been a subject of empirical research since 1990. It was found in a typical study that employees who are concerned about their jobs show less loyalty to and support for their bosses. Refusal to fulfill responsibilities and divergent perceptions of promises made are the most common causes of psychological contract violations (Rousseau, 1995).

This method has so far been tested largely in the United States, but it has recently moved to institutions in other nations (Rousseau and Schalk, 2000). Questions about the concept's definition, measurement, and value have been raised concurrently by philosophers and scientists of the highest caliber. These worries and criticisms can be broken down into three main categories. Questions arise about the concept's definition and content as a first step in the research process. According to Guest, the concept's content validity has been questioned: There have also been numerous challenges of the validity and reliability of the empirical research, as well. To date, empirical research on breaches of psychological contracts has relied on one single measure rather than a variety of other ones. In doing so, researchers have tended to emphasize the viewpoint of employees while ignoring or downplaying the role of mutuality (Coyle-Shapiro and Kessler, 2000). Lastly, it's important to understand why the psychological contract has been so popular among academics in recent years. According to the typical reaction, no new contract has been universally accepted as a replacement for the former contract's emphasis on job security.

In general, people are skeptical about how much has been tampered with in terms of the previous agreement. In the US and UK, numerous research has produced conflicting results, underlining the continued confusion and controversy around this important topic. "Career positions," or occupations with a single employer that offer long-term chances, have declined in recent years in the United States, according to (Jacoby, 1999) and (Cappelli, 1999), respectively. A major factor in the late 1980s and early 1990s was a dramatic reduction in the number of white-collar jobs in the United States. In contrast to Cappelli (1999a, p. 148), Jacoby (1999, p. 172) wonders whether such cuts to white-collar positions have been in place for the last few years.

There has been a new interest in merging the Leader member exchange with the psychological contract to better understand how employee attitudes and actions in the workplace are affected by the Leader member exchange. Because of the significance of the connection between Leader member exchange and Job embeddedness, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) claim that an exchange partnership offer is founded on respect, trust, and a sense of commitment. For employees, the quality of exchanges that build links between them and their leaders is anticipated by Leader Member Exchange Theory (Gerstner and Day, 1997). As a result, employees and their supervisor's benefit from the mutual trust, respect, and accountability that

characterize high-quality exchange relationships (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004). According to Jamil and his employees, for example. The transactional psychological contract may operate as a mediator between feelings of violation and burnout, and the relationship is stronger when the contract is high. See Jamil (A. Raja; U. & W. Darr) 2013 for further information. An employee-employer connection built on loyalty, trust, and long-term commitment will be undermined if their organization fails to meet a psychological contract (Jamil et al., 2013). According to the social exchange theory, workers who notice an imbalance in employee expectations may have negative reactions, such as a decline in trust, loyalty, and dedication to their employers.

Furthermore, employees who have high transactional contracts are more likely to lower employee creativity because of the poor quality of their work environment. White-collar workers in the United Kingdom may have been disproportionately affected when job losses began in the early 1990s. There is a lack of consistency in the data from studies conducted in the late 1990s. The first study by Felstead et al. (1998) found that the impression of work and employment instability increased significantly between 1986 and 1997, however the findings for the samples were very different. As opposed to these findings that manual laborers were overrepresented in studies by Guest and Conway (1999), which found that only a small number of workers expressed concerns about their job security, an economic trade is more important to employees who have a strong transactional psychological contract (Jamil et al., 2013). When an organization fails to meet its contractual responsibilities, workers with high transactional psychological contracts are more likely to have negative supervisor-subordinate interactions than those with lower psychological contracts. The link between employee knowledge sharing and employee creativity can be predicted to be unaffected by mediation if employees have a high transactional psychological contract. The importance of the psychological contract in regulating behavior is therefore expected to be investigated further.

H2: Psychological contract has a moderator role on the relationship between leader member exchange and job embeddedness.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample and Procedure

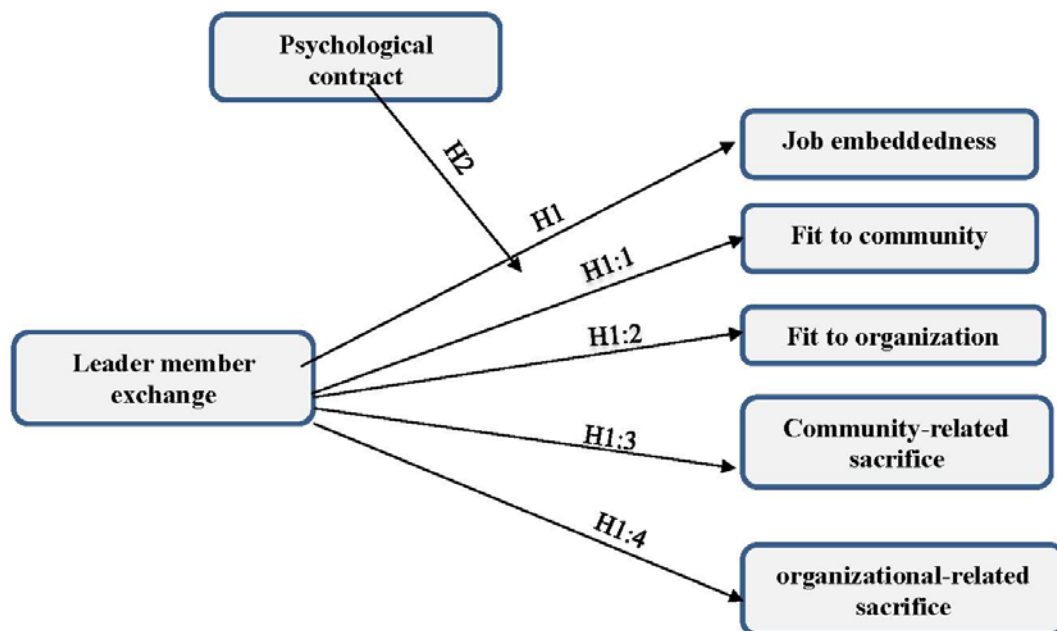
Data were gathered from 301 participants from private and public organizations in Istanbul, Turkey, for this study. When picking a sample, consideration was given to the sample's ability to reflect the data and its size. An organization's success or failure can be predicted by how the leader and follower communicate (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Because of the leader's limited time and resources, only a handful of his or her subordinates will develop deep working ties, according to Graen (1976) Prior study on leaders assumed a wide approach to connections with subordinates, with the quality of these relationships being uniform throughout the company. According to Mitchell and his colleagues (2001), the sociological notion of embeddedness was used to initially describe employment embeddedness as an employee's loyalty to their employer. There is a concept called "job embeddedness" that measures how many factors contribute to an individual's decision to remain in their current position. Researchers have long been interested in finding out why people choose to work in organizations, what motivates them to succeed, and why they choose to stay. Leadership-Member Exchange on Job Embeddedness and the Influence of Psychological Contract Because of the non-affective construct of "job embeddedness," the widely held belief that dissatisfied people will leave and that money will keep them in their jobs has been challenged. research into how leader-member swap affects embeddedness and psychological contract in workplaces They were selected for this role because of their dynamic and varied natures. They were also selected because of their focus on relationships.

Random sampling and an online survey were employed in this study's methodology. As a result of the Covid-19 Global Pandemic, the online survey method was selected as the only option of access for participants to complete the study. A total of nine private and three public companies in Istanbul were surveyed for this study. As of this writing, there are approximately 148 employees in the three public banks, 39 employees in the two private banks, 16 administrative staff in the

two privately owned hypermarkets, 35 administrative staff in the two privately owned exchange companies, and one administrative staff in the one privately owned hospital (27 workers). Istanbul hosted 301 participants. White-collar workers from both public and commercial companies were among the participants.

B. Hypothesized moderation model.

The term "moderation analysis" refers to a method of investigating the effect of a leader member exchange on subsequent job embeddedness on psychological contract ("interaction"). Depending on the disposition of the suspected Relationships between variables, moderation was selected through consultation. (Hayes, 2017)



Figur 1. Hypothesiz model.

C. Method of data collection and Sample techniques

It's "the part of the world that we want to generalize," in the words of Krathwohl (David R., 2009). A random sample strategy will be used in this investigation. When it comes to sampling, the most common kind of probability is random or simply random sampling, which gives everyone in the population a fair and equal chance to be sampled. A total of 301 employees from small and medium-sized enterprise businesses in Istanbul, Turkey, will be surveyed for this study. Correlation and multiple regression analysis would be used in a survey study to explain and quantify the relationship between numerous variables. Using a 5-point

Likert scale, we'll evaluate each item in a questionnaire survey's Independent, Dependent, and Moderator variables. The questionnaire will be divided into four sections. Demographic questions (gender, age, marital status, educational background, occupation).

D. Research Methodology

A quantitative methodology was used in this study. Quantitative research, according to Aliaga Gunderson (2005), collects numerical data and mathematically analyzes it. Under controlled conditions, quantitative research has been found to be generalizable, objective, and predictable (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). One more advantage of using quantitative research is the ease of cross-sectional assessments, as well as the ability of researchers to replicate the study (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). Analyses were performed with the help of the Statistical Application.

Data entry was simplified by using a reference list of all completed questionnaires and a set of codes for the questions themselves. By focusing on numerical meanings, quantitative data is compiled into numerical and organized data, which is then interpreted by employing diagrams. Instead of focusing on the meanings expressed through terminology, qualitative data focuses on non-standardized data that demands categorization and interpretation through conceptualization. Quantitative variables and information are reported in tables and graphs based on descriptive statistics, including checks for entry mistakes and frequency, percentage, average and standard deviation. A few indices of descriptive statistics were employed since they allow for an in-depth explanation of the distribution of results.

E. Measurement scale

1. Leader member exchange

At various points in its history, it has been measured by various metrics. For starters, the original negotiating latitude measurement consisted of two components. (Dansereau et al, 1975) and four additional items are included (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Vecchio, 1985).

For the evaluation of subordinates' level of exchange with their superiors, the

LMX-7 scale was used by Graen and Uhl. Construct validation support for the 4-item negotiating latitude measure supplied by Graen and Cashman (1975) has not yet been published for the 7-item LMX measure, which was widely utilized in the 1980s and 1990s. Because of our work on LMX, we've been able to improve the metric. The insertion of experimental items has been one way used to tap into and measure LMX's dimensionality. After a thorough investigation, this study found that despite the inclusion of additional elements, the larger measure was strongly linked to the more succinct measure. Cronbach alphas ranged from 80–90% for a single measure, and the strong correlations between the factor scales made it improper to view the variables in these larger measures as multiple measures (Cashman, 1975; Schiemann, 1977; Seers, 1981; Schriesheim & Gardner, 1992; Scott, 1993; Bell, 1994).

The 7-item LMX, with the core issue "How effective is your working connection with your leader?" is hence the most appropriate and proposed LMX measure.' Yes, new and improved psychometrically correct versions of LMX are inevitable. Additionally, LMX's size is a point of controversy. Page 624 of Dienesch and Liden's 1986 book was the first to raise the question of whether LMX is a one-dimensional or three-dimensional model. Dienesch and Liden say that LMX is complex in response to this question, citing concepts such as perceived contribution, loyalty, and emotion. Due to the findings, other researchers created their own LMX measures to examine the scale's dimensionality (Schriesheim, 1992). There are a few studies that support this theory: Dienesch (1985), Schriesheim (1992), Neider (1993), Phillips (1993), Duran (1993), Liden (1993), and Liden & Maslyn (1994). A single dimension (Cronbach alphas for a single assessment in the 80–90 percent range) with different results is the most consistent conclusion of these studies' testing.

Based on these data, we conducted our own tests using a continuous scale of 5 points and came to this conclusion (1 left to 5 right). Members of the leader's team are asked the same seven questions (leader in parentheses). As a good and reliable metric of data quality, the expected agreement between the leader and member reports is used here.

2. Job embeddedness

Using a 40-item scale developed by Mitchell and his colleagues, the composite level of job embeddedness was evaluated (2001). On a 6-point scale,

except for ties to the community and organizations (6 = strongly agree 1= strongly disagree), all other aspects were evaluated. (Law, K. S., Wong, G., & Mobley, W. H, 1998) (MacGallum, R. G., & Browne, M. W, 1993). We used six Likert scale because some items were removed from the original scale items of job embeddedness. The six dimensions of job embeddedness combine to generate this composite term (Law, Wong, & Mobley, 1998). Causes of embeddedness, rather than reflections, are its characteristics (MacCallum & Browne, 1993). There are three aspects of embeddedness measured by the survey instrument: fit, links, and sacrifice. However, the link aspects included inquiries about a person's marital status, familial roots, length of employment, number of coworkers interacted with during the day, etc. As a result, questions about link dimensions were included in the demographic data as well as separate items. These are causal, not effect, indicators of embeddedness. Also, it should be noted that our construct does not alter effect indicators via a latent component! As a result, we don't think that being embedded leads to people getting married, buying homes, or strengthening their ties to their business. Instead, they cause the individual to become more deeply ingrained in the system. There are six dimensions (items) and six aggregate constructs in a path diagram, with causal arrows pointing to each of them (Law et al., 1998). There is no one definition of job embeddedness; rather, it refers to the combination of factors, both on and off the job, that can influence whether someone remains in each position. The six dimensions were not expected to have such a high association (although some might be). It was not expected that job embedding would be related to organizational relationships. Each dimension contained three to ten elements.

3. Psychological contract

The psychological contract should be assessed from a single perspective, according to our perspective. To begin, a psychological contract is, as its name implies, a psychological agreement between two or more parties. A person's view is only their own. A bilateral perspective on psychological contracts is also challenging because the side of the organization comprises of numerous players (top management, supervisors, HR officers, colleagues) who don't necessarily convey a unified set of expectations (Freese & Schalk, 1993). As a result, it's a collection of expectations held by a wide spectrum of participants (see Rousseau, 1995, for an overview of contract makers). Contracts are described in terms of how they affect

conduct. A lack of awareness of the differences between employee and employer commitments can have a negative effect on employee behavior. How can this be avoided? In the event of a conflict between contract-making organizations, we have no idea how this would affect the psychological contract. These factors lead us to concentrate on measures that examine employee attitudes from a single angle in this section.

The content and evaluation of a psychological contract should be based on these 'ideal' norms. There are well-established rules for the evaluation of scale creation in psychological assessment, which we use to base our criteria on (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Murphy & David Hofer, 1988). Measurement constructs must be inserted into a theoretical nomological net as a preliminary step (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). There's a lot of evidence to back this up. In addition, content and construct validity are necessary. It is the extent to which the measurement gives an adequate sample of a certain content domain (Murphy, K. R. and Davidshofer, C. O., 1988) It's (Murphy & David Hofer, 1988). Murphy and Davidshofer, 1988, p. 95). Is it possible that the findings of the measurement provide a good assessment of the psychological contract? Construct validity refers to this question (Murphy & Davidshofer, 1988, p. 101). Murphy & Davidshofer (1988, p. 101). L. J. Cronbach & P. E. Rarely are the theoretical or empirical foundations of items found in a survey traced back (e.g., Rousseau, 1990, Robinson & Rousseau, 1994, Freese & Schalk, 1996, Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997, Thomas & Anderson, 1998, Robinson & Morrison, 2000). Some of these topics have been addressed in numerous research, but the origin of the new questions or why previous ones were changed isn't always known.

There is still a methodological issue in quantifying the psychological contract. As previously stated, the psychological contract has both unilateral and bilateral views. Features, substance, and judgments are all aspects of the psychological contract. Only one response scale is used in the literature to test mental contracts; this seems to be a first in research. Further study is needed to determine how these response scales are related to each other. Researchers should investigate the link between employees' perceptions of their own obligations and the obligations of their employers. All three components of the psychological contract must be examined to qualify as an inquiry of psychological contracts. You must investigate and document

both sides of any psychological contract. Just because people have different interpretations of this contract doesn't mean it's true, however. As a result of its psychological nature, a researcher cannot examine the psychological contract. Rather, the respondent is required to do so. Researchers may consider an imbalance to exist if, for example, the perceived promise and the actual degree of inducements differ –

1. This may not always be the case. The psychological contract may be misaligned for several reasons, such as an inability to distinguish between the importance of equity and obligation. The smallest discrepancy may be the final drop that causes a "cup to pour over." As a result, the respondent must decide if the psychological contract has been broken.

IV. FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter discusses the findings and interpretations of a study that tried to assess the effect of leader-member exchange on job embeddedness: the function of the psychological contract: a case study of white-collar employees in Istanbul. The chapter begins with demographic information about respondents, Cronbach analysis for reliability tests, and confirmatory factor analysis averages to the normal distribution before testing hypotheses regarding whether the independent variable of the study effects the dependent variable. Then, correlation and regression studies were conducted to examine the link between them. Finally, a moderator analysis was used to measure the role of the moderator (psychological contract) in influencing leaders' member exchange on job embeddedness among white collar employees in Istanbul.

A. Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

These findings were derived from data collected on the genders, ages, education levels, marital statuses, and length of time that respondents had worked as white-collar employees in Istanbul. Those not in management positions the purpose of this was to gain an in-depth insight of how the respondent's major qualities influence the outcome of the respondents.

Table 2: Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents

Variable	Frequency	Percent	
Gender	Male	159	53.0
	Female	141	47.0
	Total	300	100.0
Age	18-25	32	10.7
	26-35	160	53.3
	36-45	75	25.0
	46-55	31	10.3
	Above 65	2	.7
	Total	300	100.0
Marital Status	Single	153	51.0
	Married	147	49.0
	Total	300	100.0
Education	Associate Degree	1	.3
	Bachelor	82	27.3
	Master's Degree	202	67.3
	Doctoral Degree	15	5.0
	Total	300	100.0
Occupation	Public employee	157	52.3
	Private employee	143	47.7
	Total	300	100.0
Working Experience	1-3	47	15.7
	3-5	113	37.7
	5-7	83	27.7
	More than 7	57	19.0
	Total	300	100.0
Number of coworkers	1-5	55	18.3
	5-10	120	40.0
	10-15	64	21.3
	15-20	45	15.0
Coworkers on you	More than 20	16	5.3
	Total	300	100.0
	1-5	98	32.7
	5-10	113	37.7
	10-15	54	18.0
	15-20	30	10.0
No. of work teams	More than 20	5	1.7
	1-5	128	42.7
	5-10	93	31.0
	10-15	41	13.7
	15-20	23	7.7
	More than 20	15	5.0
	Total	300	100.0

The study found that 53 percent of respondents were male, compared to 47 percent of respondents who were female. There were more men than women in the sample, according to the findings. Though information was though provided from both genders. On the age of respondents, the majority respondents were in the age of 26-35 who were 53.3%, then followed by those of 36-45 were 25%, then 18-25 years were 10.7%, then 46-55 years were 10.3% and finally those of above 65 years were 0.7% of the study. According to the findings, the study's participants were able to provide relevant information to the researchers. Most respondents were unmarried at

the time of the survey. respondents were single who 5.1% of the study was while the married were 49% of the study. On the education of the respondents, the majority respondents were master's degree holders who were 67.3%, then bachelor's degree were 27.3%, then the doctoral degree holders were 5% while the associate degree holders were 0.3% of the study. More than two-thirds of respondents were public sector workers, according to their occupation. More than two-thirds of respondents were public sector workers, according to their occupation. Were 52.3% while the rest were private employees. Concerning the working experience, majority respondents had worked for between 3-5 who were 37.7%, then 5-7 years were 27.7% those of more than 7 years were 19% and finally those with working experience of 1-3 years were 15.7% of the study. The results show that information was attained from informed respondents. The number of coworkers was above 5-10 while the coworkers depending on each other were 37.7% and finally there were vast teams working together with the most teams being between 1-5 employees.

B. Normality and Difference tests

1. Normality Test

Table 3: Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for Normality

Tests of Normality	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Leader Member exchange	.233	300	.000	.703	300	.000
Psychological Contract	.295	300	.000	.794	300	.000
Job embeddedness	.270	300	.000	.601	300	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Results in Table 3 on normality test based on Kolmogorov-Smirnov test the significant values for the variables are all below 0.05, meaning that the data presented is normally distributed. On the same context, the assessment of the Shapiro Wilk shows the values of significance were all below 0.05 significant level. The Shapiro wilk test is normal when the significant values are below 0.05 level of significance. In this case therefore based on both tests one argues that the data is normally distributed hence findings can't be doubted on distribution grounds.

2. Difference tests (ANOVA)

Table 4: ANOVA analysis between Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and leader member exchange

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	10.262	25	.410	1.745	.017
	Within Groups	64.468	274	.235		
	Total	74.730	299			
Age	Between Groups	29.018	25	1.161	1.778	.014
	Within Groups	178.912	274	.653		
	Total	207.930	299			
Marital Status	Between Groups	11.064	25	.443	1.897	.007
	Within Groups	63.906	274	.233		
	Total	74.970	299			
Education Background	Between Groups	10.716	25	.429	1.578	.042
	Within Groups	74.414	274	.272		
	Total	85.130	299			
Occupation	Between Groups	13.189	25	.528	2.345	.000
	Within Groups	61.648	274	.225		
	Total	74.837	299			
Working Experience	Between Groups	75.315	25	3.013	3.975	.000
	Within Groups	207.685	274	.758		
	Total	283.000	299			
Number of coworkers interacted with coworkers are highly dependent on you	Between Groups	38.701	25	1.548	1.277	.175
	Within Groups	332.269	274	1.213		
	Total	370.970	299			
Number of work teams	Between Groups	31.643	25	1.266	1.229	.212
	Within Groups	282.154	274	1.030		
	Total	313.797	299			
Number of work teams	Between Groups	80.742	25	3.230	2.807	.000
	Within Groups	315.205	274	1.150		
	Total	395.947	299			

The results in table 4 on analysis of variance for the demographic traits of the respondents reveal that gender had p-value of .017, age had .014, Marital Status had a p-value of .007, Education had .042, Occupation had 0.000, Working Experience had 0.000 and Number of work teams had 0.000. because the p-value were below 0.05, it means that there was no significant difference between demographic characteristics in terms of gender, age, marital status, education, occupation, working experience and number of work teams while the rest had a significance difference. The demographics of Number of coworkers interacted with had .175, coworkers are highly dependent on you had .212. This means that there was a significant difference between Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and leader member exchange. This means that variations in number of workers and coworkers interacted with do not have any influence on leader member exchange. This implies that respondents in these categories hold the same view on leader member exchange

irrespective of their coworkers interacted with.

Table 5: ANOVA analysis between demographic characteristics of respondents and Job Embeddedness

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	44.319	165	.269	1.184	.155
	Within Groups	30.411	134	.227		
	Total	74.730	299			
Age	Between Groups	130.718	165	.792	1.375	.028
	Within Groups	77.212	134	.576		
	Total	207.930	299			
Marital Status	Between Groups	47.374	165	.287	1.394	.023
	Within Groups	27.596	134	.206		
	Total	74.970	299			
Education Background	Between Groups	53.266	165	.323	1.358	.033
	Within Groups	31.864	134	.238		
	Total	85.130	299			
Occupation	Between Groups	45.269	165	.274	1.243	.095
	Within Groups	29.568	134	.221		
	Total	74.837	299			
Working Experience	Between Groups	194.252	165	1.177	1.778	.000
	Within Groups	88.748	134	.662		
	Total	283.000	299			
Number of coworkers interacted with	Between Groups	223.105	165	1.352	1.225	.111
	Within Groups	147.865	134	1.103		
	Total	370.970	299			
Number of coworkers are highly dependent on you	Between Groups	196.080	165	1.188	1.353	.035
	Within Groups	117.717	134	.878		
	Total	313.797	299			
Number of work teams	Between Groups	271.930	165	1.648	1.781	.000
	Within Groups	124.017	134	.926		
	Total	395.947	299			

The results in Table 5 on the analysis of variance for the demographic traits of the respondents reveal that age had p-value .02, marital status had .023, education had .033, working experience had .000, coworkers are highly dependent on you had .035 and Number of work teams.000, because the p-value were below 0.05, it means that there was no significant difference between demographic characteristics in terms of gender, age, marital status, education, occupation, working experience and number of work teams while the rest had a significance difference. The demographics of gender had .155, occupation had .095 and Number of coworkers interacted with had .111. This means that there was a significant difference between Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and Job Embeddedness. This means that variations in gender, occupation and Number of coworkers interacted do not have any influence on job embeddedness exchange. This implies that respondents in these categories hold the same view on Job Embeddedness irrespective of their gender, occupation

and number of coworkers interacted with.

Table 6: ANOVA analysis between demographic characteristics of respondents and Psychological Contract

ANOVA		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender	Between Groups	7.217	26	.278	1.122	.315
	Within Groups	67.513	273	.247		
	Total	74.730	299			
Age	Between Groups	34.224	26	1.316	2.069	.002
	Within Groups	173.706	273	.636		
	Total	207.930	299			
Marital Status	Between Groups	13.869	26	.533	2.383	.000
	Within Groups	61.101	273	.224		
	Total	74.970	299			
Education Background	Between Groups	10.474	26	.403	1.473	.069
	Within Groups	74.656	273	.273		
	Total	85.130	299			
Occupation	Between Groups	10.975	26	.422	1.804	.011
	Within Groups	63.862	273	.234		
	Total	74.837	299			
Working Experience	Between Groups	79.742	26	3.067	4.119	.000
	Within Groups	203.258	273	.745		
	Total	283.000	299			
Number of coworkers interacted with	Between Groups	38.072	26	1.464	1.201	.234
	Within Groups	332.898	273	1.219		
	Total	370.970	299			
coworkers are highly dependent on you	Between Groups	57.895	26	2.227	2.375	.000
	Within Groups	255.902	273	.937		
	Total	313.797	299			
Number of work teams	Between Groups	117.606	26	4.523	4.437	.000
	Within Groups	278.341	273	1.020		
	Total	395.947	299			

The results in analysis of variance for the demographic traits of the respondent's reveal that age had the p-values of .002, Marital Status had 0.000, occupation, .011, Working Experience had 0.000, coworkers are highly dependent on you had 0.000 and Number of work teams, had 0.000, because the p-value were below 0.05, it means that there was no significant difference between demographic characteristics in age, marital Status, occupation, working experience , coworkers are highly dependent on you and number of work teams while the rest had a significance difference. The demographics of gender had gender had .315, education .069,

Number of coworkers interacted with had .234. This means that there was a significant difference between Socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and Psychological Contract. This means that variations in gender, education and Number of coworkers interacted do not have any influence on Psychological Contract. This implies that respondents in these categories hold the same view on Psychological Contract irrespective of their gender, education and Number of coworkers interacted.

C. Factor Analysis

Accordingly, a confirmatory factor analysis was carried out to test the scales employed in this study's research. To test for the validity before continuing with the study scales and testing the hypothesis, the KMO measures the sample sufficiency in the alpha constructs that are evaluated to determine the degree of a valid scale. The study accepted values of above 0.5, the results for factor and reliability analysis in the variables.

Table 7: Validity and Reliability

Items		Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Explained Variance %
	Leader Member exchange		0.818	20.01
LM1	I like my supervisor very much as a person	.641		
LM2	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend	.744		
LM4	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	.627		
LM5	My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others.	.640		
LM6	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	.633		
LM7	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.	.606		
LM8	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.	.448		
LM9	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job.	.623		
LM10	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.	.519		
LM11	I admire my supervisor's professional skills.	.570		
	Fit to community		0.807	12.72
FC1	This organization is a good match for me.	.560		
FC2	The organization where I work offers the leisure activities that I like.	.704		
FC3	I think of the work environment where I work as a home.	.689		
FC4	My social environment in the workplace is safe.	.725		
FC5	The atmosphere where I work is friendly for me.	.690		

Table 7: (con) Validity and Reliability

Items		Item Loading	Cronbach's α	Explained Variance %
FC6	I like the family-oriented environment of my organization.	.705		
FC7	I really love the place where I work. Fit to Organization	.699	0.841	16.12
FO1	I like the members of my workgroup	.578		
FO2	My coworkers are like me	.642		
FO3	My job utilizes my skills and talents well	.653		
FO4	I feel like I am a good match for this company	.725		
FO5	I fit with the company's culture	.626		
FO6	I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company	.620		
FO7	My values are compatible with the organization's values	.700		
FO8	I can reach my professional goals by working for this organization	.699		
FO9	I feel good about my professional growth and development Community related services	.719	0.710	11.33
CRS1	Leaving this community would be very hard.	.743		
CRS2	People respect me a lot in my community.	.736		
CRS3	My neighborhood is safe. Organization related services	.732	0.838	13.03
ORS1	I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals	.587		
ORS2	The perks on this job are outstanding	.676		
ORS3	I feel that people at work respect me a great deal	.635		
ORS4	I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job	.569		
ORS5	My promotional opportunities are excellent here	.673		
ORS6	I am well compensated for my level of performance	.625		
ORS7	The benefits are good on this job	.698		
ORS8	The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent	.600		
ORS9	The retirement benefits provided by this organization are excellent	.650		
OR10	The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent Psychological Contract	.681	0.860	12.93
PC1	I feel betrayed by my organization	.921		
PC2	I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us	.916		
PC3	I feel a great deal of anger toward my organization	.923		
PC4	I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization	.926		
PC5	My employer has broken many of its promises to me though I've upheld my side of the deal	.892		
PC6	So far, my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me	.832		
PC7	Almost all the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far	.831		
Total Variance	%		86.14	
KMO			0.891	
Chi-Square			3989.7	
Bartlett's Test				
P-value			0.000	

Factor loadings for Psychological Contract, Fit to Organization, Community-related Sacrifice, Organization-related Sacrifice are shown in the table 7 above. In comparison, Leader Member Exchange had only one element, LM3, which was deleted from Fit to Community. Since my supervisor has a factor loading of .494, it was possible to delete the variable for LM3. Thus, the remaining 10 variables were considered for the remainder of the investigation.

D. Descriptive and Correlation analysis between the variables

1. Descriptive Analysis of the variables

Table 8: Descriptive Analysis of the variables

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	300	1.470	.499
Age	300	2.370	.833
Marital Status	300	1.490	.500
Education Background	300	2.770	.533
Occupation	300	1.476	.500
Working Experience	300	2.500	.972
Number of coworkers interacted with coworkers are highly dependent on you	300	2.490	1.113
Number of work teams	300	2.103	1.024
Leader Member exchange	300	2.013	1.150
Fit to community	300	4.933	.497
Fit to organization	300	4.948	.525
Community-related Sacrifice	300	4.953	.495
Organization related sacrifice	300	5.014	.528
Psychological Contract	300	4.939	.468
		3.261	.951

With a mean of 5.014 and standard deviation of .468 suggesting that the community sacrifice was most common, gender was found to have the lowest mean, at 1.470.

E. Correlation Analysis

Table 9: Relationship among all variables

Correlations		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Gender	PC	1	.095	.172**	-.020	.158**	-.134*	-.031	.107	.158**	-.109	-.130*	-.065	-.076	-.022	.008
	Sig.		.101	.003	.734	.006	.020	.598	.063	.006	.058	.024	.263	.187	.704	.897
Age	PC	.095	1	.317**	.305**	.089	.105	.251**	.456**	.427**	-.035	.036	-.063	-.080	.069	.201**
	Sig.	.101		.000	.000	.124	.069	.000	.000	.000	.547	.531	.279	.165	.235	.000
Marital status	PC	.172**	.317**	1	.085	.253**	-.209**	.024	.286**	.360**	-.093	.021	.000	-.107	.046	.224**
	Sig.	.003	.000		.141	.000	.000	.681	.000	.000	.107	.721	.995	.065	.429	.000
Education Background	Pc	-.020	.305**	.085	1	-.139*	.242**	.297**	.246**	.190**	-.049	-.015	-.095	-.059	-.087	.148*
	Sig.	.734	.000	.141		.016	.000	.000	.000	.001	.400	.790	.100	.306	.134	.010
Occupation	PC	.158**	.089	.253**	-.139*	1	-.429**	-.204**	.138*	.372**	-.194**	-.185**	-.172**	-.161**	-.127*	.190**
	Sig.	.006	.124	.000	.016	.000	.000	.000	.016	.000	.001	.001	.003	.005	.028	.001
Working Experience	PC	-.134*	.105	-.209**	.242**	-.429**	1	.594**	.227**	-.051	.294**	.228**	.141*	.235**	.187**	-.323**
	Sig.	.020	.069	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.381	.000	.000	.015	.000	.001	.000
Number of coworkers interacted with	PC	-.031	.251**	.024	.297**	-.204**	.594**	1	.609**	.365**	.176**	.154**	.107	.155**	.140*	-.075
	Sig.	.598	.000	.681	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.002	.008	.065	.007	.015	.195
Coworkers are highly dependent on you	PC	.107	.456**	.286**	.246**	.138*	.227**	.609**	1	.702**	.017	.077	.073	.016	.129*	.213**
	Sig.	.063	.000	.000	.000	.016	.000	.000		.000	.764	.181	.206	.786	.026	.000
Number of work teams	Pc	.158**	.427**	.360**	.190**	.372**	-.051	.365**	.702**	1	-.104	-.014	-.026	-.101	.040	.374**
	Sig.	.006	.000	.000	.001	.000	.381	.000	.000		.072	.811	.650	.080	.491	.000
Leader Member exchange	PC	-.109	-.035	-.093	-.049	-.194**	.294**	.176**	.017	-.104	1	.733**	.682**	.634**	.727**	-.149**
	Sig.	.058	.547	.107	.400	.001	.000	.002	.764	.072		.000	.000	.000	.000	.010
Fit to community	Pc	-.130*	.036	.021	-.015	-.185**	.228**	.154**	.077	-.014	.733**	1	.733**	.641**	.765**	-.024
	Sig.	.024	.531	.721	.790	.001	.000	.008	.181	.811	.000		.000	.000	.000	.680
Fit to organization	Pc	-.065	-.063	.000	-.095	-.172**	.141*	.107	.073	-.026	.682**	.733**	1	.662**	.767**	-.017
	Sig.	.263	.279	.995	.100	.003	.015	.065	.206	.650	.000	.000		.000	.000	.776
Community related sacrifice	Pc	-.076	-.080	-.107	-.059	-.161**	.235**	.155**	.016	-.101	.634**	.641**	.662**	1	.655**	-.108
	Sig.	.187	.165	.065	.306	.005	.000	.007	.786	.080	.000	.000	.000		.000	.061
Organizational related sacrifice	PC	-.022	.069	.046	-.087	-.127*	.187**	.140*	.129*	.040	.727**	.765**	.767**	.655**	1	.067
	Sig.	.704	.235	.429	.134	.028	.001	.015	.026	.491	.000	.000	.000	.000		.245
Psychological contract	Pc	.008	.201**	.224**	.148*	.190**	-.323**	-.075	.213**	.374**	-.149**	-.024	-.017	-.108	.067	1
	Sig.	.897	.000	.000	.010	.001	.000	.195	.000	.000	.010	.680	.776	.061	.245	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
 * . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). Pearson correlation= Pearson Correlation

An important influence on job embeddedness was found to be the exchange between leaders and members. This study shows that leader-member exchanges have a substantial effect on the community because they all have statistical significance (R-value .682, P-value

0.000). In organizations, leadership changes have a substantial effect on the ability to adapt (R-value .634, P-value 0.000). To round things up, it was discovered that changing the leadership had a substantial effect on communal sacrifice (r value was .727, P-value of 0.000) and organizational suffering (r value .149, P-value of 0.005) because both P-values were less than 0.05. The degree of job embedding is strongly correlated with the exchange of leadership, according to the research

F. Hypothesis Tests

The validity and reliability of the scale constructs can be tested using this study's factor and reliability analyses. The first hypothesis of the study can be tested using regression analysis, therefore. As a result, it is necessary to test the hypothesis. As mentioned in Hypothesis, leader-member exchange has a significant effect on community fit (H1.1). Organizational fit is also affected by H1.2: Leader-member exchanges. It also has a substantial effect on leadership because of the community-related sacrifices that are made by members of the leadership team. When leaders and employees exchange roles, it has a major effect on organizational sacrifice.

Table 10 Regression result of hypothesis 1

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.499	.158	9.462	.000***
Job embeddedness	.702	.032	21.985	.000***

R²= .787; F= 483.32; P<.001
a. *p<0,05; **p< .000*** p<.000
b. Dependent Variable: Job embeddedness
c. Independent Variable: Leader Member exchange

Job embeddedness was found to be significantly influenced by the leader member exchange, as shown in Table 10 (β : .702, R²= .787, F= 483.32, P<.001). This suggests that the rotation of Leader members had a major effect on the degree of job embeddedness. Researchers found a high association between the two variables. job embeddedness and leader-member exchange in their research. job embeddedness

improves when leaders and their employees converse more frequently, according to the study. In general, people agree that exchanging ideas among leaders helps people feel more rooted in their workplace setting. H1 is confirmed to be accepted.

Table 11 Hypothesis 1:1

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.130	.206	5.482	.000***
Leader Member exchange	.774	.042	18.613	.000***

R2= .733; F= 346.45; P<,000
a. *p<0,05; **p<0.00*** p<,.000
b. Dependent Variable: Fit to community
c. Independent Variable: Leader Member exchange

A significant 73.3 percent of the fit-to-community score is influenced by the leader member exchange, as shown in Table 11 (β : .774, R2= .733, F= 346.45, P<,000) In this study, the exchange between leaders and members has a major effect on community fit. According to the findings, it is possible to increase the group's cohesiveness through boosting communication between leaders and members. Because leader-member exchange improves community fit, H1:1 is accepted.

Table 12 Hypothesis 1:2

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.608	.209	7.686	.000***
Leader Member exchange	.678	.042	16.080	.000***

R2=. .682; F= 258.5; P<,000
a. *p<0,05; **p<0.00*** p<,.000
b. Dependent Variable: Fit to organization
c. Independent Variable: Leader Member exchange

Table 12 analysis revealed that leader-member exchange had a.682 percent a substantial effect on company fit (β : .678, R2=.682, F=258.5, P<,000). Researchers found that an individual's capacity to integrate into a company is significantly affected by the rotation of leadership roles. An increase in the exchange of leadership personnel promotes organizational fit, according to research. Thus, hypothesis H2 is deemed to be accepted based on study.

Table 13 Hypothesis 1.3

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.693	.236	7.177	.000***
Leader Member exchange	.673	.048	14.154	.000***

R2= .634; F= 200.32; P<.000
a. *p<0,05; **p<0.00*** p<,.000
b. Dependent Variable: Community related Sacrifice
c. Independent Variable: Leader Member exchange

Table 13 data indicates that the leader member exchange had a 63.4 percent significant effect on community-related sacrifice (β : .673, R2= .634, F= 200.32, P<.000). Leader-member exchange appears to have a significant effect on community-related Sacrifice, as the study's findings show There is a correlation between the number of leadership turnovers and the amount of Community Sacrifice, based on these findings Hypothesis H3 is accepted by the evidence that the exchange of leadership members promotes Community-related Sacrifice.

Table 14 Hypothesis 1.4

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1.561	.186	8.407	.000***
Leader Member exchange	.685	.037	18.284	.000***

R2= .727; F= 334.30; P<.000
a. *p<0,05; **p<0.00*** p<,.000
b. Dependent Variable: Organization related Sacrifice
c. Independent Variable: Leader Member exchange

It is shown in Table 14 that the leader member exchange had a 72.7 percent significant effect on organization-related sacrifice (β : .685, R2= .727, F= 334.30, P<.000). Results from a study show that leader-member exchange has a major effect on organizational sacrifice. Excessive turnover in leadership positions has been shown to increase organizational sacrifice. – Organizational Sacrifice was positively influenced by the study's findings, which accepted the hypothesis H4.

G. Moderator Analysis Findings

Job embeddedness is influenced by leader member exchange and the moderator role of psychological contract among white-collar workers in Istanbul, as the title of the study implies. The effect of the leader-member exchange's

embeddedness on the psychological contract is discussed. Table 15 shows the findings of the study using moderation analysis.

Table 15: Moderation analysis of psychological contract on leader member exchange and job embeddedness

Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change in R Square	Change in F	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.787 ^a	.619	.617	.27507	.619	483.327	1	298	.000
2	.792 ^b	.627	.625	.27244	.009	6.793	1	297	.010

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Member exchange

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Member exchange, Psychological Contract

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	36.571	1	36.571	483.327	.000 ^b
	Residual	22.548	298	.076		
	Total	59.119	299			
2	Regression	37.075	2	18.538	249.758	.000 ^c
	Residual	22.044	297	.074		
	Total	59.119	299			

a. Dependent Variable: Job embeddedness

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Member exchange

c. Predictors: (Constant), Leader Member exchange, Psychological Contract

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.499	.158	9.462	.000
	Leader Member exchange	.702	.032	21.985	.000
2	(Constant)	1.295	.175	7.390	.000
	Leader Member exchange	.715	.032	22.338	.000
	Psychological Contract	.044	.017	2.606	.010

a. Dependent Variable: Job embeddedness

Leader-member exchange and job embeddedness were shown to have an interaction (B= .800, t= 22.338, P=0.010), and the Psychological Contract was found

to have a moderating influence on the connection Leader-member exchange and job embeddedness interacted in the study, although psychological contract had only a slight moderating effect ($B = .009$, $F = 6.793$, $P = .010$).

V. CONCLUSION, DISCUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Conclusion

Using reliability and factor analysis tests, this case study of white-collar employees in Istanbul studied the influence of a leader's member exchange on job embeddedness. All values less than 0.5 were removed, and the remaining results were based on a single factor model. Non-experimental quantitative research was conducted to see if low levels of job embeddedness and leader member-leader exchanges affected employee job satisfaction and the significance of psychological contracts. An additional goal of this study is to investigate whether the consistency of a leader-member exchange influences job honesty as well as the importance of the psychological contract. Also investigated is the effect of leader member-exchange communication on job satisfaction as measured by the psychological contract. The value of a leader-member exchange is evaluated from an employee's perspective. Research in science is done mostly through the quantitative approach.

H1: Leader member exchange has significant effect on the job embeddedness

Job embeddedness was found to be significantly influenced by the leader member exchange, as shown in Table 10 ($B = .702$; $R^2 = .787$, $F = 483.32$, $P = .000$). This suggests that the rotation of Leader members had a major effect on the degree of job embeddedness. Researchers found a high association between the two variables. Job embeddedness was found to be effective with the influence of leader member exchange.

H1.1: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the fit to community

Table 11 demonstrates that the leader-member exchange has a 73.3 percent significant influence on the fit to community ($B = .774$, $R^2 = .733$, $P = .000$, $F = 346.450$), indicating how much the exchange affects a person's ability to integrate

into the community. Community fit is a canopy for the exchanges, and this evidence is offered as unambiguous proof that the exchanges are successful because of this connection.

H1.2: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the fit to organization

A significant influence of .682 percent ($B = .678$, $R^2 = .682$, $P = .000$, $F = 258.5$) is shown in Table 12 by the leader member exchange. Organizational fit can be predicted by increased member exchange among Leaders, which led researchers to conclude that effective exchange can result in a better fit for members.

H1.3: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on the community-related sacrifice

Results from Table 13 reveal that the leader member exchange had a .634 percent significant effect on community-related sacrifices ($B = .673$, $R^2 = .634$, $P = .000$; $F = 201.3$). The willingness of communities and organizations to make community-related sacrifices is greatly influenced by leadership exchanges.

H1.4: Leader member exchange has a significant effect on organization-related sacrifice

According to the table 14, this is what we know, leader-member exchange had a 72.7 percent significant influence on organizational sacrifice ($B = .685$, $R^2 = .727$, $P = 0.000$, $F = 334.3$). Increase the number of leader member exchange to increase the amount of organization-related sacrifice.

H2: Moderation analysis of psychological contract on leader member exchange and job embeddedness.

Psychological Contract was found to have a moderating influence on the connection Leader-member exchange and job embeddedness interacted in the study. However, psychological contracts moderating effect was low ($B = .009$, $F = 6.793$, $P = .010$).

B. Discussions

A study of white-collar employees in Istanbul to examine the effect of a leader's member exchange on job embeddedness: the role of psychological contracts.

Community fit is influenced by the trade of leaders and members, according to H1. H1.2: Leader-member exchange has a major effect on organizational fit. H1.3: The leader-member exchange has a substantial effect on the sacrifice of the community and on the organizational sacrifice. The findings of this study will have a substantial effect on the psychology of employees and managers, as well as the psychology of the community at large. As a paradigm for the study's research, flow experiences that have a substantial effect on employee performance are examined. Psychological contracts were discussed as a moderator in the member exchange of this leader. In the most fundamental sense, concepts such as maintaining control over organizations while considering the psychology and desires of employees while also respecting and caring for the exchanges of ideas between leaders and members significantly support job embedders. Dissatisfaction among low-wage employees with clients with disabilities and their plans to quit, as discovered by Treuren and Frankish (2014), is reflected in the findings of this study. Because of their embeddedness with their clients, they believed that this new idea of "client embeddedness" could help them better comprehend why some people may despise the organization for which they work, yet still wish to work for it. According to House & Aditya (1997), the focus switched from just recognizing the existence of different links to assessing the quality of those relationships, and their findings support that conclusion as well. Organizational characteristics are examined in this paper.

When employees speak and connect with their coworkers, their success is greatly dependent. People and communities in the workplace stand to gain much from this type of collaboration, which necessitates a range of interactions between employers and employees. The findings are consistent with those of Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (2011), who argue that the stronger the leader-member exchange relationship is, the more satisfied the follower is at work. For the sake of retaining your personnel, you should aim to form the largest possible in-group. Job embeddedness is generally linked to leader-member exchange. As stated by Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), a leader should not lose faith in his or her ability to accomplish the organization's goals. Organizational bonds and organizational sacrifices are assumed to lessen the influence of leader-member exchange on the employee's willingness to stay with the organization.

Leader-member exchanges are required for the flow of information and the

mix of managers in the workplace, as well as for the stances of communication, cooperation, sharing of ideas and tools of work to be appropriately offered. Organizations should do a thorough investigation into whether they require a well-considered method of handling interactions between leaders and employees to improve operational efficiency and effectiveness for employees and organizational operations. According to Mitchell, Holtom & Lee (2001), a competent leader can make leaving the company undesirable by attending to off-the-job sacrifices such as a company automobile or tickets to local athletic or cultural events. According to George & Jones (2008), leaders invest more time and attention in the in-group members (those they expect to achieve well) than the out-group members (those they don't expect to perform well).

C. Limitations and Recommendations

The first limitation faced in the study was the pandemic of Coronavirus and the associated lack of access to participants in Istanbul, demands that everyone in the education sector constantly improve their ability to gather data remotely. Remote data collection has taught us valuable lessons about how to better gather and analyze data remotely, which could lead to new ways of reaching people in remote areas during emergencies. Secondly many white-collar employees have said they enjoyed working from home and have adapted to their makeshift offices at home quickly in the wake of the coronavirus outbreak. “The pandemic is changing business life,” quoted from Sayım Yorğun, the dean of Istanbul University’s Department of Economics. This made it difficult to reach the white collars in their organizations. Also, Cultural effects concerning international students from diverse cultures who are enrolled in higher education in Turkey have identified the following as the most pressing issues related to cultural differences: Issues of views toward foreigners, Food culture, Rules regarding Turkish society, all this is obstacle to engage in the society to gain trust and gain data to collect for this research. Another limitation faced was self-reporting technique that threaten the reliability and validity of measurement, but it was maintained. Some drawbacks to this study include the impossibility to recruit all public sector employees, which is represented by the lack of discussion of additional moderator factors, such as psychological contracts. To better understand how psychological contracts affect job embeddedness, it may help

to create an atmosphere where performance can be enhanced: White-collar employees as a case study in the role of psychological contracts. In the future, this area of study could be expanded to include businesses. The study recommends that Istanbul's white-collar sector implement laws to manage and improve employee interactions to create a similar work environment for employees and leaders. Detailed leadership management, mentoring and coaching, and training schemes are needed if organizations are to develop successful collaboration and links between persons in the community and organizations and to fulfill their psychological contracts and exchanges.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A. Leader-member Exchange

APPENDIX B. Ethical Approval Form

APPENDIX A. Leader-member Exchange

Leader-member Exchange

This part is to describe Leader Member exchange, how effective is your working relationship with your leader. Please answer all the items on this answer sheet. Choose only one answer for each statement. If an item is irrelevant, or if you unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Somewhat agree
5. Agree
6. Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I like my supervisor very much as a person.						
2. My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.						
3. My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.						
4. My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.						
5. My supervisor would come to my defense if I were "attacked" by others						
6. My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake						
7. I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description.						
8. I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to further the interests of my work group.						
9. I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/ her job.						
10. I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job.						
11. I admire my supervisor's professional skills.						

Job Embeddedness

This part describes Job Embeddedness as a set of relationships that an employee has with the organization, community and others listed below. Please answer all the items on this answer sheet. choose only one answer for each statement. If an item is irrelevant, or if you or unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Somewhat agree
5. Agree
6. Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fit to community						
12. This organization is a good match for me.						
13. The organization where I work offers the leisure activities that I like.						
14. I think of the work environment where I work as a home.						
15. My social environment in the workplace is safe						
16. The atmosphere where I work is friendly for me.						
17. I like the family-oriented environment of my organization.						
18. I really love the place where I work.						
Fit to organization						
19. I like the members of my workgroup.						
20. My coworkers are similar to me.						
21. My job utilizes my skills and talents well.						
22. feel like I am a good match for this company.						
23. I fit with the company's culture.						
24. I like the authority and responsibility I have at this company						
25. My values are compatible with the organization's values						
26. I can reach my professional goals by working for this organization.						
27. I feel good about my professional growth and						

development.						
Community-Related sacrifice						
28. Leaving this community would be very hard.						
29. People respect me a lot in my community.						
30. My neighborhood is safe.						
Organization-Related sacrifice						
31. I have a lot of freedom on this job to decide how to pursue my goals.						
32. The perks on this job are outstanding.						
33. I feel that people at work respect me a great deal.						
34. I would sacrifice a lot if I left this job						
35. My promotional opportunities are excellent here.						
36. I am well compensated for my level of performance.						
37. The benefits are good on this job.						
38. The health-care benefits provided by this organization are excellent.						
39. The prospects for continuing employment with this company are excellent.						

Psychological contract

This unilateral view mainly refers to the employer perspective on employee and organizational expectations and obligations, limiting the psychological contract to an intra-individual perception (Rousseau, 1990). Please, indicate to what extent the organization meets your expectation.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Somewhat agree
5. Agree
6. Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Violating contract						
40. I feel betrayed by my organization.						
41. I feel betrayed by my organization.						
42. I feel that my organization has violated the contract between us.						
43. I feel a great deal of anger toward my organization.						
44. I feel extremely frustrated by how I have been treated by my organization.						
45. My employer has broken many of its promises to me though I've upheld my side of the deal.						
Failing to fulfill promises						
46 So far, my employer has done an excellent job of fulfilling its promises to me.						
47. Almost all of the promises made by my employer during recruitment have been kept so far.						

APPENDIX B. Ethical Approval Form

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 11.06.2021-14208



T.C.
İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Lisansüstü Eğitim Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü

Sayı :E-88083623-020-14208
Konu : Etik Onayı Hk.

11.06.2021

Sayın İKHLAS ABDİRAHMAN ALI

Tez çalışmanızda kullanmak üzere yapmayı talep ettiğiniz anketiniz İstanbul Aydın Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu'nun 09.06.2021 tarihli ve 2021/07 sayılı kararıyla uygun bulunmuştur. Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Alper FİDAN
Müdür Yardımcısı

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

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