CHAPTER 4

TOWARDS A QUANTITATIVE MODEL

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4.1 PART 2: QUANTITATIVE APPROACH

4.1.1 Operationalization (from qualitative to quantitative)

As already discussed, a mixed method research has been adopted. With the help of the qualitative study, a model of workplace loneliness has been grounded. The next step is testing the proposed model and to validate it. Hence, to operationalize the proposed model, help of literature and existing theories were taken. It was found that literature supports the propositions made in the qualitative study. The biggest challenge while transforming a qualitative to quantitative is to test (operationalize) the themes emerged and hence with the help of literature, the variables were finalized which were covering most aspects of the emerged themes. Hence, for political work climate, support of leader/supervisor, evaluating one self, finding value in the work, sense of exhaustion, reduced affiliation with colleagues and withdrawal intentions, perceived organizational politics, leader-member exchange, core self-evaluations, work meaningfulness, emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and intention to quit respectively have been taken, for operationalization of the model.

Figure 4.1 From themes to constructs
Past studies have followed similar method of mixed method, from qualitative to quantitative (e.g. Bunderson & Thompson, 2009). In the next segment, we discuss the literature and proposed hypotheses.

4.2 HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

4.2.1 The Antecedents

Organizational politics

Organizational politics are the actions that are designed to promote self-interest (Mintzberg, 1985) that are often taken at the cost of organizational goals (Witt, 1998). Many researchers have viewed organizational politics as an extremely broad social phenomenon (e.g. Bies & Tripp, 1995; Cobb, 1986; Pfeffer, 1992). Most of the studies have mainly focused on negatives aspects of political behaviour (Atinc, Darrat, Fuller & Parker, 2011). Organizational politics plays a role in capturing the character of the interpersonal transactions within an organization (Randall et al., 1999). A political work climate is characterized by features such as backstabbing, favoritism, and uncertainty. These things can deteriorate employees’ cognitive and emotional resources (Atinc et al., 2011). An individual’s behavior is completely dependent upon his social environment (Durkheim, 1952). Sociological perspective assumes that loneliness is a consequence of a lack of integration in social networks (Victor et al., 2009). A situation in which co-workers do compete directly for scarce resources can make a person lonely (Peplau & Perlman, 1982). Further, it has been argued that people tend to spend their time with those who satisfy their needs (Weiss, 1973). Perception of organizational politics influences collegial relationships of employees (Ferris, Frink, Galang, Zhou, Kacmar & Howard, 1996). Hence, in a political environment, employees will not attach themselves to others. Failure to achieve need for attachment (Bohlby, 1973) will lead to loneliness (Murphy & Kupshik, 1992). Taken together, it can be argued that in a highly political environment, a person might lack social integration. Thus, the hypothesis is as follows.
Hypothesis 1: Organizational politics is positively related to workplace loneliness.

Leader member exchange

Leader-member exchange has been defined as vertical dyadic linkage as mentioned by Dansereau et al. (1973) or dyadic relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The central concept of leader-member exchange is the “relationship” possessed by both the parties towards each other (Thomas et al., 2013). However, the leader-member relationship has been argued to be not properly articulated in research and there is a need to conduct more research on close relationships of leader–follower relationship (Thomas et al., 2013). LMX theory establishes that because of time pressure, a leader may not be able to make the relationship with each and every subordinate (Graen, 1976). Hence, few key subordinates would be having a close relationship with the leader and rest relationships with the subordinates would be based on formal authorities, rules and policies to ensure performance (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). The quality of leader-member exchange is divided into two categories-in-group and out-group. In-group has been characterized by high trust, interaction, support, and formal/informal rewards and the out-group has been characterized by low trust, interaction, support, and rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). Unlike out-group, in-group leader-member exchange is said to have great attention and support from the leader, the amount of time and energy invested by the members, fewer job problems (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) and mutually experienced events (Graen & Schiemann, 1978). Devoid of any close relationships or lack of such relationship (such as the relationship between leader and follower) in one’s life can be harmful to an individual and can isolate them (Thomas et al., 2013). An employee’s personal bond with his/her leader varies depending upon whether he/she is in the in-group or the out-group of a leader (Steffens, Haslam, & Reicher, 2014). The leader is considered to be one of the attachment figures within workplace who provides safety, security and emotional support to their followers or subordinates (Thomas et al., 2013). Given the importance of the role of leader in employees
work life, it can be argued that when in out-group of the leader, the employee will lack the personal relationship or bond at work and hence will feel lonely. Hence,

*Hypothesis 2: Leader member exchange is negatively related to workplace loneliness.*

**Work meaningfulness (WM)**

WM explains the amount of significance people perceive in their work (Rosso, Dekas, & Wrzesniewski, 2010). It is a major psychological condition for people’s engagement in their work (May, Gilson & Harter, 2004) and defined as the degree to which an employee finds his or her job meaningful, valuable and worthwhile (Christian, Garza & Slaughter, 2011; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Not just the individual, it is also crucial for the organizations (Shantz & Booth, 2014). Employees who find their work meaningful have reported greater well-being (Arnold et al., 2007), view their work as more central and important (Harpaz & Fu, 2002), place higher value on work (Nord et al., 1990), report greater job satisfaction (Kamdron, 2005; Sparks & Schenk, 2001), better work unit cohesion (Sparks & Schenk, 2001), better psychological adjustment, and simultaneously possess qualities that are desirable to organizations (Steger, Dik & Duffy, 2012). It is said that people who have a clear understanding of their abilities and have an idea of what is expected of them, find their work meaningful. These individuals have an understanding as to how to operate successfully within their work environment (Steger & Dik, 2009). Employees who find meaningfulness in their work make sense of their work, see a purpose to it, and feel driven to help some greater good (Steger, Littman-Ovadia, Miller, Menger, & Rothmann, 2013). According to Steger et al. (2013), meaningful work plays a complementary and interactive role with people’s emotional experiences. According to researches, employees with work meaningfulness must find it easier to be cognitively present and available in their work, stay involved, experience efficacy, and become dedicated and absorbed (Kahn, 1990; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). These individuals will contribute a high amount of energy and enthusiasm...
(Mendes & Stander, 2011). This can phenomenon can be explained with the help of the theory of conservation of resources (Hobfoll, 1988) which exhibits that individuals are motivated to protect their current resources (conservation) and acquire new resources (acquisition). The primary idea behind the theory is that it is psychologically more harmful to individuals to lose resources than it is helpful for them to gain the resources that they lost. Work occupies a central position in the human quest for meaning (Michaelson, Pratt, Grant & Dunn, 2014). Hence, for a person having high work meaningfulness will focus on their work rather than focusing on his/her social relationships. Combining the arguments, it can be hypothesized that people who find meaning in their work will not be lonely at work. Thus,

**Hypothesis 3: Work Meaningfulness is negatively related to workplace loneliness.**

### 4.2.2 The Consequences

**Intention to quit**

Intention to quit has been defined as conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave the organization (Tett & Meyer, 1993). It helps in understanding employee attitudes and behaviors (Das, Nandialath, & Mohan, 2013). There is a very high correlation between ‘intentions’ to quit and ‘actual’ quitting from the organization (Bluedorn, 1982; Van Breukelen, et al., 2004). Employees’ quitting is miserable for an organization (Das et al., 2011) and so is the intention to quit. Many factors have been found to affect intentions to quit or withdrawal from the current organization. Many researches (e.g. Simon, Müller & Hasselborn, 2009) have mentioned the lack of social support or disconnectedness that the individual experiences in social relations leading to such intentions.

When employees’ failure to meet emotional expectations and unsatisfactory social dialogues within the workplace exist, this leads the employee to experience feelings of loneliness which in turn will lead to intention to leave (Kaymaz et al., 2014). According to
Wright (2005), if an employee perceives that there is a gap between their actual and desired relationships at the workplace, they look for a new job or organization with a perception to narrow down the problem of loneliness. According to Wright (2005), developing relationships at the workplace and maintaining it is a contributing factor in an individual’s intention to withdraw from the organization. Some studies examined intention to quit at work as a negative consequence of loneliness (Ertosuna & Erdil, 2012; Wright, 2005) and found contentious results. This relationship can be explained using Job Embeddedness Model (JEM: Mitchell, Holtom, Lee, Sablynski, & Erez, 2001). JEM specifically takes into consideration the phenomenon of employees’ intention to quit and actual quit. According to this model, the links, fit, and sacrifice are three core dimensions of any employees’ decision to quit the company or his/her intention to quit. The theory describes the network of people within the organization (or the ‘web’) can possibly explain employees’ intention to quit. The bigger the web of the employee, the lesser will be the intention to quit. The formal and informal “links” an employee has within the workplace can have a strong influence on turnover. These social ties make up the social web that defines the organization as experienced by the employee every day when coming to work (Soltis et al., 2013). Since loneliness is caused due to a discrepancy in the interpersonal relationships, taken together it can be argued that an individual with lesser or dissatisfactory social ties at work will be willing to quit their organization. Hence,

**Hypothesis 4:** Workplace loneliness is positively related to intention to quit.

**Emotional exhaustion**

Emotional exhaustion is the core job burnout dimension (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001). Employees have to confront various demands and challenges of the work environment (Hülsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013) with self-control and regulatory behavior which results in a depletion of cognitive and emotional resources (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998). This leads to emotional exhaustion of the employees in the long run (Hülsheger
As stated by Leiter and Maslach (1988), “Emotional exhaustion refers to feelings of being emotionally overextended and drained by one's contact with other people (p. 297).” It is considered to captures both the chronic and intensely affective aspects of the work experience (Gaines & Jermier, 1983). It includes feelings of tiredness and fatigue, a lack of energy and the depletion of an individual’s emotional resources (Moore, 2000). Leiter and Maslach (1988) empirically found that job burnout is a response to interpersonal stressors on the job. Burnout in interpersonal terms involves contact with other people, whether they be clients or coworkers (Leiter & Maslach, 1988). In a study by Maslach and Pines (1977), a scenario where employees could share experiences and provide support for each other such as frequent staff meetings leads to lower rates of emotional exhaustion. The higher the social support systems, the lower will be the experience of emotional exhaustion (Pines & Kafry, 1978). Researchers have recognized social support as an important factor influencing the experience of stress and strain at work (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Fried & Tiegs, 1993). Peplau and Perlman (1979) suggested that feelings of loneliness were synonymous with the perception of any deficiency in the ability of the social environment to provide desired interactions such that the greater will be the deficiency, greater will be the loneliness. Contact with people can be a major source of distress, frustration, or conflict (Leiter & Maslach, 1986). As posited by Leiter and Maslach (1986), most of the interpersonal contacts happening in workplaces are negative in nature. This is due to unmet needs of employees or various other workplace issues (Leiter & Maslach, 1986). The feeling of loneliness emerges either due to over exposure of social experiences or deficit of desirable social resources (Murphy & Kupshik, 1992). Taken together,

**Hypothesis 5**: Workplace loneliness is positively related to emotional exhaustion.

**Depersonalization**

Depersonalization is a type of interpersonal distancing and lack of connectedness with one’s coworkers and clients (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2003). It leads to negative, callous,
and cynical attitude toward people or work tasks (Campbell, Perry, Maertz, Allen, & Griffeth, 2013). A depersonalized individual negatively relates to his/her colleagues. It’s a cynical attitude about one’s work environment and dehumanized perceptions of coworkers/clients (Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996). People depersonalize themselves from others to cope up with intense emotional exhaustion or stress (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001).

Fromm-Reichmann (1959) posited that loneliness creates a sense of hopelessness and senselessness in the individual. Past literature has established that loneliness of an individual leads to total alienation and estrangement from society (Gierveld, 1998). If an individual is lonely, he/she distances themselves from other in order to prevent getting hurt (Rokach, 2001). Taken together, it can be assumed that a person who is dissatisfied with his/her relationships at work will distance themselves from clients/coworkers in order to stay safe and not getting hurt.

Hypothesis 6: Workplace loneliness is positively related to depersonalization.

4.2.3 The Moderators

Core self-evaluations

CSE represents a higher-order, stable dispositional framework that captures a person’s fundamental self-evaluations of their ability and control over life events (Judge, Locke & Durham, 1997). CSE impacts job characteristics (Judge et al., 1997) and high CSE motivate individuals, make individuals perform work more effectively, and provide satisfaction with work and life (Bono & Judge, 2003; Judge, 2009). It is established as the aggregation of four basic traits: self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control (Judge, Erez, Bono & Thoresen, 2002). Many empirical studies have supported that these four dimensions are highly correlated (e.g., Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 1997; Judge et al., 2002). According to Chang, Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, & Tan (2012), since the inception of CSE, it has become the prevalent topic of investigation in organizational science studies. Core self-
evaluations have been found to impact job characteristics and are established moderators (Chang et al., 2012; Judge et al., 1997; Shantz & Booth, 2014).

Individuals high on CSE are inclined towards seeking positive outcomes (Ferris, Rosen, Johnson, Brown, Risavy & Heller, 2011). Shantz and Booth (2014) extended the literature on CSE based on the self-verification theory (Swann, 1987, as cited in Shantz & Booth, 2014) which posits that if the information and feedback coincide with one’s personal identity, it leads to beneficial outcomes. Contrary to that, information and feedback that doesn’t coincide with one’s personal identity can lead to negative outcomes (Swann, 1987; as cited in Shantz & Booth, 2014). Also, individuals generally desire controllable environment because of the fact that events that confirm personal identity enhances people’s confidence. Whereas, situations that disconfirm a person’s identity engenders confusion (Swann, 2012). This means that people high on CSE always expect positive situations and try to control their environment.

Considered as a negative social phenomenon, perceived organizational politics impacts an individual’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses (Ferris, Hochwarter, Dansereau Douglas, Blass, Kolodinsky, & Treadway, 2002). POP makes an employee feel less equipped to manage their work demands (Hemingway & Smith, 1999; Wong & Law, 2002). The pervasiveness of politics constitutes the threat to individuals and may have a demotivating effect on workers (Witt, 1998). Hence, the employees with high CSE when placed in a political environment (which is uncontrollable and doesn’t match their identity), will feel lonely since the situation may be less amenable to their control (see Shantz & Booth, 2014). To sum up, it is expected that when in a political environment, the individual having high core self-evaluations will seek positive outcomes. However, being into a negative situation such as politics which is less controllable, the individual will feel lonely. Hence,
Hypothesis 7: Core self-evaluations positively moderate the relationship between perceived organizational politics and workplace loneliness such that the positive relationship between the two will be stronger when core self-evaluations are high.

Employees (or the followers) who are rated on their capability of having high performance are likely to have a better quality relationship with their leaders (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). LMX leads to positive outcomes for the in-group members (Naseer, Raja, Syed, Donia, & Darr, 2016). Employee having good exchange with leader has high organizational commitment (e.g., Green, Anderson, & Shivers, 1996), overall job satisfaction (e.g., Major et al., 1995) and well-being (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Nelson, Basu, & Purdie, 1998; as cited in Epitropaki & Martin, 2005). LMX will provide a more controllable and positive information and feedback. As mentioned in CSE literature, if the information and feedback coincide with one’s personal identity, it leads to beneficial outcomes. Also, high CSE have more control over life events. It can be concluded that high CSE and LMX will positively impact the employee and relate negatively to loneliness at work. Taken together,

Hypothesis 8: Core self-evaluations moderate the relationship between leader member exchange and workplace loneliness such that the negative relationship will be stronger for those with high core self-evaluations.

Employees with work meaningfulness must find it easier to be cognitively present and available in their work, stay involved, experience efficacy, and become dedicated and absorbed (Kahn, 1990; Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Schaufeli et al., 2002). These individuals will contribute a high amount of energy and enthusiasm (Mendes & Stander, 2011). Work meaningfulness will increase an individual’s sense of the work, make the work purposeful, and make the person feel driven to help some greater good (Steger et al., 2013). Judge et al. (1998) proposed that the relation between a job characteristic and its outcome is buffered by CSE such that positive aspects of work are thought to be more salient to high-CSE employees. Given work
meaningfulness as one of the job characteristic (as defined by Hackman & Oldham, 1980), it can be assumed that CSE will moderate the relationship between WM and workplace loneliness. As already discussed, if the information and feedback coincide with one’s personal identity, it leads to beneficial outcomes. Hence, following can be hypothesized:

Hypothesis 9- Core self-evaluations positively moderate the relationship between work meaningfulness and workplace loneliness such that negative relationship will be stronger when core self-evaluations are high.

**Gender**

Employee gender differences regarding attitude, behavior, and outcomes have attracted considerable research attention during the last decade (Miao & Kim, 2009). The phenomenon of workplace gender diversity has become a reality today even in India and across the globe (Budhwar, Saini, and Bhatnagar, 2005). There exist gender differences employee in various job-related perception (Moncrief, Babakus, Cravens, & Johnston, 2000; Siguaw & Huneycutt, 1995) and gender influences the ways in which members of each gender are expected to behave and the manners in which their behavior is interpreted (Williams & Best, 1982). According to Mathieu and Zajac (1990), gender is treated as a personal characteristic and it may influence an employee’s perceptions of the workplace and their attitudinal reactions to others within an organization. Furthermore, gender may affect whether individuals connect with coworkers who offer various kinds of information, social support, and opportunities (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). To date, rarely any studies have explored the degree to which a gender gap exists in diverse populations and the reasons for potential gender gaps, providing an area for future research (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo & Mansfield, 2012).

When it comes to gender differences in loneliness literature, earlier studies have produced contradictory results (Dragon & Duck, 2005). There are three streams of literature based on gender differences: no gender differences (e.g. Borys & Perlman, 1985), women are
lonelier than men (e.g. Dragon & Duck, 2005) and men are lonelier than women (e.g. Borys and Perlman, 1985; Bozorgpour & Salimi, 2012). Bozorgpour and Salimi (2012) posited that females talk about feelings more than males and share their feelings with the friends more openly than males, so they experience a lower level of loneliness. The inconsistent relationship between gender and loneliness leads towards the need to study gender as a variable in loneliness study. Given the contentious literature on gender and having no gender-specific studies in workplace loneliness literature, finding gender differences has been considered in this study.

When it comes to organizational politics, men perceive their organizations to be more political than do women (Ferris et al., 1992). Men get more involved in ongoing organizational politics and the closer familiarity with politics makes them feel it as part of their organizational life. Hence, men perceive politics more prevalent in the organizations than do females (Drory & Beaty, 1991). In the previous argument, it was proposed that perceived organizational politics leads to loneliness at the workplace. Since, men perceive high politics in the organization, the chances of them feeling lonely at work will be higher than that of women. Going by the argument,

\textit{Hypothesis 10: The relationship between perceived organizational politics and workplace loneliness will be stronger for men than for women.}

Women and men tend to respond to social information differently (Kacmar, K. M., Bachrach, D. G., Harris, K. J., & Zivnuska, S., 2011). Based on behavioral patterns, men and women either show communal (e.g., nurturing and socially oriented) or agentic (e.g., competitive and achievement oriented) behavior patterns (Eagly, 1987). According to Kacmar et al. (2011), women, in general, show communal patterns while men show agentic patterns. Based on communal patterns, women possess more of close relationships and engage in interpersonal and cooperative behaviors that support those relationships (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997; Kidder, 2002; as cited in Kacmar et al., 2011) as compared to their men counterparts. Based
on this argument, this study believes that women followers will have a better control on their relationship with the leader as compared to men. Men, on the other hand, will have less control to manage such relationships and hence will be lonelier than women. Hence,

*Hypothesis 11: The relationship between leader-member exchange and workplace loneliness will be stronger for men than for women.*

Since men possess more of a competitive and achievement oriented patterns, it can be argued that the impact of work meaningfulness will be higher on men than on women. Hence, lack of work meaningfulness will make men lonelier than women. Hence,

*Hypothesis 12: The relationship between work meaningfulness and workplace loneliness will be stronger for men than for women.*

**Table 4.1: List of hypotheses**

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<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>Perceived organizational politics positively relates to workplace loneliness.</td>
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<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>Leader member exchange negatively relates to workplace loneliness.</td>
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<td>H3</td>
<td>Work Meaningfulness negatively relates to workplace loneliness.</td>
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<td>H4</td>
<td>Workplace loneliness positively relates to intention to quit.</td>
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<td>H5</td>
<td>Workplace loneliness positively relates to emotional exhaustion.</td>
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<td>H6</td>
<td>Workplace loneliness positively relates to depersonalization.</td>
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<td>H10</td>
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4.3 SAMPLE

4.3.1 Target Population

In this study, the target population is the individual employees presently working in the firm. Service employees have been targeted in this study. Over the past few decades, the services sector has shown a phenomenal growth not only in developed economies but also in emerging economies such as India. For example, the share of the service sector in the Indian GDP accounted for about 57% in 2013 as compared to 15% in 1950. The fast growth rate of services is attributable to a number of factors. The interaction during a service exchange is a significant element of satisfaction for the customers. With an increasing importance of customer service in sustaining competitive advantage, one of the major challenges before the organizations is how to manage the service employees (Kumar et al., 2014). In a recent review of service management research, Subramony and Pugh (2015) argued that only about 37 percent of total studies have examined the micro-level phenomenon affecting customer behaviors. This included employees’ work context, predispositions, cognitive and emotional processes which
influence individual-level service outcomes (Subramony & Pugh, 2015). This review articulates the importance of service employees’ emotions as it impacts the quality of the service interaction. According to a recent meta-analysis employees surrounded with negative emotions tend to have decreased job performance, low job satisfaction, higher stress and exhaustion (Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). Hence, there is a need to address the void in the literature of service employees. For this, two different service industries have been studied separately- Nursing Industry and BPO Industry to conduct the quantitative research. The samples are completely independent of each other.

4.3.2 Reasons for studying two different industries separately

Two independent samples have been used in this study to test the proposed qualitative model. Using more than one sample increases confidence in the results (Hayduk, 1987, as reported in Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999). Since, the proposed model is being studied for the first time, testing two different samples would provide strength to this study and make the study generalizable to any other industry.

Sample 1: Nurses

Over the past decades, increasing research attention has been focused on the nurse workforce (Rafferty & Clarke, 2009). Burnout is a common phenomenon in nursing (Laschinger & Leiter, 2006). Further, nurses have an important role in creating a body of knowledge and hence important role in research (Parahoo, 2014). It is interesting to note that one of the first researches on loneliness was done on psychiatric nurses. Diverse work setting and exposure to a varied group of people make nursing an opportunity to study loneliness (Peplau, 1988). However, most of the researches mention nurses taking care of lonely patients and advocating their social needs. The focus of this research is on the other side of the relationship of nurses-patients, to explore loneliness among nurses itself.
Sample 2: BPO employees

Studying loneliness among BPO employees seemed important to us because of several reasons. BPO industry is highly labor-intensive, with the cost of staff members who handle phone calls comprises of 60–80% of the overall operating budget (Aksin, Armony & Mehrotra, 2007). In India, till 2012 around 2.8 million people were working in the outsourcing sector. Also, the contribution of BPO industry to Indian GDP was 5.4%, estimated for the financial year 2007. Retaining BPO employees is a big challenge. The annual employee attrition in voice-based BPO is up to 70-80% in some voice BPOs. Hence, studying an unexplored emotional phenomenon among BPO employees will contribute not just to the literature but also to the BPO industry. The sample focused on new employees, those who have recently joined the company. Organizational newcomers are recently hired employees and are in the process of becoming socialized to their work roles, groups, and the organization (Wanous, 1991). There were some logical reasons for choosing new comers for this study. First, limited evidence of loneliness among newly joined employees exist. The aim is to explore whether the phenomena occurs among newcomers or not. Second, job demands and workloads are generally higher for newcomers than what had been expected prior to joining (Louis, 1980; Wanous, 1991, as cited in Dunford et al., 2004). Newcomers experience very high job demands (Dunford et al., 2004) and role ambiguity (Frese, 1982). In such a scenario, friendship and professional relationships of newcomers at workplace help them cope with job challenges (Nelson, 1987, as cited in Dunford et al., 2004). Hence, understanding workplace loneliness among newcomers has potential to be studied.

Further, given the variables in the research, it can be assumed that all the variables have an important place for new comers in the socialization literature. All the newcomers in the study are lower level employees and work environments are more political at lower levels of employees (Ferris, Frink, Galang, Zhou, Kacmar & Howard, 1996). New employees are subject
to the influence of people from various social spheres (Liang & Gong, 2013). Hence, studying politics would benefit us a lot. The role of a leader is inevitable when it comes to newly joined employees as the immediate supervisor is a source of relevant information for newcomers. Supervisors help the employee understand the environment (Gilmore, Ferris, Dulebohn, & Harrell-Cook, 1996). Meaningfulness in work is again crucial variable to be studied as for newcomers, as task significance is important during their first three or four months (Katz, 1980). Not just that, work with higher motivating potential and a higher quality of social exchanges are likely to positively influence newcomer empowerment (Bauer & Green, 1996; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000). Moving towards the consequences part of the research model, the variable used in this study are already established in socialization literature of newcomers. For example, intention to quit has always been an integral part of socialization research (Saks & Ashforth, 1997; Wanous et al., 1992; as cited by Cooper-Thomas & Anderson, 2002). Dunford et al (2102) mentioned that burnout (emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and diminished accomplishment) increases for new comers initially. The reason attributed to increased job burnout among newcomers is because of their mismatch between available resources and work demands. Taken together, it is justified to test the whole research model in association with workplace loneliness.

4.4 MEASURE

All variables in the study were measured using the established scales in literature. Mentioned below are the details of scales used.

Workplace Loneliness

Workplace loneliness was measured using twenty item scale developed by The Revised UCLA Loneliness Scale developed by Russell, Peplau & Cutrano(1980). This scale consists of ten positive worded items and ten negatively worded items. However, since the scale has been borrowed from a psychology, the wordings of the scale were changed relevant to work
environment (Also done by Ozcelik & Barsade, 2011). Sample items include “I feel part of a group of friends”.

**Perceived Organizational Politics**

Perceived organizational politics was measured by Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, & Johnson (2003) six items scale. Instructions were given to the participants to think of their workplace, supervisors and colleagues when filling their surveys to ensure the appropriateness of the research. A sample item is “There is a lot of selfish behaviour going on in my workplace.”

**Leader Member Exchange**

LMX was measured by Graen and Bien (1995) scale. This scale consists of seven items. This 7-item scale appropriately captures the three important dimensions of LMX, namely trust, respect, and obligation. A sample item is “My supervisor recognizes my potential”.

**Work Meaningfulness**

WM was borrowed from May, Gilson and Harter (2004) study which has used Spreitzer (1995) and May (2003) scales of work meaningfulness. This was measured using six items. A sample item is “The work I do in this job is very important to me”.

**Intention to Quit**

IQ was measured using Tett and Meyer (1993) four items scale. A sample item includes “I often think of quitting this job”.

**Emotional Exhaustion**

EE was operationalized using Maslach Burnout Inventory given by Maslach and Jackson (1981). 22-item Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), including all three subscales: emotional
exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment. Emotional exhaustion scale consists of nine items. A sample item is “I feel emotionally drained from my work”.

**Depersonalization**

DP was also operationalized using Maslach Burnout Inventory given by Maslach and Jackson (1981). 22-item depersonalization scale consists of five items. A sample item is “I don’t really care what happens to some coworkers”.

**Core Self-Evaluations**

CSE was operationalized using Judge, Bono and Thoresen (2003) 12-item higher-order dispositional framework scale of core self-evaluations. This scale has six positively worded items and six negatively worded items. However, during the pilot test it was found that reverse coded items were confusing the participants. Hence, for main study, all the reverse coded items were made positive. This was consistent with the study by Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, & Chu (2014) who have used this scale after having changed all reverse items to direct items. A sample item is “I am confident I get the success I deserve in life”.

**4.5 CONTROL VARIABLES**

Age, marital status and experience were controlled in this study as there is an expected association of age (Gierveld, 1998), marital status (Gierveld, 1998) and experience (Lam & Lau, 2012) with loneliness. Age and experience were measured as a continuous variable. Marital status was dummy coded (1=unmarried and 2=married).