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**PERCEIVED INJUSTICE AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB OUTCOMES:
ROLE OF JEALOUSY AND SELF-EFFICACY**

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PERCEIVED INJUSTICE AND ITS IMPACT ON JOB OUTCOMES:

ROLE OF JEALOUSY AND SELF-EFFICACY.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AET	Affective events theory
SET	Social exchange theory
SCT	Social Cognitive theory
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SEM (CB-SEM)	Covariance-based Structural Equation Modeling
PLS-SEM	Partial least square based Structural Equation Modeling
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
SD	Standard Deviation
HTMT	Heterotrait-monotrait ratio
AVE	Average variance extracted
VIF	Variance accounted for
VIF	Variance inflation factor
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
LLCI	Lower limit confidence interval
ULCI	Upper limit confidence interval
OCB	Organization citizenship behaviors

Abstract

Organizational injustice remains a matter of great concern due to its adverse effects on job outcomes. Extant research devoted much attention to investigate how perceptions of injustice impact employee attitudes and behaviours, but mostly through cognitive lens. However, examining the role of emotions between injustice and job outcome relationship remained a neglected area. More importantly, most of justice research has been conducted in western social context, giving rise to suspicions about validity of earlier research findings outside the social conditions of west. Therefore, this research seeks to test the validity of earlier research findings in justice-outcome relationships in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan i.e., outside the social conditions of west. It also investigates the unexplored mediating role of commonly experienced negative emotion of jealousy between the relationship of three injustice dimensions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. This study also explores the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes relationships.

This study surveyed 388 employees of a leading banking organization in Pakistan while using data from multiple sources to address the issue of common method variance. Using PLS-SEM, the findings of this study support majority of our hypotheses. The results of study show the validity of earlier research findings regarding injustice-job outcomes relationships and suggest importance role of distributive and interactional injustice in negatively influencing job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, whereas procedural injustice was found to negatively impact only job performance. The results of this research also show that jealousy can mediate the negative impact of distributive and interactional injustice on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, but jealousy was not found to have a mediating role between procedural injustice-job outcome relationship such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The findings also demonstrate that self-efficacy can help in regulating the negative effects of jealousy on employee job performance, although self-efficacy is found to have a moderating role in regulating the effects of jealousy on workplace deviance with low to medium levels of jealousy experience.

The research makes several important contributions to the justice literature: first, this study tests the validity of extant research findings regarding injustice-job outcomes relationships in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan; second, this study makes first empirical investigation of how and when jealousy explicates the effects of injustice perceptions on key job outcomes; third, it suggests a mechanism to regulate the deleterious effects of jealousy on key job outcomes. The findings are finally concluded with reference to their theoretical and managerial implications.

CHAPTER-ONE

Research Background and Context

1.1 Introduction:

This chapter starts with research background and briefly defines variables of interest. The chapter then identifies the gaps of knowledge in justice literature and discusses importance, contribution and scope of this research. It justifies Pakistan as a context and appends rationale for choosing one particular sector and target bank for research. It then explains Pakistani workplace environment and discusses the earlier research done in Pakistani workplace settings. The chapter then logically develops research aim, objectives and questions on which the whole research would underpin. It also explains the methodology which this research seeks to follow to achieve its research objectives. The chapter then concludes with outline of theses and summarizes all contents and activities of this chapter.

1.2 Research Background:

Organizational justice is of paramount importance due to its potential to influence attitudes and behaviours of employees in the workplace (Harris, Lavelle, & McMahan, 2018; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Perceptions of organizational justice, defined as the extent to which employees believe that the outcomes they received and the ways they are treated within the organization are fair, reciprocate with their efforts, and meet the expected moral and ethical standards (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007), have been widely studied to explain various organization related attitudes and behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Latham &

Pinder, 2005; Ambrose, Schminke, & Mayer, 2013). Injustice perceptions are considered as a “driving force” for various employee attitudes and behaviours (Colquitt, Long, Rodell, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2015), hence attracted investigations by many researchers in terms of its adverse consequences in workplace (Ambrose, 2002; Ambrose & Schminke, 2003, 2009; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007; Russell Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

Organizational justice has been evidenced as an antecedent to various workplace outcomes like employee commitment (Andrews, Kacmar, Blakely, & Bucklew, 2008; Paré & Tremblay, 2007) job performance, citizenship behaviours and counterproductive work behaviours (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010; Krings & Facchin, 2009; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Extant research has evidenced the negative effects of injustice perceptions on employee attitudes and behaviours in the form of lower job performance, work place deviance behaviours, and turnover intentions (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2017; Tekleab et al., 2005).

Organizational justice is argued as a multi-dimensional construct and scholars generally agree that multiple dimensions of injustice perceptions “reflect various rules identified in seminal theorizing” (Colquitt et al., 2015). Extant research suggests three primary manifestations of organizational justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Robbins et al., 2012). Initial justice studies unveiled this construct as two dimensional, i.e., distributive justice which is defined as fair distribution

of reward outcomes (Janssen, Muller, & Greifeneder, 2011), and procedural justice which is defined as fairness of procedures used to decide reward outcomes (Colquitt, Noe, & Jackson, 2002, Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). However, as the field has evolved, justice scholars have begun to acknowledge the importance of how the decisions were communicated and how the procedures were implemented. Eventually, they have progressed to reveal the third dimension i.e. interactional justice (behavior with which individual is treated at workplace). Subsequently, Bies and Moag (1986) discussed the social side of justice and presented a framework for the justice construct in which interactional justice was incorporated as third dimension. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), elaborate that interactional justice represents the organizational practices of how the management (or the authority that is controlling rewards and resources) behave towards recipient of justice. Scholars generally agree that distinction among these dimensions is of theoretical and practical use because of their specific roles in predicting various employee attitudes and behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013). Extant research shows that injustice perceptions serve the purpose of an antecedent in predicting key job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance (Park et. al., 2017; Rupp, Shapiro, Folger, Skarlicki, & Shao, 2017; Shoaib & Baruch, 2017).

Workplace deviance being an important workplace outcome has gained much attention from justice scholars. It has been defined as “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Research suggests that employee deviant behaviours at workplace are not only harmful for the psychological and physical health of other employees, but also pose threat for the organizational success and even its survival because of financial effects of such behaviours

(El Akremi et. al., 2010; Harris and Ogbonna, 2012; Marasi et. al., 2016). From the perspective of justice theories, deviant behaviour is considered as an intentional act motivated by the need to seek retributive justice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). Experience of injustice is evidenced as one of most common causes of workplace deviance (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010), and as the literature has evolved, organizational injustice has become one of the key constructs in explaining workplace deviance (Ambrose et al., 2002; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Boyle, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2003).

Turnover intention is another significant job outcome and has been extensively investigated by justice researchers. It is defined as the extent to which individuals plan to quit their organizations (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). It is also defined as an individual's own estimation that he/she wants to leave the organization in near future on permanent basis (Vandenberg & Nelson, 1999). The consequences of employee turnover are very harmful and challenging for the organization. For example, organizations have to spend time and money to hire new employees and then train them (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004; Greenbaum, Mawritz, Mayer, & Priesemuth, 2013; Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005). Moreover, this also indirectly reduces morale of remaining associates which results in loss of social capital (Shaw, Duffy, Johnson, & Lockhart, 2005). In principle, the actual cost associated with employee turnover is hard to measure, particularly, when the departing employee is highly skilled, knowledgeable and a high performer (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Shaw, Duffy, et al., 2005). Injustice perceptions are suggested as primary reason for employee turnover intentions (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015). Unfair treatment stretches a clue that one is no more considered an important part of the group and, thus, an indication of

disposability. In such cases of unfair treatment, employees consider it the employer's failure to establish an equitable employment relationship and, therefore, will want to cease from such a relationship (Bernerth & Walker, 2012).

Job performance is one of the most important work-related behavioural job outcomes in the field of organizational behaviour and has been defined as formal role expectations from employee that contribute to organizational effectiveness (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Previous studies report that an individual's job performance is largely influenced by workplace perceptions and relationships (Vigoda, 2000). Considerable research has been undertaken which supports the view that there is significant association between organizational injustice and job performance (Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Shirom, Nirel, & Vinokur, 2006; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

1.3 Theoretical Gaps in existing justice research:

Although the influence of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance is well founded, however, there exist important theoretical gaps in existing literature:

Firstly, the relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes has mostly been studied in western context and validity of these relationships has not been tested outside the social conditions of west. Checking the validity of earlier research findings in non-western context is important because, although research suggests that cultural characteristics play pivotal role in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), we do not know much about how workplace stressors such as injustice

perceptions operate in collectivistic and high power distance cultures such as Pakistan, because research has mainly focused on western nations (Ahmed, Eatough, & Ford, 2018; Hofstede, 1984). It has been argued that unless we test the validity of earlier research findings outside the social conditions of west, researchers and practitioners would have little confidence about their validity outside western social conditions (Rotundo & Xie, 2008; Tsui et al., 2007).

Second, the relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes has been mostly investigated in the context of social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). The social exchange perspective, is based on social exchange theory (SET), is a multidisciplinary model used by scholars to explain that how various types of resources can be exchanged under rules of reciprocity between organizations and employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This model explains justice as a symbolic resource which the organizations offer in this exchange relationship and employees reciprocate by offering positive attitudes and behaviours. Whereas organizational injustice in this exchange relationship will motivate employees to reciprocate with reactive behaviours such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and reduced job performance (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001).

However, much attention has not been paid by justice scholars to explore the role of emotions in explaining the injustice-job outcomes relationship. This aspect of injustice-job outcomes relationship is important because emotions are not only outcome of injustice perceptions (Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Weis et al., 1999) but can also influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Cropanzano et al., 2011; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). Emotions, which are

defined as transient, intense reactions to an event (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010), have been suggested as an alternative mechanism of social exchange perspective, through which injustice perceptions may influence job outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Ferris et al., 2012). Although emotions are particularly important in justice frameworks (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; De Cremer & Van den Bos, 2007, Weiss et al., 1999), only a few justice studies have empirically examined the mediating role of emotions (Barclay et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2013), and still the role of emotions in determining subsequent employee behaviour is not very clear (Murphy & Tyler, 2008). Thus, it has been called upon that more research is required to explore the mediating role of emotions in explaining the relationship between injustice perceptions and employee reactions in workplace (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Colquitt et al., 2013; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). Various other scholars have also given calls to understand the underlying mechanisms involved between relationship of injustice perceptions and behavioral outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2014).

While Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano 1996) is the dominant theory positing that workplace events trigger employee emotions, extant research falls short of identifying specific events that can evoke employee emotions, and how these emotions influence employee attitudes and behaviours. As emotions can result from specific and meaningful unfair/unfavourable events (Barclay et al. 2005), emotion is suggested to be a key mechanism through which a sense of injustice is translated into subsequent behaviours (Barclay et al. 2005; Colquitt et al. 2013; Schoefer & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). However, few studies have empirically examined the mediating role of employee emotions underlying the relationship between perceived injustice and employee outcomes (Barclay et al 2005;

Colquitt et al 2013; Khan, Quratulain, & Crawshaw 2013), and it is not yet clear whether these negative emotions subsequently influence employee behaviour (Murphy & Tyler 2008). It is also noted that the few studies understanding the role of employee emotions have mainly used composite ‘overall’ measures for emotions (Barclay et al., 2005), thus limiting our understanding about specific role of discrete emotions between the relationship of perceived injustice and behavioural outcomes (Khan et al., 2013).

Jealousy is an important workplace emotion due to its common presence in workplace settings (Vecchio, 1997, 2000), and its association with aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006; Gunalan & Ceylan 2014), but unfortunately few studies have been done on jealousy within the organizational settings (Vecchio, 2000). Also, we do not know much about the specific events which are responsible for arousal of jealousy and how the emotion of jealousy can impact specific job outcomes. Hence this oversight is an important gap in existing research. Jealousy is defined as “the negative emotional state generated in response to a threatened or actual loss of a valued relationship due to the presence of a real or imagined rival” (DeSteno et al., 2006; 627). Authors explain that in organizations there is a type of triadic relationship in which three parties are involved. These parties are focal employee, the superiors who possess control over certain organizational benefits and the coworkers or colleagues who are in competition for these benefits. The relationship between focal employee and his/her superior is valuable for him/her because of associated organizational benefits with this relationship. This valuable relationship is under threat from rival colleagues who are in competition with the focal employee for these organizational benefits. Thus, the presence of a threat for this valuable relationship between focal employee and superior from rival colleagues is sufficient to trigger the negative emotion of jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006), being a specific emotion that is

sensitive to rival-induced threats to a relationship (DeSteno, Dasgupta, Bartlett, & Cajdric, 2004). Thus, the key feature of jealousy is the threat aspect, whether real or imagined, which aims to safeguard the valued relationship from rival party (Vecchio, 2000).

As another shortcoming of justice research, it is noted that most justice studies employ a narrow view whereby one or more of the justice types are omitted (Cole et al., 2010). Consequently, researchers emphasize to examine the relationship between all injustice dimensions (distributive injustice, procedural injustice, interactional injustice) and emotions for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). This is important as omitting one or more justice types might lead to spurious significant relationships, which otherwise would not exist if the respective variable(s) were included (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Cole et al., 2010).

Third, another important gap in existing research is that much attention has not been paid to investigate how deleterious effects of jealousy can be regulated in the workplace. Investing a moderating variable to regulate the effects of jealousy is important because of its practical and theoretical use. Self-efficacy which is defined as “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context” (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66), could play a central role in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, as it regulates human actions through people’s beliefs in their own capabilities to influence the environment and produce desired outcomes by their actions. Therefore, neglecting to examine the moderating role of self-

efficacy in regulating the effects of jealousy on job outcomes is an important gap in existing research.

Fourth, Affective Events Theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which is an overarching theory used by most of the researchers to explain how workplace events trigger employee emotions which in turn influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky et al., 2011; Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Veiga, Baldrige, & Markóczy, 2014; Weiss et al., 1999). However, AET has mostly been used to explain injustice-emotions-job outcomes relationship in the western workplace settings. As AET is the dominant theory used to explain the mediating mechanism of emotions between the injustice-job outcomes relationship, it is important to assess the validity of this theory in non-western workplace environment. As earlier studies conducted in Pakistani workplace environment show the adverse effects of negative emotions in Pakistani workplace environment, therefore, it is important to assess the validity of this theory in Pakistani workplace settings.

1.4 Importance and contribution of this study:

This study addresses the above noted gaps in justice literature and makes important contributions to the justice literature. Addressing first identified gap in justice literature i.e., the direct effect relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes has mostly been investigated in western settings, and we do not know much whether these findings are generalizable outside the social conditions of west, this study tests the validity of direct effect relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes relationships such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Checking the validity of direct effect relationships between injustice

perceptions and job outcomes in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan is important to get an insight whether employees perceive the organizational injustice to the same degree that can adversely affect job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. As earlier research suggests the role of cultural characteristics in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), this study will be a valuable addition to justice literature by testing the validity of direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan which has a collectivistic and high power distance culture (Ahmed et al., 2018; Hofstede, 1984).

Second, drawing on affective events theory (e.g. Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this study fills the next identified gap in justice literature by developing and testing a conceptual framework to investigate the mediating role of the discrete emotion of jealousy between injustice perceptions and employees' job outcomes. Jealousy being the commonly experienced negative emotion, produces distress and is also associated with aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006). In fact, jealousy, as compared to many other negative emotions, is suggested to lead to more hostile and abusive behaviours (De Weerth & Kalma, 1993; Paul et al., 1993; Shackelford, 2001). Given its pernicious nature, it is surprising that only few studies focus on understanding the outcomes of jealousy within organizational settings (Vecchio, 2000; Gunalan & Ceylan 2014). The aggression based action tendency of jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006), classifies it as a reactive emotion which can be reflected in the form of employees' reactive behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013). For example, anger has an action tendency of attack and action tendency related to joy is outgoingness (Lazarus, 1991), and these emotions reflect in individuals' behaviours in line with their action tendencies. These action tendencies of the emotions help to understand

the relationship between a specific emotion and its related behavioural outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013). Jealousy due to its aggression based action tendency can lead employees to engage in reactive behaviours such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and lower job performance. Moreover, little is known in terms of the specific events that could trigger jealousy at workplace. Despite a strong theoretical association noted between perceived injustice and jealousy (Miner, 1990; Smith, 1991), to the best of authors' knowledge, no previous research has empirically studied jealousy as an outcome of perceived injustice. Addressing this oversight in justice literature, this study propagates that the negative emotion of jealousy could explicate why injustice leads to undesirable work behaviors and makes an important contribution in justice literature. Another contribution of this research is that it studies the effects of all dimensions of organizational injustice on emotional and behavioral outcomes, which can reflect a more accurate picture of employees' injustice experiences and their reactions as compared to studying specific injustice dimensions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009).

Third, to fill the next identified gap in justice literature, this study examines the unexplored role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The current status of existing research suggests that little is known about how the effects of workplace jealousy can be regulated, which seem to be of both practical as well as theoretical significance considering that workplace jealousy is inevitable, and consequently is one of the most common negative emotions experienced by employees at work (Miner, 1990, Vecchio, 2000). Since it is argued that the relationship of negative emotions and its adverse consequences can be moderated by personality attributes and self-belief (Abbas, Raja, Darr, & Bouckennooghe, 2014; Jex & Bliese, 1999; Jex &

Elacqua, 1999; Lehner, Azeem, Haq, & Sharif, 2014), this research extends the limited research in this area by investigating the role of self-efficacy as a moderator of the relationship between jealousy and its outcomes.

Fourth, to fill the next identified gap, this study assesses the validity of affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. AET is a key theory which is frequently used by researchers while integrating justice and emotions and used it as an overarching framework to explain the mediating role of emotions between the relationship of injustice and job outcomes (Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Veiga, Baldrige, & Markóczy, 2014). As this study is investigating the mediating role of emotion of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, it is important to assess the validity of AET in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Hence, this study makes an important contribution to the existing justice literature by assessing the validity of AET in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan and tests its framework in a large scale empirical study on employees in a large banking organisation in Pakistan.

1.5 Scope of this study:

The detailed literature review identified the gaps of knowledge in justice research and accordingly this study develops its research aim and objectives. The literature review revealed that although extensive research has been done, which shows the direct effects of employee injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, these studies have been mostly conducted in western

social context and very little research has been done to confirm the direct effect relationships outside the social conditions of a western society. Seeking to fill this key gap in justice research, this study will explore the direct effect relationships in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan to check whether injustice perceptions can produce the same level of adverse effects on job outcomes, in a Pakistani workplace environment, as have been seen in western social context. Such an exploration is crucial to validate the key results in injustice research. Earlier research suggests the role of cultural factors in influencing employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), however, there is very little research which can show the effects of workplace stressors, such as injustice perceptions, in collectivistic and high power distance cultures such as Pakistan, because researchers have mainly focused their attention on western societies (Ahmed et al., 2018; Hofstede, 1984). Hence this study will add to the existing knowledge about the impact of injustice perceptions on employee outcomes in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

The identified theoretical gaps in justice research also require this study to investigate the mediating role of an important workplace emotion i.e., jealousy between the relationship of three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive injustice, procedural injustice, interactional injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Investigating the role of jealousy as a mediating mechanism is an important gap because of the common presence of this negative emotion in workplace settings (Vecchio, 1997; 2000) and its association with aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006), which needs to be filled. Earlier studies conducted in Pakistani workplace environment show the adverse consequences of negative emotional reactions on job outcomes (De Clercq, Haq, & Azeem, 2018; Khan, Quratulain, & Crawshaw, 2013; Khan,

Quratulain, & M Bell, 2014). The details of earlier studies conducted in Pakistani workplace environment are discussed in relevant section.

The researcher is also motivated to examine the role of self-efficacy in handling the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Filling this gap is also important because we do not know much about how the negative emotion of jealousy can be regulated in the workplace. Finally, this study also seeks to assess the significance of affective events theory in Pakistani workplace environment. Affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which is discussed in detail in chapter two, is an overarching theory used by various researchers to explain that how workplace events cause employees' emotional reactions which in turn predict their attitudes and behaviours (Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Veiga, Baldrige, & Markoczy, 2014). As earlier studies in Pakistani workplace environment show the adverse effects of negative emotions in Pakistani workplace environment, assessing the validity of this theory in Pakistani workplace settings is important.

This study seeks to use post-positivism worldview and quantitative survey method to collect data from a leading bank in Pakistan. The rationale for choosing post-positivism worldview, quantitative research method, Pakistan as a context and criteria used to shortlist the target bank are highlighted in following sections. The method used for recruitment of sample and statistical method used to analyse collected data are also explained in following sections. The study also highlights its theoretical, methodological

and practical contributions and finally acknowledge its limitations and extends suggestions for future research directions.

1.6 Pakistan as a context:

Researcher selected Pakistan as target country for research due to the following reasons. First, the importance of Pakistan for researcher being his home country. Second, Pakistan is an emerging economy and an important country in Asia (World Bank report, 2015; Economic survey of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Government of Pakistan, 2014-15). Asia has an important role in the global economy, as multinationals are increasingly moving to Asian countries (Abbas et al., 2014; Sharma, 1984). The findings of this research will be of interest to those multinational businesses who are interested in opening their subsidiaries in Pakistan, as they will be more confident in applying the earlier research findings in their businesses while operating in Pakistan. For example Murray & Chao (2005, p. 54), emphasize the need for multinational corporations to acquire local market knowledge across national boundaries to capture global marketing opportunities. Earlier research suggests that specific to the context creation of knowledge is essential to the success of multinational corporations (Bindroo, Mariadoss, & Pillai, 2012; Fransson, Hakanson, & Liesch, 2011). The findings of this research will provide a context specific knowledge about Pakistani workplace environment which can be of interest to those multinational corporations who are interested to open their subsidiaries in Pakistani markets.

Third, this study aims to test the earlier research findings in justice domain outside the social conditions of west. Since most of the research related to impact of workplace

stressors, such as organizational injustice, on employee behaviours has been conducted in western workplace settings, recent studies show an increasing trend to check the validity of earlier research findings in non-western contexts especially in countries who have collectivistic and high- power distance cultures such as Pakistan (Abbas, Raja, Darr, & Bouckennooghe, 2014; Ahmed et al., 2018; Hofstede, 1984; Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009; Levine et al., 2011). These references from the literature highlight the importance of investigating western-based conceptualizations of employee job behaviours in non-western contexts.

Fourth, employees in Pakistani banking sector are educated, who can well understand the questionnaires. Moreover, researcher believes that there is more likelihood that injustice perceptions and workplace jealousy can more likely play a role among professional workers as they manage employees and resources. The employees of a large Pakistani bank were selected as a sample for the study because of its highest ranking in Pakistan. The detailed criteria for shortlisting the target bank is discussed in a later section.

Fifth, researcher has personal contacts in banking sector of Pakistan and it could be easy for researcher to collect data from banking sector. This factor was also important considering the constraints faced by the researcher in terms of time and other resources. Sixth, it would be interesting to find the presence of the factors such as injustice perceptions, workplace jealousy and reactive behaviours of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and decreased job performance in a sector which is known to researcher.

Pakistan is an important country in Asia with a vibrant and growing economy. The economy of Pakistan is the 24th largest in the world in terms of purchasing power parity and 41st largest in absolute terms (World Bank Report, 2015). Pakistan has a population of over 190 million, the world's 6th largest (World Bank Report, 2015). Per capita income in dollar terms has reached to \$1,512 compared to \$1,333 in 2012-13 which is showing a significant growth of 9.25 percent (Economic survey of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Government of Pakistan, 2014-15). Pakistan is one of the Next Eleven, the eleven countries along with the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa), who have a potential to become one of the world's largest economies in the 21st century (identified by Goldman Sachs Investment Bank and economist Jim O'Neill, 2012). According to a report published by The Express Tribune in its edition of January 20, 2014, Pakistan is billed to become 18th largest economy by 2050 (The Express Tribune, published January 20, 2014).

1.7 Rational for Choosing Banking Sector:

State Bank of Pakistan, which is the central bank of Pakistan and regulates the monetary and fiscal policy, in its annual report for 2015-16 indicated an increase in economic growth of the country at 4.7 percent in financial year 2016 compared to a growth percentage of 4.0 percent realized in the financial year 2015 (State Bank of Pakistan annual report 2015-16). The share of the services sector in the economy touched 58.82 percent in 2014-15, witnessing a growth rate of 5 percent as compared to last year growth of 4.4 percent. The banking and insurance sector with a growth rate of 6.2 percent, had the highest overall share in the services sector for the year 2014-15 (Economic Survey of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Government of Pakistan 2015-16). The banking sector is

one of Pakistan's best performing services industries; its assets witnessed a tremendous growth over the last year. The capital adequacy ratio, a measure of solvency, stands at 17.4 percent, which is well above the international benchmark standard of 8 percent and the central bank of Pakistan's standard of percent. The sector's strong growth was expected to continue in this trend into 2016 and beyond (Economic Survey of Pakistan, Ministry of Finance, Government of Pakistan 2015-16). Considering the importance of the banking sector in the services industries and share of services industries in the economy of Pakistan, the banking sector was chosen as the population frame for this study.

1.8 Rational for choosing the target bank for the study:

In order to shortlist the target bank, following criteria was considered: (a) The global ratings of the bank in terms of its financial indicators; (b) the role of the bank in the economy of Pakistan; (c) the size and volume of the bank in terms of its representation in all parts of Pakistan; and, (d) the willingness of the bank's employees and management to take part in the research.

There are 41 public and private sector banks operating in Pakistan. There are five public sector banks, five Islamic banks, 17 private banks, six foreign banks, and eight development financial institutions. Since the Islamic banks, foreign banks, development financial institutions, specialized banks, and micro finance banks have limited operations and have only few branches in the main cities of Pakistan, these banks were excluded from the list. Out of 17 private banks only four have large network of branches (more than 500 branches) and from five public sector banks only one has more than 500 branches). So,

initially, five banks were shortlisted from the list of banks. Out of these five shortlisted banks, the following criteria was observed to choose the target bank.

(a). Global rating of the bank:

The bank chosen for study was declared as the “The Bank of the Year in Pakistan” by The Banker, which is a prestigious publication of the UK Financial Times Group. The magazine evaluates banks from 120 countries across the world and selects only one bank from each country. Winning banks are selected, from more than 1,000 entries, on the basis of their progress over the past 12 months. From Pakistan, only this bank was chosen for the award. The Banker “Bank of the year awards” is a worldwide acknowledged award for 90 years and is "regarded as the Oscars of the banking industry". The Banker is "the world's leading monthly journal of record for worldwide banks". The purpose of the award is to "acknowledge the industry-wide excellence within the global banking community” (Bank's website).

(b). Role of the bank in the economy of Pakistan:

The target bank, "known to be the largest bank of the country in terms of customers base", urban and rural presence and lending portfolio, plays a vital role in the economic growth of the country by serving various needs of the country through its large branch network, multiple delivery channels, and universal banking capabilities. Bank was enjoying "the highest 'AAA' credit rating from both JCR-VIS Credit Rating Company and PACRA". The bank has shown "a healthy increase in its balance sheet" by continuous "focus on growth, profitability and risk management". The bank met various financial market challenges of high competition and low lending and borrowing spreads through

increase in volume, diversification and taking advantage of its vast "network for improving its balance sheet" (Bank' website).

The bank also performed well in overseas operational areas like offshore "trade, home remittances and loan syndications". The bank handles multiple trans-national "credit and trade business through its overseas franchise". The bank has played a significant role in large corporate transactions through loan syndication both in onshore and offshore markets. The bank also undertakes financing as a lead manager on energy projects worth \$1 billion (Bank's website). This bank partners with the government for the country's economic development and has created an exclusive trade desk to deal with the "China Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC) related trade and investment opportunities". "The bank has also made significant achievements in Islamic banking business and is looking to expand its Islamic banking branches (IBB) to over 150 IBB by 2016." (Bank's website).

(c) The size and volume of the bank in Pakistan:

The target bank is the largest bank of the country in terms of its customer base, country wide presence and lending portfolio. The bank is playing an important role in "serving the diverse needs" of the customers "through its large branch network", various financial products, modern banking technologies, online banking and "multiple delivery channels". It has "over 1,374 branches in Pakistan", having presence in all main financial centers of the country (Bank's website). Hence an employee sample collected from this bank has a high probability of representing Pakistani society.

(d) Willingness of bank's employees and management to take part in the research:

The researcher had various meetings with the employees and management of the shortlisted banks and the employees and management of this bank were more willing to participate in the research than other shortlisted banks. The hierarchy of the bank comprises top management, managers/supervisors, employees who work in branches, and lower level staff like security staff and attendants. These several levels of hierarchy offer a good setting to measure issues like organizational injustice, workplace deviance, turnover intention, job performance, jealousy, and self-efficacy. These advantages are important for the context of the study. Considering these advantages, several studies, which looked at employee attitudes and behaviours, have conducted empirical research among employees in the banking sector, (e.g., Chahal & Bakshi, 2015; Dalziel, Harris, & Laing, 2011; Dimitriadis, 2010; Du Preez & Bendixen, 2015; Kristina Heinonen & Heinonen, 2014; McDonald & Hung Lai, 2011; Mosahab, Mahamad, & Ramayah, 2010; Naeem, Akram, & Saif, 2011; Varela-Neira, Vazquez-Casielles, & Iglesias, 2010; Yavas, Babakus, & Karatepe, 2013).

1.9 Workplace environment in Pakistan:

Over the past few years several studies have been conducted in Pakistani organizations, which highlight the increasing trend of researchers to test the validity of earlier research findings outside the social conditions of west (Abbas et al., 2014; Azeem, Lehner, & Haq, 2015; De Clercq, Haq, & Azeem, 2018; Khan et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2014). These studies also provide support for the validity of earlier research findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistani workplace environment (Abbas et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2014).

For example, a recent study conducted in Pakistani organizations provides an empirical evidence for the deleterious effects of dispositional envy on job performance and also suggests the mediating role of informational justice and moderating role of political climate (De Clercq et al., 2018). Another empirical study conducted in Pakistan by Khan et al., (2014) looked at the role of episodic envy in predicting Counterproductive work behaviours in Pakistani workplaces. The study shows that episodic envy significantly predicted CWB in the workplace and that relationship between episodic envy and CWB becomes stronger with perceptions of procedural justice. This study also suggested the mediating role of self-attributions for the outcomes between the relationship of episodic envy and CWBs.

Another study empirically investigates the reaction mechanism involved between interpersonal mistreatment and interpersonal deviance from a sample from Pakistani organizations and suggests a positive relationship between interpersonal mistreatment and interpersonal deviance (Azeem, Lehner, & Haq, 2015). This study also suggests the engagement of Pakistani employees in interpersonal deviance (which is part of workplace deviance) as a form of reaction against interpersonal mistreatment. Lehner, Azeem, Haq, & Sharif (2014) in their study show the negative impact of psychological contract breach on employee job performance and creativity in Pakistani workplace environment. This study also shows that high psychological capital plays a moderating role between psychological contract breach and job outcomes relationships in Pakistani workplace environment.

Likewise, perceptions of organizational politics (POP) have also been shown to influence the workplace outcomes by reducing employee job satisfaction and job performance and increasing turnover intentions (Abbas et al., 2014). The study was conducted on employees in various Pakistani organizations including banking sector, textile manufacturing, government offices, and customer service offices of a telecommunication company. This study also suggests the moderating effect of the two components of psychological capital (hope and self-efficacy) in overcoming the negative effects of POP on workplace outcomes of job performance and job satisfaction. Similarly, Khan et al, (2013), in their study evidence that distributive injustice serves the purpose of an antecedent to discrete negative emotion of anger in Pakistani organizations. This study also suggests the mediating role of emotion of anger between relationship of distributive injustice and counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs). The study also found a negative relationship between emotions of sadness and anger and employee withdrawal behaviour.

These studies highlight various organization related constructs, which are used while conducting research in Pakistani workplace environment and suggest the validity of earlier western context based research findings in Pakistani organizations. Moreover, these studies also suggest the increasing trend of researchers to check the validity of earlier research findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

1.10 Aim of the research:

Using affective events theory as a framework, this study aims to explore the negative impact of employee perceptions of injustice on discrete emotions like jealousy

and its subsequent impact on job outcomes. The study also considers how these negative effects can be mitigated to an extent through the impact of employee self-efficacy.

1.11 Research Objectives:

1. To extend the validity of direct relationships linking employee injustice perceptions to job outcomes such as job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.
2. To investigate the mediating role of jealousy in the relationship between employee injustice perceptions and key job outcomes of workplace deviance, job performance and turnover intentions.
3. To explore the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects workplace jealousy on key outcomes of workplace deviance, job performance and turnover intentions.
4. To assess the significance of affective events theory in Pakistani workplace settings.

1.12 Research Questions:

Based on the aim and objectives of this study, the following research questions are addressed.

1. Whether earlier research findings about direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance are valid in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan?
2. Whether jealousy mediates the relationship between three injustice dimensions (i.e., distributive injustice, procedural injustice and interactional injustice) and job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance?

3. Whether self-efficacy moderates adverse effects of the jealousy on job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance?
4. Whether affective events theory is equally significant to explain the mediating role of emotions in Pakistani workplace settings.

1.13 Methodology adopted in this research to investigate research objectives:

To explore the research objectives of this study, a well thought research methodology is required. The literature review of the study variables (Chapter two) reveals an established stream of research on the study variables of this research such as distributive injustice, procedural injustice, interactional injustice, workplace deviance, turnover intentions, job performance, jealousy and self-efficacy. The related theory (affective events theory) which is used in the context of this research is also extensively tested. However there exists an important gap in existing research i.e., the mediating role of an important emotion of workplace jealousy has not been investigated between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. And the role of an important personality trait of self-efficacy has not been examined to overcome the pernicious effects of jealousy.

This study, therefore, seeks to test the cause and effect relationships among study variables using existing theory. Thus, it attempts to confirm the mediating role of jealousy between employee injustice perceptions and job outcomes relationships, and the moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between jealousy and job outcomes. This research, thus, seeks to adopt quantitative research design based on deductive approach and post-positivism worldview (Creswell, 2009). Besides this, the study variables and related theories of this research have been mostly investigated in western

workplace settings and very rarely these have been investigated outside the social conditions of west which is an important gap in existing research. This study, therefore, seeks to address this gap also by investigating these relationships in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Prior organizational studies conducted in Pakistan, suggest the suitability of quantitative research design in Pakistani organizations to adequately capture participants' responses (Abbas et al., 2014; De Clercq et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2013). Therefore, adopting quantitative research design based on deductive approach and post-positivism worldview suits the objectives of this study.

1.14 Outline of the Thesis:

To ensure clarity, the contents of this study are organized into seven chapters. A glimpse of each chapter is presented in table 1.1 below.

Chapter No	Title	Description
Chapter- One	Research Background & context	First chapter discusses the research background of this research. It identifies the gaps of knowledge in the justice literature, highlights the importance, contributions and scope of this research. It also explains Pakistan as a context, rational for choosing one particular area and target bank for this research. It also explains Pakistani workplace environment. Finally this chapter appends the research aim, objectives,

		questions and identifies research methodology to address these research objectives.
Chapter- Two	Literature Review	Second chapter gives detailed review of literature related to the variables of this study. The chapter discusses injustice dimensions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, job performance, and turnover intentions. It also explains their direct effects relationships. It then discusses the negative emotion of jealousy and illustrates the mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of the injustice dimension and job outcomes. It further suggests the moderating role of self-efficacy to overcome the adverse effects of the negative emotion of jealousy on outcomes.
Chapter- Three	Hypotheses and conceptual framework development.	Following literature review in chapter two, this chapter develops research hypotheses to address research aim and objectives. This chapter then develops conceptual framework for this research.
Chapter- Four	Research Methodology	This chapter discusses the research philosophy adopted and methodology used to for data collection. Sampling process and

		<p>sampling method is explained. Sample respondents' selection criteria is explained. Ethical considerations are highlighted. Data collection process and time horizon is also explained. Common method bias issues are discussed and remedies adopted in this research are also highlighted. Pilot testing, scaled used in this study and their reliability and validity also discussed.</p>
Chapter-Five	Data Analysis	<p>This chapter discusses data cleaning process and mentions initial issues like missing values, normality of data, outliers. It also highlights demographics of respondents and discusses Factor analysis for finalizing constructs and non-response bias test. It also explains use of SEM and rationale for use of PLS-SEM for data analysis. Results from PLS-SEM path analysis for direct effect relationship, indirect effect relationship through jealousy are produced and interpreted in the light of research objectives.</p>
Chapter-Six	Discussion	<p>This chapter covers discussion of results in the light of findings from literature review.</p>
Chapter-	Conclusion	<p>This chapter discusses how research</p>

Seven		objectives are achieved? It also discusses the theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of this research. Finally, it acknowledges the limitations of this study and gives suggestions for future research directions.
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Table 1.1: Thesis structure

1.15 Summary:

This chapter gave a detailed background of this research and briefly discussed the variables of interest. It, then, identified gaps of knowledge in justice literature and highlighted importance and contributions of this research. It followed with discussion about scope of this study, using Pakistan as a context, rationale for choosing a particular sector and target bank for study. It, then highlighted the existing research conducted in Pakistani workplace settings and discussed various variable of interest used in research in Pakistani organizations. The chapter then builds research aim, objectives and questions to fill the identified gaps in justice literature. Finally, this chapter identifies the research methodology to be used to achieve the research objectives.

CHAPTER-TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction:

Chapter one concluded the aim and research objectives of this study. This research assesses the direct effects of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Further, it investigates the mediating role of workplace jealousy in the relationships of injustice perceptions and job outcomes. It also explores the moderating role of self-efficacy in overcoming the deleterious effects of jealousy on employee job outcomes. Furthermore, the study also assesses the suitability of AET in explaining the mediating role of emotions between injustice perceptions and job outcomes, in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. This chapter discusses the literature related to variables of interest for this study.

2.2 Organizational injustice:

Organizations are economic institutions and attach prime importance to economic transactions. However, there is a sense of duty that goes beyond narrowly defined pro quo exchanges which includes the ethical obligations that employers has to employees (Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland, 2007). Members want economic benefits, but at the same time, they also want something more i.e., justice in their organizations (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Cropanzano, Bowen, & Gilliland (2007, p. 34) reiterate that “Justice defines the very essence of individual’s relationships to employers. In contrast, injustice is like a corrosive solvent.... hurtful to individuals and harmful to organizations.” Organizational justice is important because it provides a sense of stability, predictability, and safety (Jost,

Banaji, & Nosek, 2004), social cohesion within and among groups (Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler & Lind, 1992). Organizational justice has been shown to play an important role in shaping employees' attitudes and behaviours (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015). Organizational justice has, therefore, attracted much attention from organizational scholars and has been defined by various scholars as below.

1	Mackey, Frieder, Brees, and Martinko (2017, p. 1943)	Perceptions of organizational justice reflect the extent to which employees feel valued by their organizations.
2	Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J. A. Handbook of organizational justice. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum (2005, p. 1).	Organizational justice relates to employees' perceptions of fair treatment by the organization.
3	Ohana (2014, p. 654)	Justice perceptions are employee judgments about fairness of their work situation and such judgments play a role to affect their attitudes and behaviours
4	Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner, and Bernerth (2012, P. 777)	Organizational justice refers to perceptions of employees about the extent to which they receive fair treatment from organizational authorities in the context of perceptions of organizational outcomes (i.e., distributive justice), the procedures for allocation of these outcomes (i.e., procedural justice), and the quality of interpersonal treatment (i.e.,

		interactional justice).
5	Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng (2001, p. 425)	Organisational fairness can be defined as fairness of outcome distributions and fairness of procedures used to determine outcome distributions.
6	(Jacobs, Belschak, & Den Hartog, 2014, p. 66)	Organizational justice refers to employees' perceptions of working in a fair and just job environment.

Table 2.1: Definitions of organizational justice

Above definitions of organizational justice suggest two important things. First, employees do care about justice. They want to work in a fair and equitable environment. Second, organizational justice is important because injustice perceptions influence the attitudes and behaviours of employees (Wang et al., 2015). Justice scholars, therefore, investigated organizational justice in three perspectives. First, employees care about justice; second, employees make justice judgments; third, justice violations drive subsequent attitudes and behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Rupp, Shao, Jones, & Liao, 2014; Rupp et al., 2017).

2.2.1 People care about justice:

Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, and Schminke (2001) explain that people care about justice for three reasons. First, justice provides greater predictability about their future. Organizational fairness signal that working conditions will eventually work well for employees. Even if some decisions go against the interests of employees, justice gives them hope and certainty about future benefits in the long run. People value fairness

because fairness provides things they like, but “there is a more than a little truth to this idea” (Cropanzana et al., 2007, p. 35). For example when individuals are being rewarded by organizations for completing a task, they will feel happy (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999), and feel proud in their performance (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000). This pride in their performance is there even if it resulted through cheating (Cropanzano et al., 2007). However, at the same time these individuals also report feeling guilty for their unfair behaviour, “suggesting that individuals can recognize and react to injustice, even when it is personally beneficial” (Cropanzano et al., 2007, p. 35).

Second, People care about justice for social reasons. According to Cropanzano et al., (2001), employees care about justice for social reasons. Individuals wish to be accepted and valued by important others and want to avoid exploitation and harms by the powerful members of the organization. The group value model which is used to explain the social component of justice, explains that fair treatment signals that individuals are treated with respect and esteemed by the larger group. This social aspect of justice is important for individuals even if there is fairness of economic outcomes (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Unfair treatment causes harm to even most loyal employees of the organization (Cropanzano et al., 2007).

Third, People care about justice due to ethical considerations. According to Cropanzano et al., (2001), Individuals also care about justice due to their ethical considerations. People generally believe that this is a moral requirement that they should be treated in a fair way (Folger, 2001). When individuals observe an ethically inappropriate event, they tend to engage in retributive behaviours (Bies & Tripp, 2001).

Such reactions occur even if an employee is not wronged personally and he/she simply witnesses the harm to others (Ellard & Skarlicki, 2002; Rupp & Spencer, 2006).

2.2.2 Judgments about workplace justice:

Research suggests that employees form their justice perceptions by judging the actions of organizations through the lens of either normative rules or moral accountability (Rupp et al., 2014). When individuals view the organizational actions or decisions in the light of normative rules, they compare that to what extent the normative rules have been upheld or violated. The lens of moral accountability is used by employees to judge the party (e.g., supervisors, coworkers, and the organization as a whole) who is responsible for violating the normative rules (Rupp et al., 2014). Moreover, research also suggests that employees make justice judgments about three types of justice to ascertain whether the normative rules have been upheld or violated. These types of justice perceptions have been termed as justice dimensions and named as distributive, procedural and interactional justice dimensions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). These dimensions represent employees' judgments about the fairness of outcomes they receive, fairness of procedures used to decide these outcomes, and fairness of interpersonal treatment received by them (Rupp et al., 2014). Thus, the study of all three justice types is importance because outcomes, procedures, and interpersonal encounters represent employees' perceptual targets to judge organizational justice (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). The justice theories which explain employee judgments about workplace justice have been categorized in to two dimensions, i.e., reactive-proactive dimension which covers reactive and proactive content theories, and a process-content dimension which include theories focusing on processes used to determine organizational outcomes (Greenberg, 1987).

Reactive theories are conceptual approaches to justice that focus on how individuals respond to unfair treatment like unfair distribution of rewards and resources. Most popular justice theories fall under this category e.g., Homans's (1961) theory of distributive justice, Adams's (1965) and Walster et al., (1973) versions of equity theory fall under the umbrella of reactive theories. These theories state that people respond to unfair situations by displaying negative emotions. These negative emotions will motivate people to escape by acting so to redress the perceived inequity. Particularly, Adam's (1965) theory of inequity remains a dominant theory which lays a foundation for most of the research about organizational justice. This theory explains that both over payments and under payments result in emotional response whereby overpaid individuals will feel guilty, whereas under paid workers will feel angry. These negative states motive the workers to change their attitude and behaviour in relation to the organization (Greenberg, 1984). Several sociological theories which developed in response to some aspects of Adam's conceptualization, especially theories about nature of social comparisons also fall under the umbrella of reactive theories. For example, status value version of equity theory proposed by Berger and his associates (Anderson, Berger, Zelditch Jr, & Cohen, 1969; Berger, Zelditch Jr, Anderson, & Cohen, 1972).

According to these theories, individuals' feeling of inequity and reactions to it result from making comparisons to generalized others such as an occupational group. An extension to this approach was used by Jasso's (1980) theory of distributive justice which emphasizes that individuals while making justice judgments compare between their actual share of rewards and their beliefs about a just share. Another important reactive theory is theory of relative deprivation (Crosby, 1976), which emphasizes that while receiving reward distributions, people make certain social comparisons and on the basis of which

people may feel deprived and resentful which result in a variety of reactions (Martin, 1981).

Proactive theories being second leg of this dimension are theories which focus on how individuals try to create fair outcomes distribution. The major theoretical statements in these theories have come from (Leventhal, 1976b, 1980). They formulated a justice judgment model which explains that individuals try to make fair allocation decisions by applying various allocation rules to the situations which they face. Leventhal (1976a) contend that most of the time, people try to make equitable distribution of rewards, which are proportionate to the individuals' contributions, because such reward allocations are in the interest of all parties. Another proactive content theory of justice, Lerner's (1977); and Lerner & Whitehead's (1980) justice motive theory is more moralistic. Lerner (1982) argued that justice is fundamental concern of human beings and they desire it because of its ability to maximize profit.

The theories which become part of process-content dimension focus on processes through which various organizational outcomes are determined and resulting distribution of reward outcomes (Greenberg, 1987). The process theories highlight that employee perceptions about procedures used to determine outcome distributions or allocations play an important role in forming justice judgments (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng 2001). Procedural fairness enables individuals to be able to express their own views and can attain some control over the decision-making process (Cropanzano et al., 2002). Thus, individuals remain concerned about fairness of resource allocation procedures (Holtz, Hu, & Han, 2017). The content theories, on the other hand, mainly concern about fairness of resulting distribution of reward outcomes received by various organizational units such as

individuals or groups (Greenberg, 1987). Content theories argue that individuals form judgments about organizational unfairness, if they perceive unfair distribution of resources within organization (Rupp et al., 2017). The perceptions of fairness of reward outcomes emanate from individuals comparison of their input in the exchange relationship with their organizations (Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). According to Rupp et al., (2017), this dimension took its origin because of a natural concern of individuals about distribution of resources within organizations.

2.2.3 Consequences of injustice:

Extant research shows that three types of justice i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice influence the cognitions and emotions of employees in the workplace and predict a wide range of important work-related outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Crawshaw, Cropanzano, Bell, & Nadisic, 2013). These include work related attitudes and behaviours such as job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001; Goldman & Cropanzano, 2015; Harris, Lavelle, & McMahan, 2018; Park et al., 2017), and emotions like anger and sadness (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Yang, Bauer, Johnson, Groer, & Salomon, 2014). Thus, to substantiate the effects of injustice perceptions on job outcomes, it is important to investigate the influence of three types of justice perceptions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on employee cognitions and emotions. Research evidences that distinguishing among three dimensions of justice is useful because they predict a variety of attitudes and behaviours (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013).

This study, therefore, as per its research objective number one, is investigating the direct effects of three dimensions of injustice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) on job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Although the negative implications of injustice perceptions on workplace outcomes are adequately covered in the extant research, these studies have been mostly conducted in western social contexts. This study, hence, as per research objective number one seeks to test the validity of earlier research findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

Moreover, as earlier research evidences that injustice perceptions also influence employee emotions (Colquitt et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2013; Weiss et al., 1999), this study as per its research objective number two is also investigating whether injustice perceptions can serve the purpose of an antecedent to trigger negative emotion of jealousy and whether this negative emotion can influence the job outcomes like workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. As injustice perceptions can trigger employee negative emotional states (Barclay et al., 2005; Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Robbins et al., 2012), and strongly predict individual behavioural reactions (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014), they are suggested to be an alternative mechanism by which injustice may influence key employee outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Ferris, Spence, Brown, & Heller, 2012). Emotions are particularly important in injustice frameworks because they play an "explanatory" role and help to explain how and why the individual perceptions of injustice are translated into job outcomes (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; De Cremer & Van den Bos, 2007). This study, therefore, seeks to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The constructs are discussed in more detail in following sections.

2.3 Organizational justice dimensions:

Scholars have classified organizational justice into three dimensions based on various rules which are identified in seminal justice theories (Colquitt et al., 2015). These justice dimensions are: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Robbins et al., 2012). Initial justice research unveiled two primary justice dimensions i.e., distributive justice (the perceived fairness about distribution of resources such as rewards & outcomes), and procedural (the perceived fairness of processes or formal procedures through which these rewards and outcomes were decided) (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). However, as the field has evolved, justice scholars have begun to acknowledge the importance of how the decisions were communicated and how the procedures were implemented. Eventually, they have progressed to reveal the third justice dimension i.e. interactional justice (the behavior with which one is treated at workplace). Subsequently, Bies & Moag (1986) discussed the social side of justice and presented a framework for the overall justice construct in which interactional justice was incorporated as third dimension. Justice scholars generally acknowledge that distinction among these dimensions is of theoretical and practical importance because of their specific roles in predicting various employee attitudes and behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Crawshaw et al., 2013).

2.3.1 Distributive justice:

Distributive justice is defined as employees' judgement about fairness of outcomes they receive (Rupp et al., 2017). Distributive justice is the oldest dimension of organizational justice. According to Rupp et al., (2017), this dimension was first to take its origin in justice research because of a natural concern of individuals about distribution of resources within organizations. It was natural for organizational justice to begin with the

study of how employees judge and react to the outcomes they receive (i.e., distributive justice). The study of distributive justice has its roots in early research in the context of relative deprivation (Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star, & Williams Jr, 1949), which argues that individuals judge the fairness of rewards and outcomes in comparison to those with whom they compare themselves. Relative deprivation theory suggests that outcome favourability in absolute terms is not much impactful compared to relative favourability (Mark & Folger, 1984). Unfairness in terms of social comparison was built on by (Homans, 1961), who argued that relationship between employer and employee set an exchange expectation between them. Individuals expect proportionate rewards to their input in this exchange relationship. This work extended the early introduction of social exchange theory (Homans, 1958), which also acknowledged the psychological nature of distributive justice due to the subjective nature of reward outcomes and its variability in distributive justice between parties (Rupp et al., 2017).

Distributive justice was further advanced as an organizational construct by Adam's work (e.g., 1965), who theorized that employees compare their own outcomes with the outcomes received by their similar other employees in terms of their input. An input from an employee perspective includes a wide range of attributes "including intelligence, skill, education, experience, training, seniority, demographic characteristics, social status, and effort (Rupp et al., 2017, p. 923). According to Adams (1965), an input from an employee point of view is whatever he thinks should count, in the employer-employee social exchange relationship. According to Adams (1965), an employee feels inequity or unfairness when he/she feels a comparative disadvantage, in the input-to-outcome ratio, compared to a similar other employee (in this case a victim of disadvantaged inequity) or feels a relative advantage (in this case a beneficiary of advantaged inequity). This inequity

in both situations, whether an employee is victim or beneficiary, creates a sense of injustice (Lerner, 1980). This may result in increase or decrease of his/her efforts and/or quality of work (Greenberg, 1982; 1990; 1993).

Another important theory to understand distributive justice is theory of distribution principles (Deutsch, 1975). This theory deals with rules regarding resource allocation and the use of these rules to assess whether the outcomes are fair. These rules relate to equity – whether the outcomes received by individuals reflect the equality in terms of their inputs, equality-whether outcomes are equal for all receivers in terms of their inputs, or need-whether outcomes reciprocate receivers' needs. According to Deutsche (1975), individuals assess fairness of outcomes distribution by choosing one or the other of these allocation rules. The identification of distribution rules was an important extension of equity theory (Rupp et al., 2017), because it suggests that not only equity but equality can also influence the perceptions of distributive justice perceptions (Chen, 1995).

2.3.1.1 Individuals' perceptions of reward outcomes:

Organizational justice scholars have suggested various theories to assess that why and how individuals perceive a reward outcome to be fair or otherwise? According to Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001), this dimension of justice started with Adams (1963, 1965) work on equity theory which propagates the use of equity based rule for determining fairness. The main stream of organizational justice research explored distributive justice in the light of Adam's equity theory (Kwong & Wong, 2014), and considered distributive justice as a balance of efforts and outcomes (Crawshaw et al., 2013).

Adams' (1963) position on distributive justice "explored the referents individuals choose as a point of comparison when making equity judgments" (Rupp et. Al., 2017, p. 925). For example an early qualitative study by Goodman (1974) assessed 2001 managers that to whom they compare themselves naturally when assessing their pay satisfaction. The comparison of these referent choices with quantitative data and company resources revealed that they were relevant to such perceptions. A subsequent empirical study by Summers & DeNisi (1990), supported these findings. Their findings of their study corroborated Adams' (1963) position that individuals, while making fairness judgments, make use of multiple referents. Another study by Werner & Mero (1999), conducted using a sample from league baseball, revealed that positive relationship between overpayment and increased performance. Whereas under payment suggested a decrease in performance and the change in performance was more likely if referent is in the same role whether present in the same organization or some other organization as compared to if referent is present in the same organization but in different role.

According to Rupp et al., (2017), organizational justice scholars, mainly used Adams (1965) framework of equity theory to study distributive justice either for investigating reactions to specific human resource practices or workplace conditions. Adam's equity theory advocates the use of an equity rule to determine fairness and suggests that one way to determine the fairness is to calculate and compare one's inputs versus one's outcome ratio (Colquitt et al., 2001). For example, Martin & Peterson (1987) used the lens of equity theory to investigate employees' reactions to two tier wage structures. The results of the study suggested that employees who were in high wage tier, demonstrated more positive pay-related attitudes, whereas such pay related attitudes of lower wage tier employees were influenced by their referents (with whom they were

comparing themselves). Other research found that when employees perceive a proportionate reward fairness to their efforts, they tend to reciprocate their job demands with innovation (Janssen, 2004), performance, and satisfaction (Janssen, 2001; Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010).

Empirical research evidences that workers who are over-rewarded, compared to similar others, tend to reciprocate through increased productivity, whereas under-rewarded workers, compared to similar others, tend to reciprocate through decreased productivity (Adams & Rosenbaum, 1962; Lord & Hohenfeld , 1979). According to Rupp et al., (2017), the results through empirical studies supported the equity theory (Adams, 1965). Greenberg & Ornstein (1983) conducted laboratory experiments on students involved in proof reading tasks, to investigate whether in case of inequity, the non-monetary compensation (in the form of status granting titles), can mitigate the effect of inequity on lower performance. The results of the study evidenced that when job duties were increased and participants were compensated through a title which was commensurate with their increased responsibilities, the performance levels were maintained. Conversely, when title was awarded to participants without any reason (arising a feeling of overpayment), a sharp decline in performance was observed. This study also supported the equity theory (Adams, 1965). In another field experiment conducted by Greenberg (1988), in an organization where after office renovations, employees were paired up in shared offices with their office mates with a lower, higher, or equal status to represent the underpayment inequity, overpayment inequity, or equity respectively. The results supported the equity theory (Adams, 1965), and an adjustment in individual performance was observed which was proportionate to the type and level of inequity experienced. Subsequent, Correlational field

research at multiple levels of analysis, also supported the performance-related predictions of equity theory (e.g., Cowherd & Levine, 1992).

2.3.1.2 Distributive injustice and its consequences:

As distributive justice relates to individuals' perceptions about fairness of reward outcomes which they believe should reciprocate with their input or efforts in the exchange relationship between with organization (Nowakowski & Conlon 2005), this dimension has the potential to influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005). For example, research shows association of more unique variance in pay satisfaction with distributive justice as compared to procedural justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989). Greenberg (1990, p. 399) argues that perceptions of organisational justice are "a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organizations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ' that, in turn, shape employee attitudes. Research also substantiates that distributive injustice can take the form of emotional, cognitive, and behavioural reactions toward the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Conversely if organizations satisfy employees' need for organisational justice, they are, accordingly, reciprocated by employees by showing positive attitudes and behaviours (Frenkel et al., 2012). Employees' perceptions of fair outcomes will result in more satisfaction and commitment toward organization (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003).

2.3.2 Procedural justice:

Procedural justice is defined as fairness of resource allocation procedures and employee concerns about its fairness (Holtz, Hu, & Han, 2017). Procedural fairness enables individuals to be able to express their own views and can attain some control over the decision-making process Procedural justice is conceptualized as second dimension of

justice. It is argued that even if an outcome is just, injustice may be experienced, if the method through which the outcomes were achieved was unfair or biased (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002). Procedural justice was conceptualized to address this shortcoming and was thus linked to unfairness of the formal processes and policies through which decision outcomes are allocated and end products are achieved (Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2002).

According to Rupp et al., (2017, p. 930), Much of today's organizational justice research has its roots" in "classical procedural justice theory" developed by Thibaut & Walker (1975, 1978) and their students (e.g., Thibaut, Walker, LaTour, & Houlden, 1974). Just like in case of equity theory, social exchange was a corner stone of the theory; the foundation stone in the context of procedural justice theory was dispute resolution (Rup et al., 2017). Thibaut & Walker (1978) presented an overarching theory aiming to provide a framework that could help the decision maker to satisfy the parties involved in a dispute. They aimed to provide an answer to the question, whether individuals' perceptions of procedural fairness could avoid their negative reactions against unfavourable decisions of authorities?

According to Rupp et al., (2017, p. 929), "a second major theoretical contribution in the areas of procedural justice was Leventhal's (1980) Justice Judgment Model." Levenhal (1980) used a broader approach to investigate the criterion used by individuals to evaluate the fairness of a procedure. Leventhal (1980) identified some rules, mentioning that these rules were only speculative due to non availability of any research at that time regarding phenomenon involved in procedural justice. These rules included, representativeness—accounting for the interest of all related parties, consistency—applying

the process equivalently across all related parties, bias suppression—controlling the personal bias of the decision maker, accuracy—making use of best available information while making decisions, correctability—provision of making necessary improvements in poor decision, and ethicality—using established principles to make decisions. Leventhal (1980) argues that the perceptions of individuals regarding procedural fairness involve a complex psychological process and their criteria to judge procedural fairness may not be essentially equally relevant in all contexts (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015). An important distinction between the work of Thibaut & Walker (1978) and that Leventhal (1980) is that Leventhal looked at procedural justice as a small motivation and weaker in impact as compared to outcome related distributive justice (Colquitt et al., 2005). Besides this, Thibaut & Walker (1978) proposed distributive and procedural justice as independent of each other, conversely, Leventhal (1980) viewed procedural justice as an antecedent to distributive justice (Rupp et al., 2017).

A third important theory which historically influenced the current paradigm of procedural justice was, *The Social Psychology of Procedural Justice* (Lind & Tyler, 1998). This book while reviewing the research on procedural justice in the 1970s and integrating the findings with social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), perspective, proposed a group value model of procedural justice. This theory argued procedural justice as a source of social identity and self-worth because of its symbolic/psychological function—as information regarding an individual’s status and standing within social groups. The group value model was subsequently augmented by Tyler and Lind’s (1992) relational model of authority which highlights that how the provisions of procedural justice give legitimacy to authorities. This work was important because of rendering arguments for the differential importance of distributive and procedural justice. They argued that whereas fairness of

outcome was important to individuals' short-term material goals, procedural justice was argued to be more important to longer term goals, relational criteria. They suggested three additional relational criteria as a supplement to Leventhal's (1980) list, i.e., neutrality, trust, and status recognition. Later, more procedural criteria were suggested according to specific contexts (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015) such as performance appraisal (Folger, Konovsky, Cropanzano, 1992; Greenberg, 1986; Taylor, Tracy, Renard, Harrison, & Carroll, 1995) and personnel selection (Gilliland, 1993).

2.3.2.1 Procedural injustice and its consequences:

Procedural justice emphasizes the importance of fairness of procedures which are used by organizations to decide reward outcomes (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Lind & Tyler, 1988). This is because even if individuals perceive an outcome to be fair, but still they experience injustice if the processes which are used to decide these outcomes are not fair (Masterson et al., 2000; Nowakowski & Conlon, 2005). From organizations' point of view, procedural justice is important because it can influence the emotional, cognitive, and behavioural reactions toward the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). It has been argued that perceptions of procedural injustice create uncertainty about outcomes (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002), conversely, it has been linked to the display of employee citizenship behaviours (Brebels, De Cremer, & Van Dijke, 2014). Greenberg (1990, p. 399) argues that perceptions of organisational justice are "a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organizations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ" that, in turn, shape employee attitudes.

2.3.3 Interactional justice:

Interactional justice is defined as the fairness of interpersonal exchanges that take place in the workplace, whether or not one is treated respectfully (Crawshaw et al., 2013). Interactional justice is mentioned as the third dimension of organizational justice (Rupp et al., 2017). This is the most recent advance in the justice literature, introduced by Bies & Moag (1986) and conceptualized as “the peerceived fairness of interpersonal treatment at the hands of decision makers” (Aryee et al., 2015 p. 231). Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) elaborate that interactional justice represents the organizational practices of how the management (or the authority which is controlling rewards and resources) behave towards recipient of justice. It is argued that because the interpersonal behaviour of organization's representatives determines the interactional justice, and in this way any violation of interactional justice is considered as a motivating factor for affective, cognitive, and behavioural reactions towards these supervisors, who represent their organizations and are considered as a source of justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Masterson et al., 2000).

According to Rupp et al., (2017), three types of approaches to interactional justice contributed to its current conceptualization. He termed these approaches as three pillars of interactional justice. The first pillar of interactional justice relates to the information side i.e., how the information is shared between parties that subsequently influences the justice perceptions. Bies (1987) proposed a taxonomy of the social elements and suggested four elements that should become part of communications during explanations and justifications. This theoretical advancement provided a foundation for researchers to explore the psychology behind giving explanations for decisions and the processes that lead to them (Bobocel & Gosse, 2015). However, justice researchers tended to collapse these different types of social elements and rather focused more on the amount of

information and whether the explanation for a decision seemed reasonable and the way it was provided (Rupp et al., 2017).

The second pillar involved in perceptions of procedural justice relates to normative rules (Rupp et al., 2017). Bies & Moag (1986), defined four normative rules i.e., truthfulness, justification, respect, and propriety for interactional justice. However, in a subsequent work, Greenberg (1993) proposed that the informational criteria should only include truthfulness and justification, whereas respect and propriety should be part of interpersonal criteria. Subsequent research also supported this distinction and reiterated that interactional justice research reveals a more complex set of principles than these four. Bies (2015), now classifies these in terms of truth and human dignity.

The third pillar of interactional justice involves considering this dimension beyond formal exchange and interactions with authority figures only. It was contended that interactional justice is a matter of everyday encounters (Bies, 2001; Mikula, Petri, & Tanzer, 1990) and opened the avenues for researchers to consider the justice implications with multiple parties such as co-workers (Cropanzano, Li, & Benson, 2011) and customers (Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Skarlicki, Van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008). This is an important aspect in which interactional justice is distinct from distributive and procedural justice and has allowed justice researchers to focus on a number of directions (Rupp et al., 2017). For example, there is more likelihood of third parties' experiencing stronger moral anger and punishing the violators for interpersonal than distributive and procedural justice violations (O'reilly, Aquino, & Skarlicki, 2016).

2.3.3.1 Interpersonal & informational justice:

Some scholars divide interactional justice into two components i.e. interpersonal justice which emphasises the issues of politeness, and informational justice which focuses on issues like adequate explanations (Dusterhoff, Cunningham, & MacGregor, 2014; Rupp et al., 2017). Interpersonal justice deals with the respect and dignity with which one is treated by the decision maker. In other words, employees perceive interpersonally treated unjust if decision is communicated to all with differential level of respect and dignity, that is, some are treated with respect while others are treated with rude or cruel remarks (Colquitt et al., 2001). Informational justice is about the accurateness and completeness of information sharing. Employees perceive informational injustice if the decision maker didn't provide true, complete and adequate information and/or justification while conveying the decision, especially, when outcomes are not favourable (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, most of justice scholars use the term as interactional justice and do not differentiate between interpersonal and informational justice (Aryee, Walumbwa, Mondejar, & Chu, 2015; Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016; Park et al., 2017; Rupp et al., 2014). This study following the footsteps of majority of scholars mentioned above uses the term interactional justice as third dimension of justice.

2.3.3.2 Interactional injustice and its consequences:

In case of violations of interactional justice, the target of predicted negative reaction is the supervisor (or the entity that was interactionally unfair) rather than the organization as is the case with procedural justice, or toward the specific outcome, as is the case with distributive justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Hence employees are predicted to show dissatisfaction towards their supervisor, instead of organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). This is because, in the case of interactional justice, the source

of injustice is the person who is implementing the formal procedure rather than the procedure itself (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Employees value interactional justice because it indicates the quality of interpersonal treatment received by them from key organizational authorities (Colquitt, Greenberg, Zapata-Phelan, Greenberg, & Colquitt, 2005). Most justice research highlights the importance of respectful and socially sensitive treatment for employees by their immediate supervisors (Bies, 2005). Employees have reported high level of interactional justice if they get suitable explanation and respectful treatment from their immediate supervisors (Hertel et al., 2013). De Clercq and Saridakis (2015), investigated the role of informational injustice during organizational change and evidenced that informational unfairness enhances the development of negative workplace emotions and the effect is attenuated at higher levels of job influence, reward interdependence, trust and organizational commitment.

2.4. Workplace deviance:

Workplace deviance continues to be an issue of great interest for organizational scholars due to costly problems for organizations associated with workplace deviance (Detert, Treviño, Burris, & Andiappan, 2007; Guay et al., 2016; Park et al., 2017; Shoaib & Baruch, 2017). Scholars' interest in workplace deviance has been prompted by the fact that it is extremely harmful for organizations and employees (Dunlop & Lee, 2004; Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). For example, reports suggest an annual cost of billions of dollars to US economy due to workplace deviance, and the related costs are constantly increasing in recent years (Bowling & Gruys, 2010; Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre, 2009). In addition, "workplace deviance is associated with a large variety of negative effects, costs for which cannot always be estimated" (El Akremi et al., 2010, p. 1688). For example, decrease in productivity, unhealthy working climate, increase in

turnover rates, damage to organization’s property and reputation, and reduced employee motivation and job commitment are common types of harms caused by workplace deviance (Penney & Spector, 2005). Workplace deviance behaviours have been shown to negatively influence business unit performance (Dunlop & Lee, 2004). Finally, workplace deviance behaviours can also lead to business failures when such behaviours overwhelmingly spread across organization and supervisors are no longer able to ensure that employee follow organizational rules (Jones, 2009). Above factors explain why scholars taken great deal of interest in investigating the antecedents and effects of workplace deviance? Workplace deviance has been defined by various scholars as below.

1.	Robinson & Bennett, (1995, p. 556).	Workplace deviance has been defined as “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both”
2.	Shoaib & Baruch (2017, p. 3)	Defined the term deviant behaviour in terms of “acts involving opportunism and/or shirking that will have an adverse effect on the achievement of tasks in an ethical manner by increasing the likelihood of triggering inappropriate behaviours”.
3.	Gok et al. (2017, p. 259)	Acts of workplace deviance may be characterized as” sins of commission, as opposed to sins of omission”.

4.	Judge, Scott, and Ilies (2006, p. 126)	Set of behaviours may be viewed as improper or outside the acceptable norms
5.	Sackett (2002, p. 5)	Defined workplace deviance as employees' behaviours in the work context that harm an organization and its legitimate interests.
6.	Di Stefano, Scrima, & Parry (2017, p. 1)	Defined workplace deviance behaviours as behaviours that betray the "fiduciary relationship between employee and organization" in the workplace.

Table 2.2 Definitions of workplace deviance

Above definitions of workplace deviance characterize three key features of workplace deviant behaviours i.e., they are deliberate in nature; such behaviours do not align with the ethical norms of organization; and finally, these deviance behaviours can be focused towards organization or employees. Bordia, Restubog, & Tang (2008) conceptualize three key elements of workplace deviance. First, the deviant behaviours of the employees are volitional and motivated in nature, not accidental. Second, these employee behaviours deviate from the organizational norms. Third, these deviant behaviours can be directed towards the organization or can be targeted towards individuals at work.

According to Judge, Scott, and Ilies (2006), workplace provides a forum where employees express various behaviours that are significant to individuals, organizations and

society. Although some of these behaviours are socially desirable like helping and citizenship behaviours, another set of behaviours may be viewed as improper or outside the acceptable norms (Judge et al., 2006). Such improper behaviours which fall outside the conventional norms fall into the category of workplace deviant behaviours (Bennett & Robinson, 2003).

According to Gok et al., (2017 p. 259), workplace deviance acts “may be characterized as sins of commission, as opposed to sins of omission”. They are individuals’ intentional behaviours which deviate from the ethical standards of organizations and aim to harm organizational functioning (Robinson, 2000). Such deviance acts include intentional late arriving to work, taking unauthorized breaks, ignoring the instructions, stealing from organizations and/or people, damaging organizational property, gossiping about supervisor or organization, embarrassing one’s supervisor or colleagues, leaking organizational confidential information, or indulging in violence (Bennett & Robinson 2000; Berry et al., 2007; Ferris et al., 2009; Vardi & Wiener, 1996), workplace deviance is typically seen as egregious, wilful behaviour (Gok et al., 2017).

Above research findings suggest that since workplace deviance behaviours are volitional in nature (Gok et al., 2017; Robinson & Bennett, 1995) there needs to be a motivating factor behind such behaviours. Moreover, research also suggests that deviance behaviours are actually reactive behaviours which are unethical in nature and outcomes of specific events (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Considering the importance of workplace deviance behaviours for organizations, scholars remained concerned to determine the factors behind engaging workplace deviance behaviours.

Extant research suggests organizational injustice as a motivating factor for employees to engage in workplace deviance behaviours in an attempt to restore fairness (Frey et al., 2013). Although the construct of workplace deviance has been conceptualized over the years (Bennett & Robinson 2000; Robinson & Bennett 1995), the workplace deviance literature has begun to differentiate that following injustice perceptions, when individuals engage in workplace deviance acts, they aim for two primary targets- organizations and supervisors (Hershcovis et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose 2007). These two forms of deviance behaviours seem to stem from individuals' perceptions about the object that is responsible for unfairness (Gok et al., 2017). Research suggests that when individuals perceive their supervisors as source of unfair treatment, they are more likely to engage in supervisor focused deviance which can manifest in the form of undermining, ridiculing, gossiping about or challenging their bosses (Baron & Neuman 1998; Bies & Tripp 1998). Thus, supervisor directed deviance stems from direct violation of justice principals at the hands of supervisor (Gok et al., 2017). However, empirical research also suggests that negative leadership or supervision may motivate individuals to engage in deviance which is focused towards organization i.e., organization-directed deviance (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Moreover, if individuals fear that reaction against their supervisor or perpetrator will result in further retaliation from them, or they feel themselves incapable to retaliate, then individuals may become engaged in deviance acts which are directed towards their organizations instead of supervisors (Dollard et al., 1939). Thus, individuals feel both supervisor-directed and organization-directed deviance as suitable targets to express their displeasure (Gok et al., 2017).

Extant research also documents involvement of some underlying motives of individuals behind engagement in deviance acts (Gok et al. 2017). While some scholars

have evidenced that individuals may engage in deviance acts just to feel the thrill of being rebellion from their authority (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), most of research is conclusive to point out that organizational injustice is the main reason behind employees' engagement in workplace deviance behaviours (Tepper et al., 2009). Gok et al., (2017), classify the motivating factors behind workplace deviance behaviours into contextual and personal factors. Contextual factors may include a hostile work climate (Mawritz et al., 2012), psychological contract breaches (Bordia et al., 2008), abusive supervision (Tepper et al., 2008, 2009; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Martinko et al., 2013), workplace environment, e.g., organizational injustice (Tepper et al., 2009), and workplace aggression (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010), while individual factors may include personality based negative emotional tendency (dispositional tendency) and a dispositional tendency for revenge (El Akremi et al., 2010).

However, the scope of this study allows to focus on the contextual factor of organizational injustice being a motivation for employees to engage in deviance behaviours. Although the positive relationship between injustice perceptions and workplace deviance is well established, most of the research has been conducted in western settings. This study, therefore, seeks to test this relationship in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The detailed arguments, about positive relationship between injustice perceptions and workplace deviance behaviours, are extended in next chapter while developing hypotheses for direct effect relationships.

Moreover, as per research objective number two, this study also seeks to investigate the mediating role of an important negative workplace emotion of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and workplace deviance. Earlier research

delineates that if employees perceive organizational decisions and managerial actions as unfair, they are likely to experience negative emotions (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and such negative emotions have been linked with workplace deviance behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2005). Research has also shown a positive relationship of jealousy with aggression and counter-productive work behaviors (Bauer & Spector, 2015; DeSteno, Valdesolo, & Bartlett, 2006). Extending the findings of earlier research this research aims to investigate the mediating role of workplace jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and workplace deviant behaviors. The detailed arguments that how workplace jealousy can play a mediating role between this relationship are furnished in next chapter while developing hypotheses and theoretical framework.

2.5 Turnover intentions:

Turnover intentions continue to remain a topic of great interest for organizational scholars because of a direct association between turnover intentions and actual turnover and the lack of longitudinal studies to determine that how many employees who had turnover intentions left the organizations in future (Harris et al., 2018; Poon, 2012; Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Research substantiates that turnover intentions are important predictor of employee actual turnover (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). Turnover can be costly to organizations by negatively impacting organizational reputation, relationships with clients and employees moral (Wallace & Gaylor, 2012). Turnover leaves adverse effects on organizations due to its direct association with the high organizational costs, lower productivity and efficiency, as well as increasing recruitment costs for hiring new employees (Li, Kim, & Zhao, 2017; Wan & Chan, 2013). Determining the reasons for employee turnover is important because high employee turnover can be costly for

employers and directly impacts the performance of the organization (Glebbeek & Bax, 2004). Turnover intentions have been defined by various scholars as below.

1.	Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, (2011, p. 159)	Turnover intentions are employees' intentions to quit their jobs
2.	Tett & Meyer (1993, p. 262)	According to Tett & Meyer (1993), turnover intentions refer to a deliberate willingness of employees to leave the organization.
3.	Vandenberg & Nelson (1999, p. 1315).	Defined turnover intentions as individuals' own estimation that they want to leave the organization in near future on permanent basis.
4.	Schaufeli & Bakker (2004, p. 296)	Turnover intention is a possible coping strategy of any employee when he/she experience burnout as a result of higher job demands and lower job resources which in turn leads to turnover intention.
5	Elci, Ki tapci, & Erturk, (2007, p. 526)	Turnover intention is the likelihood that an employee will leave his/her job within the foreseeable future.
6	Jaros (1997, p. 321)	Turnover is a general cognitive behaviour towards leaving the organization.

Table 2.3 Definitions of turnover intentions

These definitions from literature delineate that turnover intention is employee's own willingness to leave the organization. Therefore, this is important to investigate the factors which are responsible for intentions to quit the job. Employees quit the organizations in two ways i.e., involuntary turnover and voluntary turnover. Involuntary turnover ascends from the organizational side due to specific reasons. Organizations may dismiss the employee due to incompetence, or offer retirement plans due to age (Dess & Shaw, 2001). However, voluntary turnover occurs due to certain reasons such as unfavourable working conditions e.g., organizational injustice, stress at work, or due to personal reasons concerning better career orientation or more attractive financial offerings (Dess & Shaw, 2001). The focus of this study is voluntary turnover as employee first develops turnover intentions which then serve the reason for actual turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000). Research evidences that employee turnover can be extremely harmful for the organizations and because turnover intentions are the essential predictor of actual turnover, this study seeks to investigate the motivating factor behind turnover intentions.

Extant research suggests that following two types of factors are involved behind employees' turnover intentions. First; external factors such as better job opportunities outside the current organization. Second; internal factors which are organizational factors, like work environment e.g., injustice perceptions or leadership style and reward systems (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Mobley, 1982). This study will focus on the second type of factors i.e., organizational factors because this study seeks to investigate the mediating role of workplace jealousy between injustice perceptions and employee turnover intentions.

However, regardless of the approach for employee turnover, the consequences of it are very deleterious and challenging for the company. The act of leaving the organization

potentially causes harm to the organization, for example, organizations have to spend time and money to hire new employees and then train them (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004; Greenbaum, Mawritz, Mayer, & Priesemuth, 2013; Kacmar, Andrews, Van Rooy, Steilberg, & Cerrone, 2006; Shaw, Gupta, & Delery, 2005). Moreover, it also indirectly reduces morale of remaining associates which results in loss of social capital (Shaw, Duffy, Johnson, & Lockhart, 2005). In principle, the actual cost associated with employee' turnover is hard to measure, particularly, when the departing employee is highly skilled, knowledgeable and a high performer (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Shaw et al., 2005).

Mobley (1977) pioneered a comprehensive process model for predicting employee turnover intentions incorporating a six step procedure leading to actual quitting of job. The steps involve evaluation of satisfaction level, developing turnover intentions, assessment of utility of new job and costs of quitting current job, developing actual intentions to look for new job which follows by actual search. The final step is actual quitting based on availability of favourable option compared to current job.

Mobley (1977) model helps to explain that why employees develop intentions to quit their existing jobs. According to this model, employees' make evaluation of their current jobs and on the basis of this evaluation they either feel satisfied or dissatisfied. Dissatisfaction from current job leads to thoughts for quitting the organization which actually is the first step in this process. Research evidences that if employees, as part of their evaluation, perceive unfairness they feel dissatisfied from their jobs (Demirtas & Akdogan, 2015; Mobley, 1982). Therefore, perceptions of injustice are primarily responsible for creating a feeling of dissatisfaction which will potentially serve the purpose of lead to thoughts for turnover.

According to Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin (1999), organizations can be considered as marketplaces where employees are involved in trading their motivation and talents in return for rewards which include tangible (e.g., pay) as well as intangible (e.g., respect and fair treatment). Hence, in the workplace, employees' are in a reciprocal relationship with organizations where they receive benefits, and perceptions of fair treatment are reciprocated with continued employment (Jones & Skarlicki, 2003). It is plausible that injustice perceptions may lead employees to leave their jobs in an attempt to get fair treatment in other organizations (Jones & Skarlicki, 2003). Low justice perceptions, for example, may motivate an employee to leave an organization in order to end inequity (Adams, 1963), or to obtain fairer treatment in another organization (Jones & Skarlicki, 2003). Folger (1993) suggests that employees may view perceptions of procedural and interpersonal treatment unfairness as an indication of lower organization wide fairness in the future, and hence employees can feel motivation to quit their jobs to seek an alternative fairness (Jones & Skarlicki, 2003).

In terms of deontological theory individuals look at rightness or wrongness of actions regardless of whether these actions affecting them directly or not. In the light of deontological theory, when employees see their co-workers being treated unfairly, they would likely see this treatment as violation of moral standards, and any such violations, regardless of whether they affected them or their co-workers personally, would influence the desire to remain with the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012). Scholars, who have studied turnover intentions from a social exchange perspective, have linked these intentions to employees' expectations, that what they gain from organizations should be proportionate to their efforts for the organization. However, if they perceive that they are

treated unfairly, they will reciprocate to equal the score by giving reactions such as turnover intentions (Lavelle, Rupp, & Brockner, 2007).

Based on above research findings, as per research objective number one, this study seeks to investigate the direct effects of injustice perceptions on employee turnover intentions in order to check its validity in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The detailed arguments for relationship between injustice perceptions and employee turnover are given in the next chapter while developing the hypothesis. Moreover, as per research objective number two, this study also seeks to investigate the mediating role of an important negative workplace emotion i.e., jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and turnover intentions. This study derives its theoretical support from earlier findings of justice scholars that injustice perceptions have the potential to trigger employee emotions which in turn can influence employee attitudinal and behavioural outcomes such as turnover intentions (Barclay et al., 2005; Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2011). Previous research also suggests the association of negative emotions with intentions for turnover and actual turnover (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003). The detailed arguments for the mediating role of workplace jealousy between relationship of injustice perceptions and turnover intentions are extended in next chapter for hypotheses development.

2.6 Job Performance:

Job performance is one of the most important work-related behavioural outcomes. Due to its importance for organizations, researchers have paid a great deal of attention to study the factors which influence employee job performance. Although employee

performance is crucial for success of any organization, yet workers are not performing to their full potential (Korschun, Bhattacharya, & Swain, 2014). Research also suggests the role of organizational factors in influencing this important job outcome. Thus, it is important to look at the factors that can influence employee performance. Various scholars have defined job performance as below.

1	Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012, p. 348)	Defined job performance as formal role expectations from employee that contribute to organizational effectiveness.
2	Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, & Whitten (2011, p. 301).	Job performance has also been explained as obligatory work behavior which is expected as part of an employee's role in the organization and this is acknowledged by the organization's reward system.
3	Rotundo & Sackett (2002, p. 66)	Job performance is conceptualized as individual's those actions and behaviors that are under their own control and which contribute towards organizational goals.
4	Zablah et al., (2012, p. 25)	Defined Job performance as the work role related contribution of an employee to the organization which becomes part of its effectiveness.
5	Borman & Motowidlo (1997, p. 99)	Define job performance as employee activities which contribute to the core activities of the organization.

6	Murphy (1989, p. 185)	Job performance is defined as volitional actions and behaviors on the part of organizational members that contribute to, or, in the case of some behaviors, negatively impact, the goals of the organization. (individual performances on specific tasks that comprise their job descriptions).
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Table 2.4 Definitions of job performance

These definitions describe job performance as employee actions which they perform as part of their formal role requirements and which significantly contribute towards achieving overall goals of the organization. Hence the construct of job performance is of great importance as a lower job performance will directly affect the goals of the organization. Hence organizational researchers have paid much attention on evaluating the factors which can influence employee job performance. Extant research suggests that an individual's job performance is largely influenced by workplace perceptions (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Vigoda, 2000).

Some scholars have described job performance as a multidimensional domain (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000), based on the opinion that the extra role behaviours which form part of this multidimensional domain, also play a pivotal role in the overall functioning of the organization (e.g., Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). These performance dimensions have been described as task performance, organization citizenship behaviours (OCB), and counter-productive behaviours (CWB) (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). However, it has been reiterated that out of these

three dimensions, only task performance relates to employee's in-role performance which is directly related with employee's job activities that contribute towards organizational core functions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997) and makes a part of one's job description (Kaplan et al., 2009). The other dimensions of job performance like OCBs, are commonly conceptualized as behaviours that go above and beyond the employee's formal role requirements and mainly aim to facilitate overall organizational functioning (Lee & Allen, 2002). Conversely, CWBs or workplace deviance represent behaviours that violate organizational norms and "threaten the well-being of the organization and/or its members" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556). Overall, most of the organizational scholars have used the term of job performance to represent the task performance which is part of one's job description and contributes towards achievement of organizational goals (Carlson et al., 2011; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Zablah et al., 2012). This research also uses the term of job performance to represent only task performance which is part of formal job description and which contributes to core functions of an organization.

Research shows that both cognitive and emotional judgments of individuals influence their job attitudes (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013). This study, as part of its research objectives number one and two, is investigating both cognitive and emotion based influences on this important job outcome. Job attitudes express employee feelings about their jobs which arise as a result of their perceptions about their jobs or organizations. Regarding, influence of cognitive judgments of employees on their job performance, extant research shows that individuals' perceptions of organizational injustice play a pivotal role in influencing their job performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001, Kaplan et al., 2009). Justice has been viewed as the basic virtue of organizations (Rawls, 1999; Rupp et al., 2017) and a primary

concern for employees (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano et al., 2001). The Pandora of research attention which the construct of job performance has enjoyed stems from its ability to influence organizational success (Aryee et al., 2015; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Research reiterates that three dimensions of organizational justice i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice can influence employee job performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2013; Li & Cropanzano, 2009).

The relationship between injustice and job performance has been explained using various theoretical lenses. Some justice researchers used the lens of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the relationship between injustice perceptions and job performance (Masterson et al., 2000). Social exchange theory views organizations as arenas, where employees and organizations are engaged in long-term mutual social transactions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In the context of social exchange theory, justice is viewed as an organization's input in the reciprocal based exchange relationship which can emanate either from the organization, or the supervisor (Masterson et al., 2000; Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996). In the exchange relationship, when employees perceive justice from organization they try to reciprocate this with better job performance. Conversely, in case of unfair treatment from organization or supervisors, employee tend to reciprocate this by reducing their job performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Moreover, research also evidences the important role of emotions in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours (Cosmides & Tooby, 2000; Judge & Larsen, 2001). Organizational settings are full of emotions (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Barclay et al., 2005; Weiss et al., 1999), and research suggests the role of emotions in influencing job

performance (Barsade, Brief, Spataro, & Greenberg, 2003; Brief & Weiss, 2002). This study as per research objective number two is also investigating the mediating role of a common workplace negative emotions of jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006; Vecchio, 2000) between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job performance. The detailed arguments are rendered in next chapter while developing hypotheses.

This study is, accordingly, investigating both cognitive and emotion based influences on this important job outcome. As per research objective number one, this study is testing the negative role of injustice perceptions on employee job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. This research as per research objective number two also seeks to investigate the mediating role of an important workplace emotion of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job performance.

2.7 Emotions:

Emotions are defined as transient, intense reactions to an event, person or entity (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). The term affect has frequently been used in literature to represent emotions and as an outcome associated with injustice (Colquitt et al., 2013). Affect has a tradition of long association with behaviour and cognition in social psychology (Hoobler & Hu, 2013), and is defined as a long lasting negative or positive emotional experience and is classified as state affect and trait or dispositional affect (Gooty et al., 2010). The trait affect is related to the personality of an individual and is a dispositional tendency of that individual to evaluate the events as positive or negative, whereas state affect, which is the focus of this study, represents the emotional state which activates in a person's cognitive background and lasts for a longer duration. The emotions are considered an important part of the

organizational processes (Barclay et al., 2005), and are assessed and examined differently from dispositional affect, because emotions are aroused due to a specific event or cause, and are linked to specific tendencies to act (Barsade & Gibson, 2007).

2.8 Justice and emotions:

Both emotions and organizational justice are important in shaping employee attitudes and thus have important implications in the workplace (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008). Weiss et al. (1999), for example, reiterates the importance of emotions as outcome of organizational events such as injustice, and as a link between perceptions of injustice and employee behaviour. Organizational injustice as antecedent of emotional outcomes has been explained using appraisal theories of emotions. Appraisal theories of emotions (e.g., Lazarus, 1991), mention that people continuously scan their immediate environments for detecting and evaluating any changes. Individuals' perceptions of events, which are not favourable for achieving one's goals, can trigger strong emotional reactions (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). The relationship between injustice perceptions and emotional reactions has also received empirical research support (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Weiss et al., 1999). Lazarus (1991), associated emotions with behavioural responses. Although emotions remain a part of justice literature, "they were not in a central place in the paradigms that shaped the justice literature" (Colquitt et al., 2013, p. 205). As De Cremer (2007) observes, "relatively little progress has been made in exploring the relationship between two concepts that, by their very nature, should have a relationship, namely, justice and emotions" (p.2). Likewise, Cropanzano et al., (2011) noted, "Given the natural affinity between injustice and affect, integrating the two literatures has been slower than one might expect". (p.3).

In a pioneering study, Weiss et al., (1999), found a significant impact of injustice perceptions on emotions like anger, happiness, guilt and pride. Weiss et al., (1999)'s study was followed by a more focused approach on the role of emotions in justice research. In particular a number of studies linked the violation of justice rules to negative emotional states- for example Krehbiel & Cropanzano (2000), in their study also support the notion that procedural justice in terms of outcome favourability has implications for discrete emotions. Goldman (2003), found that anger partially mediated the relationship between a three-way interaction of procedural, distributive, and interactional justice with legal claiming against an organization. Barclay et al., (2005), examined the relationship between procedural justice and interactional justice with emotions of shame, guilt, anger and hostility. They found that outcome favourability was negatively related with emotions of shame and guilt at a high level of procedural justice and interactional justice, again suggesting the link of emotions with justice. Similarly, at high levels of procedural and interactional justice, outcome favourability was negatively related with emotions of anger and hostility, thus indicating a connection between justice and emotions.

Chebat & Slusarczyk (2005), while, investigating the mediation effect of anxiety, disgust, joy and hope between relationship of perceived distributive justice and loyalty of customers to their organization, found a positive relationship between all dimensions of justice and emotions. Rupp & Spencer (2006), in their study, use the discrete emotion of anger to explain the relationship between customer interactional injustice and emotional labour, evidencing the influence of discrete emotions on specific work outcomes. Cohen-Charash & Mueller (2007), in their study, demonstrate that envious people will engage in harming behaviours towards others when they feel high levels of envy in unfair situations. They also examined self-esteem as a moderator of the relationship among envy, unfairness

and harming behaviors and found that high self-esteem further aggravates the negative interaction between high levels of unfairness and envy. Colquitt et al. (2012), in their study, found the justice dimensions of distributive, procedural and interpersonal justice as predictor of affect and cognition trust and evidenced that trust variables mediated the relationship between justice facets and job performance, showing affect based trust to drive "exchange-based mediation" and "cognition-based trust" to drive "uncertainty based mediation". De Clercq & Saridakis (2015) in their study show that informational injustice has the potential of developing negative workplace emotions, and higher levels of job influence, reward interdependence, trust, and organizational commitment attenuate this effect. The study highlights the importance of informational injustice in triggering negative workplace emotions with respect to change and explicates that when informational injustice is more or less likely to enhance these emotions.

2.9 Jealousy:

As explained in chapter one, jealousy is defined as “the negative emotional state generated in response to a threatened or actual loss of a valued relationship due to the presence of a real or imagined rival” (DeSteno et al., 2006; 627). Since workplace jealousy is an abstract construct, Desteno et al., (2006), attempted to describe the idea of workplace jealousy and how it is formed as an emotion in the individuals’ minds in detail. According to them, workplace jealousy is formed in a triadic relationship where three parties are involved i.e., focal employee, superiors and the coworkers. The superiors typically possess control over organizational benefits and the coworkers are in competition with focal employee for these benefits. The focal employee and his/her superior are locked in a relationship which is valuable for the focal employee because organizational benefits are associated with this relationship. According to Desteno et al., (2006), jealousy occurs

when this valuable relationship between focal employee and superior is under threat from rival colleagues who are in competition with the focal employee for organizational benefits. Thus, the presence of a triadic relationship and a threat to this relationship from a rival party fulfills the condition for eliciting jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006; Vecchio, 2000).

In the context of justice, as justice ensures predictability of organizational benefits (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Jost et al., 2004), any violation of justice principles can reduce certainty of organizational benefits and focal employee can feel a threat to his/her relationship with superiors from rival colleagues. Hence, this fulfills the condition of eliciting jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006). As regards role of three dimensions of injustice in eliciting jealousy, extant research suggests that all three dimensions of justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) are derived from individuals' expectations of either economic or socio-emotional outcomes, and, thus, can be independently associated with negative emotions (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001). Hence the three dimensions of injustice can independently elicit jealousy.

Jealousy is an important aspect of human social life and is a commonly experienced emotion (DeSteno et al., 2006; Levy & Kelly, 2009). Jealousy has traditionally been studied in romantic relationships involving a romantic triadic relationship where an individual becomes jealous as he/she perceives or actually finds that his/her partner is interested in a rival and the relationship between that individual and his/her partner is under threat from the rival (DeSteno, Bartlett, Braverman, & Salovey, 2002; DeSteno & Salovey, 1996; Harris, 2003; Salovey, 1991). However, jealousy can occur in any triadic relationship where a valued relationship of any type is under threat

from a rival (DeSteno et al., 2006). Although jealousy is a common emotion in workplace settings, only few studies have been undertaken on jealousy within the organizational settings (Vecchio, 2000). Employees have reported experiencing jealousy in the workplace for their coworkers' relationships with superiors (Vecchio, 1995, 2000). The relationship with superiors is important because superiors hold control over certain benefits and rewards which are important for employee goals and progress, and the strength of the relationship dictates the allocation of these benefits and rewards, hence jealousy can be expected to play a role aiming to safeguard such relationships due to presence of rival colleagues (DeSteno et al., 2006).

The emotion of jealousy summons interest as a mediating mechanism between injustice and job outcomes relationship, because this emotion commonly prevails in workplace settings (Vecchio, 2000), and is also associated with aggressive behaviour (DeSteno et al., 2006). The aggression based action tendency of jealousy classifies it as a reactive emotion which can be reflected in the form of employees' reactive behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013). For example, anger has an action tendency of attack and action tendency related to joy is outgoingness (Lazarus, 1991), and these emotions reflect in individuals' behaviours in line with their action tendencies. These action tendencies of the emotions help to understand the relationship between a specific emotion and its related behavioural outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013). Jealousy, as compared to many other negative emotions, leads to more hostile and abusive behaviour aimed at relationship partners (De Weerth & Kalma, 1993; Paul, Foss, & Galloway, 1993; Shackelford, 2001). Hence, Jealousy due to its aggression based action tendency can motivate those employees who experience jealousy to engage in reactive behaviours such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and to reduce job performance. Jealousy, therefore, seems to be an

important emotion to be explored as a mediating variable in explaining the injustice and related job outcomes relationship. Lazarus (1991), in his seminal work categorizes jealousy in the generation of negative emotions which result from harm, loss, and threat. In this context, it is also noted that threat of loss not due to a rival may not trigger jealousy but may lead to other emotion-mediated behaviors aimed at maintaining the relationship (DeSteno et al., 2006) such as envy.

2.10 Differentiating Jealousy from Envy:

Jealousy is sometimes confused with envy, because of its linguistic overlapping during use of this term and the tendency for both emotions to co-occur, but research shows these two emotions as quite distinct (Parrott & Smith, 1993; Smith, Kim, & Parrott, 1988). Jealousy and envy "result from different situations, generate distinct appraisals, and produce distinctive emotional experiences" (Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 47). Envy is included in the class of negative emotions (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007), is associated with aggressive behaviour (Smith & Kim, 2007), but typically involves two people and is experienced when one feels lack of something which is enjoyed by another (Smith & Kim, 2007). "The target of envy may be a person or a group of persons, but the focus of envy is that one lacks something compared with a specific target, whether it be a target individual or target group" (Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 47).

Jealousy is also classified as negative emotion (Lazarus, 1991), and has association with aggressive behaviour (DeSteno et al., 2006), but typically involves three people or parties and is experienced when one fears losing something to another person (Smith & Kim, 2007). In the organizational context the three parties are the focal employee, the rival colleague and the valued target party (Vecchio, 2000). The fear of loss is for

organizational benefits and rewards which are of paramount importance for the foal employee. But "envy involves cases in which another person has what we want but cannot have, whereas jealousy involves the threat of losing someone to a rival" (Smith & Kim, 2007, p. 49). Hence the emotion of envy produces when one feels a lack of something, which is important for him/her, compared with a specific target which may be an individual or group and the target of envy is the target individual or group. Whereas jealousy involves three parties and is experienced when one fears losing something, which is important for him/her, against the rival party and the focus of jealousy is the rival party.

2.11 Affective events theory and the mediating Role of Jealousy:

The mediating mechanism of jealousy, between the relationship of injustice perceptions and employee outcomes, can be explained by affective events theory (AET); (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). AET states that workplace events are evaluated by employees, on the basis of which, they experience emotions that subsequently influence their behaviours and attitudes (Weiss et al., 1999, p. 791). AET was designed as a broad and over-arching frame-work for exploring emotions in the workplace (Veiga, Baldrige, & Markóczy, 2014), which propagates that work events are causes of employees' emotional reactions and these reactions, in turn predict job attitudes and behaviour (Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013). It is used to explain the link between an event (stimulus) and emotional and behavioural reactions to this event by a subject (response) (Veiga et al., 2014). AET elaborates a link between job affect and specific job behaviors that are unique to affective events (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). While affect refers to employees' emotions, attitude is an evaluative judgement based on affect (Carlson et al., 2011).

Consistent with theoretical norms of AET, justice scholars have argued that employees react emotionally to organizational injustice in workplace exchanges and allocations and that these emotional reactions lead to attitudinal and behavioural consequences (Barsky et al., 2011). Injustice perceptions, in fact, have been termed as "emotionally laden experience" (Barclay et al., 2005). A large body of justice literature propagates that emotions are the central player which translate a sense of unfairness into work behaviours (Weiss et al., 1999). Specifically, injustice perceptions cause a negative emotional state because perceived unfairness precipitates emotional and affective states of individuals through appraisal processes (Robbins et al., 2012).

Colquitt et al., (2013), explain that AET is an appraisal-based theory according to which a triggering event results in two distinct appraisal processes (Weiss et al., 1999). At the primary appraisal stage, the assessment of an event is made whether it is beneficial or harmful for the personal goals of an individual. This assessment at the primary stage determines the type of emotion whether, it will be positive or negative. During the secondary appraisal process, the context and attributions for the event are examined, along with the potential to cope with it, giving rise to specific discrete emotions. As such, injustice serves the purpose of an affective event (Weiss et al., 1999); employees' receipt of unfavourable outcomes, are interpreted in the light of justice principles, such as fairness of distribution and one's participation in organizational decisions, which, in turn trigger discrete emotions following these unfairness interpretations (Robbins et al., 2012), and effect the employee attitude and behaviour (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014).

2.12 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is an important psychological mechanism which positively motivates human resources (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). It has been defined by various scholars as below.

1	Bandura (1998, p. 3)	Self-efficacy is defined as the “beliefs in one’s capabilities to organize and execute the course of action required to produce given attainments”.
2	Stajkovic & Luthans (1998, p. 66)	Defined self-efficacy as “the employee’s conviction or confidence about his or her abilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources or courses of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context.”
3	Bozeman, Hochwarier, Perrewe, & Brymer (2001, p. 491)	Self-efficacy is a cognitive self-appraisal of the ability to perform well in one’s job.
4	Stajkovic & Luthans (2003, p. 130)	“Self-efficacy refers to an individual’s belief about his or her capabilities to execute a specific task within a given context”
5	Bandura (1997, p. 9)	Self-efficacy refers to “peoples’ beliefs that they can exert control over their motivation and behaviour and over their social environment”
6.	Canrinus, Helm-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink, & Hofman (2012, p. 118).	Self-efficacy refers to individual’s perceptions of his/her ability to perform tasks.

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Table 2.5 Definitions of self efficacy:

According to Stajkovic & Luthans (2003), self-efficacy has been drawn from social cognitive theory. In SCT, the "social" aspect relates to the organizational environment which influences the behaviors and knowledge of the employees in workplace settings. The "cognitive" aspect acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in motivating individuals for actions, i.e., employees' unique personal characteristics motivate them to process and act upon available information differently (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). As such, self-efficacy could play a central role as it regulates human actions through people's beliefs in their own capabilities to influence the environment and produce desired outcomes by their actions. "For instance, unless employees believe that they can gather up the necessary behavioural, cognitive, and motivational resources to successfully execute the task in question (whether working on a product/service or developing a strategic plan), they will most likely dwell on the formidable aspects of the required performance, exert insufficient effort, and, as a result, not do well or even fail on the task. This personal confidence, or more precisely self-efficacy, plays a pivotal role in SCT" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 127)

Research suggests three types of self-efficacy i.e., self-efficacy, general self-efficacy, and collective self-efficacy. General self-efficacy has been labeled as a trait like dispositional personal characteristic used in the context of work motivation (Eden & Zuk, 1995). Although general self-efficacy at first glance seems similar to self-efficacy, however, according to Bandura's theory and empirical research, the constructs of self-efficacy and general self-efficacy are conceptually and psychometrically distinct from each other. Particularly, Bandura describes that self-efficacy is more specific to task and

situation cognition (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Conversely, general self-efficacy is portrayed as a generalized trait quality about an individual's overall estimation of his/her ability to perform various jobs under diverse conditions. Thus, "whereas self-efficacy represents a dynamic motivational belief system that may vary depending on unique properties of each task and work situation, general self-efficacy represents an "enduring" personal trait that (supposedly) generalizes and successfully applies to a wide range of different situations" (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003, p. 133). Self-efficacy has been primarily shown as state like in nature (Bandura, 1997; Parker, 1998). The state like nature of self-efficacy is also evident from its developmental nature over time and also due to its domain specificity (Luthans & Youssef, 2007).

The third type of self-efficacy i.e., collective self-efficacy is defined as a shared belief of a group in its collective capabilities of performing actions that are required for successful accomplishment of tasks (Bandura, 1997). Bandura, considering the importance of team work in organizations, extended his social cognitive theory from analysing individual level to the group level and corresponding construct of collective efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). According to SCT, collective self-efficacy has the same antecedents as self-efficacy, follows similar processes for its operationalization and shares same correlates and consequences as self-efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Bandura (1982) clarifies that group's efficacy is not independent of the individuals' efficacy who comprise the group, likewise, individuals' efficacy beliefs are not detached from group in they work. In other words, it is important to consider the group processes in which individuals operate to measure the collective efficacy on individual basis, as without considering the individual capability of each member about execution of his or her roles, measuring collective efficacy would just be an estimation. SCT suggests collective

efficacy as a critical factor in group's overall motivation and performance. This is because the success of a group is result of cooperation and coordinated efforts of its members, as well as collective sharing of knowledge, skills and abilities these members. SCT reiterates that collective efficacy determines group's options of tasks and their level of efforts in the face of challenging situations. Thus, even if the individual members are skilled, if they do not believe that they can perform well in a group environment, they are likely to put insufficient efforts and give up easily in the face of adverse situations and consequently perform poorly in a collective effort.

According to Stajkovic & Luthans (2003), Self-efficacy works through employee evaluation and collecting information about their perceived capabilities before initiating their efforts. Self-efficacy determines whether an employee's work behaviour will be initiated, the level of efforts that will be extended, duration and sustainability of these efforts, especially in the light of adverse situations like experiencing negative emotions such as jealousy. These factors play a critical role in execution of organizational tasks. Employees who have high levels of self-efficacy will activate sufficient effort that, if well executed, produces successful outcomes. Hence, such employees should be able to handle the deleterious effects of jealousy which otherwise can reflect in the form of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and reduced job performance. On the other hand, employees having low self-efficacy are more likely to give-up without sufficient efforts and fail on the task. Hence, such employees will not be able to handle the pernicious effects of jealousy which will ultimately adversely influence the job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Research shows an established association between self-efficacy and improved job outcomes and work attitudes across cultures (Luthans, Zhu, & Avolio, 2006).

This study, extending earlier research findings suggests a moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, whereby employees who are in high in self-efficacy should be able to overcome the deleterious effects of jealousy on these job outcomes. The detailed arguments that how self-efficacy can help individuals in overcoming the pernicious effects of jealousy are discussed in next chapter while hypotheses development.

2.13 Summary:

This chapter discussed the literature regarding the variables of interest for this study. The importance of justice in organizations is reviewed i.e., why people care about justice? why and how injustice perceptions are developed in individuals? and what are consequences of injustice perceptions? The importance of three dimensions of justice are also reviewed and consequences of justice violations are also discussed. Different theories are discussed in the context of justice dimensions which scholars have used as lenses to investigate relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes. Job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance are discussed. Various definitions and relationship between injustice perceptions and these job outcomes are also part of this chapter. This chapter then explores previous research regarding integration of justice and emotions. Important workplace negative emotion of jealousy is discussed along with justification of suggesting jealousy as a mediating mechanism and why it can mediate between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Affective events theory is also reviewed in detail and examined in the context of an overarching theory which is used by

organizational scholars to explain the mediating mechanism of emotions. The last part of chapter scans the variable of self-efficacy which is suggested as a moderating variable in this study.

CHAPTER- THREE

HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMWORK DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Introduction:

This chapter extends detailed arguments for development of hypotheses and conceptual framework for this research to achieve research objectives. This study is making three-fold investigations. First, as per research objective number one, this research aims to extend the validity earlier research findings about direct effects of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Second, as per research objective number two, this study is investigating the mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Third, as per research objective number three, this study is exploring the moderating role of self-efficacy in reducing the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance.

Therefore, first part of this chapter extends arguments about direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions and job outcomes and develops hypotheses regarding direct effect relationships. Second part of this chapter gives arguments about mediating role of jealousy between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance and develops the hypotheses for these relationships. Third part of this chapter renders arguments about moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the pernicious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance and develops hypotheses for

these relationships. Finally, based on literature review and critical arguments extended in this chapter, a conceptual framework for this research is developed to investigate the research objectives of this study.

3.2 Hypotheses related to the direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions and job outcomes:

Extant justice research links fairness to a variety of employee attitudes and behaviours (Ambrose, Schminke, & Mayer, 2013; Colquitt et al., 2005; Harris, Lavelle, & McMahan, 2018; Latham & Pinder, 2005). Earlier research suggests that organizational injustice impacts various job outcomes such as lower job performance, work place deviance behaviours, and turnover intentions (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2017; Tekleab et al., 2005). However, most of the earlier research has been conducted in the social conditions of west. This study, therefore, as per its research objective number one, seeks to validate the earlier research findings about direct effect relationship between injustice and job outcomes in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

3.2.1 Injustice and workplace deviance:

Research shows a positive relationship between organizational injustice and workplace deviant behaviours. Injustice perceptions have far-reaching impacts on employees' attitudes and behaviours (Rupp, 2011). If employees perceive fairness in their organizations, they will expect fair rewards of their efforts (Shoaib & Baruch, 2017), conversely low perceptions of organizational justice signal a disproportionate input versus outcome ratio which will motivate employees to restore equity by engaging in retaliatory behaviours (Frey et al., 2013). Organizational justice scholars reiterate that deviant

behaviour is an intentional act which is motivated by the need to seek retributive justice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). Experience of injustice is evidenced as one of most common causes of workplace deviance (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), and as the literature has evolved, organizational injustice has become one of the key constructs in explaining workplace deviance (Ambrose et al., 2002; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Boyle, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2003). This relationship follows the strong principle of retaliation which explains that employees are more likely to be involved in deviance when they perceive inequitable treatment in the workplace (Ambrose, 2002; Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino et al., 2006). Similar observations were reported by previous researchers, whereby, perceived injustice has been linked to a range of deviant behaviours such as theft (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Greenberg, 2002), sabotage (Ambrose, 2002), and retaliation (Barclay & Skarlicki, 2009; Barclay et al., 2005).

Earlier research suggests use of various justice theories to explain the relationship between organizational injustice and workplace deviance behaviours (Shapiro, 2001) For example, Mackey et al., (2017), used fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano (2001), in relation with Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), to explain the relationship between organizational justice and supervisor related deviance behaviours. Other scholars have also linked organizational injustice to workplace deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007). The relationship between injustice perceptions and workplace deviance behaviours has also been explained using multifoci approach to justice. According to multifoci approach to justice, individuals perceptions of justice arise from assessment of accountability for the situation and a reciprocal behavioural response towards the responsible party (Liao &

Rupp 2005; Rupp & Cropanzano 2002; Rupp et al., 2014). Perceptions of justice violations emanating due to unfair treatment from supervisor may motivate an employee to restore the sense of justice by engaging in reciprocal negative behaviours against the supervisor i.e., supervisor directed deviance (Greenberg & Alge, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999). Similarly, Rupp and colleagues' (2014) in their meta-analysis show the effects of similarity of target between the relationship of justice perceptions and employee outcomes; so that, perceptions of organization related justice were more relevant to organization-related outcomes, conversely supervisory-related justice was more relevant with supervisor-related outcomes.

Moreover, and more relevant to this study, deviant behaviours are reported to be associated with injustice dimensions. Extant research suggests a positive relationship between each injustice dimension and workplace deviance (El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010). The basic premise involved is that perceptions of any type of organizational unfairness motivates employees to retaliate and hence they tend to engage in workplace deviance (e.g. Ambrose et al., 2002).

From perspective of distributive injustice, workplace deviant behaviours can be interpreted as reactions to restore equity when employees feel an imbalance in input and outcome ratio (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Thus, when employees perceive distributive injustice, they might show reactive behaviour to balance the input/outcome ratio from their perspective (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). For example, Greenberg (1993), shows the employees' engagement in workplace deviance when outcomes were perceived as inequitable (i.e., low distributive justice). According to Greenberg (1987), employee behaviours which aim to create a just state fall under the category of proactive theories.

According to Adams' (1963) theory of inequity, any imbalance in equity will motivate individuals to make both behavioural and cognitive adaptive responses in an attempt to restore equity. The extent of motivation will depend on the level of inequity perceived by individuals (Adams, 1965). In order to restore equity, employees will either change their behaviour or their previous cognitive mind frame (Thierry, 2002). Employees have a natural tendency to restore fairness in the organizational outcomes (Milkovich, 1996; Kuvaas, 2006), due to which distributive unfairness in organizations motivate them to change their job behaviours (Pour Ezzat & Somee 2009), like engaging in workplace deviant behaviours. Unfair distribution of reward outcomes negatively influence employees' attitudes (Cropanzano, 2001), which subsequently motivate them to engage in workplace deviance behaviours (Sardzoska & Tang 2015). Extant research shows a positive relationship between distributive injustice and workplace deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007). Mackey et al., (2017), explains the relationship between distributive injustice and employee workplace deviant behaviours by relating distributive injustice with organizational contextual factors. According to them employees drive their unfairness judgments by making cognitive comparisons. The contextual factors like their work environment (e.g., distributive justice violations) serve the purpose of motivating employees to engage in workplace deviance. Following these findings from extant research, this study seeks to test the positive relationship between distributive injustice and workplace deviance.

<i>H1a</i>	<i>Distributive injustice is positively related to workplace deviance.</i>
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As regards relationship between procedural injustice and workplace deviance, procedural injustice creates negative perceptions about fairness of organizational

procedural systems for allocation of rewards and outcomes, which will reduce incentive for employees to remain favourable towards their organizations (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Hence, employees will tend to engage in workplace deviant behaviours aiming to hurt the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Earlier research suggests that individuals' react to the procedures used by other party to decide resource allocation (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). In the presence of fair procedures, employees are more likely to accept the responsibility for their problems than if procedures are not fair (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). If the procedures which lead to outcomes, are considered unfair, employees are more likely to reciprocate with destructive behaviours (Cropanzano & Folger 1989). The resentment and anger associated with procedural unfairness may motivate employees to engage in retaliatory behaviours (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

According to if employees perceive procedural unfairness, they express feelings of anger and and resentment (Folger, 1993). Moreover unfairness motivates an employee for retribution and the affected party feels an urge to punish those blamed for the unfairness (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Mackey et al., (2017), elaborates that employees drive their fairness judgements by making cognitive comparisons of the situations. They judge the situations either in relation to personal factors like treatment from their supervisors or about the contextual factors of the organization. The contextual factors like their work environment (e.g., procedural justice violations) motivate employees to engage in retaliatory behaviours. Extant research relates procedural injustice with negative employee attitudes at workplace (Cropanzano, 2001), which subsequently motivates individuals' to engage in retaliatory behaviours like workplace deviances (Sardzoska & Tang 2015). Various other scholars have also linked procedural injustice to workplace deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007). Following

earlier research findings about positive relationship between procedural injustice and workplace deviance, this study hypothesize as below

<i>H1b</i>	<i>Procedural injustice is positively related to workplace deviance.</i>
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Extant research suggests interactional injustice as an important antecedent of workplace deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Ferris et al., 2012; Judge et al., 2006; Miller, 2001; Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2007; Park et al., 2017). As interactional injustice relates to day to day interaction between an employee and his/her supervisor, any perceptions about violations of supervisor related justice motivate employees to engage in negative supervisor-subordinate exchanges (Markovsky, 1985; Park et al., 2017). Interactional injustice judgments are subjective in nature due to perceptions about supervisory behaviour (Klaussner, 2014), which employees make as a result of cognitive comparisons about unfairness in relation to treatment from their supervisors (Mackey et al., 2017). It is argued that employees react to supervisor related unfairness either through direct reciprocal retaliation towards supervisors (Bowling & Beehr, 2006; Hershcovis et al., 2007), or through indirect retaliation by engaging in deviant behaviours against other parties like colleagues or organization due to their fear of more retaliation by the harm-doer or due to incapacity of individuals to retaliate (Dollard et al., 1939).

The relationship between interactional injustice and workplace deviance has also been explained using the lens of social exchange theory. According to social exchange theory, employees and their employers are involved in interdependent relationships, whereby one party's behaviour influences the other's (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958). In the light of social exchange theory, justice violations from supervisor will result in reciprocal

negative behaviours directed towards responsible party i.e., supervisor or other parties like colleagues (Di Stefano et al., 2017; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007; Umphress, Bingham, & Mitchell, 2010). In the light of these findings from extant research, this study seeks to test the positive relationship between interactional injustice and workplace deviance.

<i>H1c</i>	<i>Interactional injustice is positively related to workplace deviance.</i>
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3.2.2 Injustice and turnover intentions:

Earlier research suggests the important role of organizational injustice in employee turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2018). Unfair treatment has been related with increased employee intentions to leave their organizations (Cole et al., 2010). On the other hand research shows that fairness can potentially reduce employee turnover intentions (Harris, Lavelle, & McMahan, 2018). Various studies report that organizational injustice relates to higher turnover intentions (Aquino, Griffeth, Allen, & Hom, 1997; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000). The justice theories which deal with individuals' escape or avoidance from unfair situations have been classified as reactive theories of justice (Greenberg, 1987).

Extant research suggests that three dimensions of organizational injustice can develop employees' turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006). As regards distributive injustice, earlier research suggests a significant positive relationship between distributive injustice and employee turnover intentions (Poon, 2012). Distributive justice is related with the fairness of outcomes; therefore, it is predicted to be associated with affective (e.g., negative emotions), cognitive (e.g., perceptual distortion) and behavioural (e.g., withdrawal and turnover intentions) reactions to specific outcomes

(Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). According to equity theory (Adams, 1965), if people perceive inequity in their outcomes in comparison to referent others, they try to restore this inequity. One way to restore this inequity is by changing their behaviours or cognitions, for example, employees may quit their jobs or develop intentions to quit their jobs (Poon, 2012).

If employees have limited external job mobility, actual job quitting may not be immediately possible; instead, psychological job withdrawal (e.g., intentions to quit) may be a more feasible option (Kacmar, Bozeman, Carlson, & Anthony, 1999). Thus, if employees perceive unfair distribution of outcomes, they are more likely to start thinking to seek fairer outcomes in other organization (Brashear, Manolis, & Brooks, 2005; Poon, 2012). Colquitt et al., (2001), in their meta-analytic investigation, show that distributive justice has a strong correlation with employee turnover intention. Based on above findings from earlier research, this study seeks to test the positive relationship between distributive injustice and turnover intentions, thus we hypothesize:

<i>H2a</i>	<i>Distributive injustice is positively related to turnover intentions.</i>
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Procedural justice plays a pivotal role in turnover intentions as it signals the employees that they are valued members of the organization and/or group (Posthuma, Maertz, & Dworkin, 2007). Employees' perceptions of higher levels of procedural justice more likely develop positive emotions and they would like to stay with the organization or remain part of the group (Posthuma et al., 2007). Conversely, procedural injustice is more likely to develop negative emotions among employees and they would not like to stay with the organization or remain part of group (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Posthuma et al., 2007).

For instance, meta-analytic findings show an association of organization-focused procedural injustice with employee turnover intentions (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001) and withdrawal behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Further, Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001)'s meta-analytic results also show a strong correlation of procedural justice and distributive justice with turnover intention. Another study by Daileyl & Kirk (1992) also shows a positive association between procedural injustice and turnover intentions. Thus, earlier research suggests that high quality of social exchange relationship between employee and the organization motivates employees to remain with the organization. Thus, relying on findings from earlier research, this study seeks to test the positive relationship between procedural injustice and turnover intentions and hypothesizes as below:

<i>H2b</i>	<i>Procedural injustice is positively related to turnover intentions.</i>
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In addition to roles of distributive and procedural injustice in eliciting turnover intentions, justice research also suggests that fairness of interpersonal treatment would also impact individuals' decision to leave or remain with the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012). For example, in terms of fairness theory which underpins the concept that fairness is a basic tenet of the psychological contract between employees and the organization (Folger & Cropanzano 2001), unfair interpersonal treatment would motivate individuals to place the assignment of blame on the organization and a sense of accountability of the event can be a motivating factor to develop intentions to leave the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 2002).

Thus fair treatment, particularly interpersonal treatment, is important because it stretches a message to employees that they are valued members of the organization (Posthuma, Maertz, & Dworkin, 2007). Theoretically, fair interpersonal treatment is viewed by the employees as a fact that the organization values them as important part of the organization. However, unfair interpersonal treatment suggests an indication of disposability as the individuals may feel that they are no more considered important part of the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012). In such cases of unfair interpersonal treatment, employees related this to employer’s failure to establish equitable employment relationships and, therefore, may want to cease from such relationship (Bernerth & Walker, 2012). Following the same conceptions from earlier studies, this research seeks to test the positive relationship between interactional injustice and turnover intentions and expects that perceived interactional injustice relates to amplified turnover intentions. Therefore we hypothesize:

<i>H2c</i>	<i>Interactional injustice is positively related to turnover intentions.</i>
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3.2.3 Injustice and Job Performance:

Extant research suggests that if employees perceive injustice in the workplace, they are more likely to be involved in distressed behaviours to restore justice, and an obvious way to restore justice is to reduce their job performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010). Research suggests an association between three dimensions of organizational justice i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice and employee job performance (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Shirom, Nirel, & Vinokur, 2006; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991).

The negative relationship between distributive injustice and job performance has been explained in the context of equity theory (Adams, 1965). It is argued that employees evaluate the distributive fairness in the light of equity theory. When employees perceive distributive injustice, they can alter their quality or quantity of work to restore justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). A disproportionate output in comparison of their input will more likely result in motivating employees to reduce their performance in an attempt to restore equity (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As distributive injustice mainly focus on outcomes, it is predicted to be related to cognitive, affective and behavioural reactions to particular outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Yang, Bauer, Johnson, Groer, & Salomon 2014). Thus, when employees perceive a particular outcome as unfair, it influences their cognitions (e.g., cognitively distorting the input-output ratio; Adams, 1965), ultimately their behaviour (e.g., job performance; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

According to Moorman (1991), an increase or decrease in employees' job performance is related to their perceptions of organizational fairness. Organizational fairness of outcomes motivates employees to improve their performance, whereas injustice perceptions increase insecurity and discourage them to perform well (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015). Unfairness of outcomes at workplace motivates employees to show negative behaviours (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002), and they more likely tend to reduce their job performance (Wang, Lu, & Siu, 2015). This study, relying on earlier research findings, suggests a negative relationship between distributive injustice and job performance, thus we hypothesize:

<i>H3a</i>	<i>Distributive injustice is negatively related to job performance.</i>
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The negative association between procedural injustice and job performance has been explained in the light of self-interest model (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), which conceptualizes that individuals like to have control on the decision-making processes to ensure favourability of decision outcomes. This implies that individuals give importance to include their voice and opinion in the decision making process (Linna et al., 2012). Procedural fairness ensures the inclusion of input from employees (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Lind & Tyler 1988). Thus, any perceptions of procedural unfairness will impact employee attitude in a negative way which can influence their job performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Procedural injustice perceptions influence employees' attitudes towards the organization and, in this way, can reduce their job performance (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996).

Overall, earlier research generally suggests a negative relationship between procedural injustice and job performance (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991), with some studies showing a moderately strong negative relationship between procedural injustice and job performance (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). This study while relying on findings from earlier research suggests a negative relationship between procedural injustice and job performance, thus we hypothesize:

<i>H3b</i>	<i>Procedural injustice is negatively related to job performance.</i>
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As regards relationship between interactional injustice and job performance, the basic premise is that interpersonal treatment plays a pivotal role in shaping employee behaviour (Linna et al., 2012). The negative relationship between interactional injustice and job performance can be seen in the light of group-value model, which highlights that

the quality of interpersonal treatment has important implications for the individuals' sense of self-worth and their experience of personal status within the organization (Lind & Tyler 1988). As interactional justice represents the fairness of interpersonal treatment from the supervisor or other representatives of the organization, it is more personal in nature than distributive or procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001), and respectful treatment and politeness gives an indication of individual's self-worth, whereas interactional injustice will reduce individuals' self-worth which impact employee job performance negatively (Linna et al., 2012).

According to Greenberg & Cropanzano (1993), employees may perceive interactional justice as an outcome which is socio-emotional in nature, and, consequently, violations of interactional fairness should influence the "outcome/input ratio" of the employees. In this context, fair treatment by organizational representatives is reciprocated by employees through better performance (Masterson et al., 2000). Another way by which interactional injustice could be related with performance is its relevance with attitudes toward supervisors, for example, employees' dissatisfaction with their immediate supervisor can be translated into poor performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Other studies have also supported a significant negative relationship between interactional injustice and job performance (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Based on earlier findings, this study suggests a negative relationship between interactional injustice and job performance, thus we hypothesize:

<i>H3c</i>	<i>Interactional injustice is negatively related to job performance.</i>
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3.3 Hypotheses related to the Mediating role of jealousy in the relationship between injustice perceptions and job outcomes:

3.3 Injustice as antecedent of Jealousy:

Although no prior research has empirically tested the link between injustice perceptions and jealousy, extant research suggests a strong theoretical association between perceived injustice and jealousy (Miner, 1990; Smith, 1991). Earlier research has suggested a relationship between injustice perceptions and envy (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). Empirical research evidences a positive relationship between unfairness and envy (Schaubroeck & Lam, 2004), and that envy can be experienced regardless of the type of unfairness (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007).

Extant research suggests that employees respond to perceptions of injustice with negative emotions (Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Weis et al., 1999). It has been explained that employees continuously monitor and appraise workplace events in their environment (Lazarus, 1991), and those events which are threats to their wellbeing have the potential to induce negative emotions (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Spector, 1998). Following the strong theoretical notion of affective events theory Weiss & Cropanzano (1996), which explains the role of emotions between workplace events-job outcomes relationships, and fairness theory, Folger & Cropanzano (1998; 2001), which argues that individuals can experience emotional states regardless of injustice type, this study suggests that as part the appraisal process, all three injustice dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional) can independently trigger the negative emotion of jealousy.

Distributive justice which is defined as fair distribution of reward outcomes (Janssen, Muller, & Greifeneder, 2011) has been shown to play a role in eliciting negative emotions (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). Earlier research shows that violations of distributive fairness lead people to feel angry when they feel under rewarded and guilty when over rewarded (Homans, 1961), suggesting the role of distributive injustice in triggering negative emotions. Another pioneering study evidenced the positive relationship between distributive injustice and negative emotions when employees experienced anger due to violations of distributive fairness (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano 1999). Colquitt et al. (2012), in their study evidenced the role of distributive injustice in eliciting employee emotions.

Research on jealousy shows that organizational outcomes and rewards are important aspect of employee and supervisor relationship. Focal employee attaches value to his/her relationship with supervisor due to its association with organizational rewards and feels a threat from rival co-workers (DeSteno et al., 2006). As injustice dimensions can be independently associated with individuals' emotional states (Folger & Cropanzano 1998; 2001), focal employee can view all injustice dimensions as some type of threat or loss of benefits against his or her rival colleagues or a type of rejection in favour of rival colleagues. As distributive injustice would be a clear reflection of threat or loss of economic rewards against rival colleagues, it can elicit jealousy with the aim of protecting valued relationship from rival colleagues. This study, therefore, suggests that distributive unfairness, due to its connection with economic benefits can elicit jealousy. Earlier research shows a positive relationship between distributive injustice and discrete emotions like anxiety, disgust, joy and hope, while also showing a mediating role of emotions between injustice perceptions and job outcomes (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Chebat &

Slusarczyk 2005; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). This study, following these findings, suggests a positive relationship between distributive injustice and jealousy while hypothesizing.

H4a	<i>Distributive injustice is positively related to jealousy.</i>
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As regards positive relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy, although procedural justice is not directly associated with economic outcomes, yet people attach value to fairness of procedures because procedural justice involves fairness of procedures used to determine economic outcomes (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). As unfair procedures have been related to a threat to one's social identity (Lind & Tyler, 1988), and signal one's standing and value to the group and thus can convey socio-emotional benefits to individuals (Tyler & Lind, 1992). According to fairness theory, Folger & Cropanzano (2001), violations of procedural fairness can be independently associated with negative emotions. Barclay et al., (2005) explain that irrespective of the type of fairness violation, when individuals try to evaluate it from their perspective, they are likely to imagine how the situation could have been different. Thus, even having a favourable distributive outcome, individuals can still take into account that why their organization violated procedural justice principles and consider how procedural fairness would have made the things different.

Extant research suggests the role of procedural injustice in triggering negative emotions, for example, Weiss et al., (1999)'s examination of injustice perceptions shows the interactive effects of procedural injustice and outcome favourability in eliciting negative emotional states. According to Colquitt et al., (2012), procedural injustice has a

potential to trigger employee emotions. Various other studies also suggest the role of procedural injustice in eliciting negative emotions. For example, Krehbiel & Cropanzano (2000), in their study support the notion that procedural injustice in terms of outcome favourability has implications for discrete emotions. Earlier research shows a positive relationship between procedural injustice and discrete emotions like anxiety, disgust, joy and hope while, showing the mediating effect of these discrete emotions between relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Chebat & Slusarczyk 2005).

Following the strong theoretical notion of affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001) and findings from extant research, this study proposes that as part of the appraisal process, procedural injustice can elicit jealousy, suggesting a positive relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy. Thus we hypothesize:

H4b	<i>Procedural injustice is positively related to jealousy.</i>
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As regards the role of interactional injustice in eliciting jealousy, unfair interpersonal treatment could be a threat to an individual's sense of dignity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986). Interactional justice, in this way, can be considered as socio-emotional outcomes because of its symbolic value for employees. Any violations of interactional justice will most likely result in the threat or loss of socio-emotional benefits or type of rejection in favour of rival colleagues. Consequently, the value which the superior or organizational authorities place on the rival colleagues will threaten the integrity of the current working relationship of the focal employee (DeSteno & Salovey,

1996). This is likely to trigger an emotional response, i.e., jealousy with the aim of protecting the valued working relationship (which is important for the focal employee) from being usurped by the rival colleagues because jealousy is a "specific emotion designed to protect these relationships from the advances of rivals" (DeSteno et al., 2006, p. 627).

Various studies evidence that individuals can react to violations of interactional or procedural justice, even if outcomes are favourable or unfavourable (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008). For example, Rupp & Spencer (2006), in their study, use the discrete emotion of anger to explain the relationship between customer interactional injustice and emotional labour, evidencing the influence of discrete emotions on specific work outcomes. De Clercq & Saridakis (2015) in their study show that interactional injustice enhances the development of negative workplace emotions and highlights the importance of interactional injustice in triggering negative workplace emotions. This study, following AET, fairness theory and findings from earlier research, suggests a positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy, thus we hypothesize:

<i>H4c</i>	<i>Interactional injustice is positively related to jealousy.</i>
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Jealousy is a commonly prevailing emotion in workplace settings (Vecchio, 1997; 2000); however, surprisingly, very few studies have focused on understanding the impact of jealousy on job outcomes (Günalan & Ceylan, 2014; Vecchio, 2000). This study fills this important gap in the literature by investigating the influence of jealousy on job

outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance. The relationships between jealousy and job outcomes are discussed in following section.

3.3.1 Jealousy and workplace deviance:

Negative emotions have been suggested to play a mediating role between unfairness and employee deviant behaviors. For example, Skarlicki & Folger, (1997) put it "if organizational decisions and managerial actions are deemed unfair or unjust, the affected employees experience feelings of anger, outrage, and resentment" (p.1), and such negative emotions have been linked with workplace deviant behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2005). Spector & Fox (2002, 2005) propose an emotion-centred model of counterproductive work behaviors which outline that the negative emotions experienced in the workplace serve as antecedents to such behaviors, with emotions being shown to mediate the relation between workplace deviant behaviors and injustice dimensions (Fox et al., 2001). It is contended that negative emotions are evoked by interpersonal and organizational stressors, and employees' engagement in deviant behaviors is a coping strategy against their negative emotions. (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009). Emotions play an important role in the job stress process (Fox et al., 2001), because emotions represent the immediate response to situations perceived as stressful (Lazarus, 1991), and because emotions motivate the subsequent behavior (Spector, 1998), therefore serving as a mediating role for workplace deviant behaviors (Fox et al., 2001).

In the perspective of affective events theory, Sady, Spitzmuller, & Witt (2008), suggest that workplace deviant behaviors are either affect driven (i.e., impacted by emotions) or judgment driven (impacted by attitudes). Lee & Allen (2002), while exploring the role of both affect and cognition in determining the workplace deviant

behaviours argue that workplace deviance results from two distinct motives: instrumental motives that drive from cognitions, and expressive motives that drive from affect. Instrumental motives for workplace deviance are consistent with the theoretical norms of reciprocity and reflect a desire to reduce inequity (Sady et al., 2008). Expressive motives for workplace deviance, on the contrary, are related to an individual's emotional state and result from the individual's need to express his feelings of outrage and are less deliberate in nature (Lee & Allen, 2002).

Spector et al. (2006), extend similar arguments and place the onus of workplace deviance on two types of motives, i.e., hostile and instrumental motives. In the case of hostile motives the goal of the deviant act is to inflict harm on the organization or people, whereas in the case of instrumental motives an additional goal exists beyond that of harm. According to Sady et al., (2008), the 'hostile' motives, mentioned by (Spector et al., 2006), correlate to Lee & Allen's (2002) 'expressive' motives. Overall, the literature supports the presence of both emotion and cognition as underlying processes for workplace deviance. Earlier social psychological studies suggest that negative emotional states can cause aggression. For example, it has been concluded that an intense negative emotional state arising from stressful conditions is responsible for aggression (Berkowitz, 1998). Several other studies show that negative emotions are positively related to deviant behaviors (Bauer & Spector, 2015; Levine et al., 2011; Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine, 2012), and suggest that emotions are underlying motivating mechanisms between relationships of injustice and a tendency to retaliate (Barclay et al., 2005; Bies & Tripp, 2002; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Although there is limited research regarding workplace jealousy, it is propagated that increasing aggression and violence in the workplace, (Neuman & Baron, 1998), is a likely consequence of workplace jealousy (O’Boyle, 1992). Previous research evidences a direct causal link between jealousy and aggressive behavior aimed at partners and rivals (Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2006). There is also evidence that jealousy related aggression extends to cases of emotional and sexual abuse (Puente & Cohen, 2003). Research has also shown a positive relationship of jealousy with counter-productive work behaviors (Bauer & Spector, 2015). In light of these arguments this study suggests that perceptions of organizational injustice will trigger the negative emotion of jealousy which will motivate individuals to engage in workplace deviant behaviors with a view to reduce or remove the negative emotion. Hence, this study hypothesizes:

<i>H5</i>	<i>Jealousy is positively related to workplace deviance.</i>
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3.3.2 Jealousy and Turnover Intentions:

Previous research suggests that negative emotions are associated with intentions for turnover and actual turnover (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003). Research, which builds on AET, suggests that affective experiences contribute to the emotional component of attitudes and eventually to judgement-driven behavior such as the decision to quit a job (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). AET propagates that employees appraise organizational events, and based on the appraisal, they experience emotions that subsequently influence their attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotions are considered an outcome of affective events and serve as a mediating mechanism by which features of the work environment impact job attitudes and behavior.

Maertz & Griffeth (2004), synthesize a conceptual model to explain the motivation behind employees' decisions to quit the organization. The model identifies emotions as a driving force that can motivate individuals' decisions of whether to stay or leave an organization. The organizational events are responsible for arousal of emotions which serve the purpose of a motivating force for employees' turnover intentions. When an employee thinks about his organization, an emotional response may result depending upon the cognitive translation of the organizational events that the employee has experienced. Such emotional responses which are aroused due to organizational events have been termed as "affective forces" which generate a motivational tendency regarding membership in the organization.

Maertz & Griffeth (2004), explain that organizational events and other cognitions trigger deliberations about organizational membership to leave or stay with the organization. These deliberations involve self-questioning and responding to a thought process which involves self-questioning regarding whether to stay or leave the organization. These questions and resultant responses create motivational forces to leave or stay in the organization. The extent of the motivation determines the employee's level of intentions to stay/quit the organization. Thus, the mechanism involved in the turnover is a hedonistic approach-avoidance response (Maertz & Griffeth, 2004). This approach assumes that people being generally hedonistic, seek pleasure and avoid pain. As a result of this tendency, people try to pursue those situations which can make them feel good and try to avoid those situations which make them feel bad. Those employees who feel good about the organization tend to continue this pleasurable emotion and decide to stay in the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991), whereas those employees who feel uncomfortable about the organization tend to avoid this negative emotion and decide to leave (Rosse &

Hulin, 1985). When an employee perceives unfairness, this is interpreted as if he is not being considered an important part of the group and is an indication of disposability in comparison of rival colleagues. Hence the employee who feels unfair treatment is expected to feel jealous, and will intend to leave the organization in order to avoid this negative situation.

Previous research also shows a positive relationship between employee jealousy and turnover intentions (Vecchio, 2000). Vecchio (2000) identifies that jealousy is a potential source of workplace stress, which motivates employees to consider alternative employment. Miner (1990) also reports that quitting a job or withdrawal from a jealous environment is an associated behavior with workplace jealousy. Dogan & Vecchio (2001) also affirm that jealousy creates an intense stressful situation and resultantly the employees may react by leaving the organization. On the basis of these illustrations, this study proposes a positive relationship between jealousy and turnover intentions, and thus hypothesizing:

H6	<i>Jealousy is positively related to turnover intentions.</i>
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3.3.3 Jealousy and Job Performance:

Previous research supports the influence of workplace cognitions on employees' job performance (Vigoda, 2000). Although a large body of research accepts the adverse effects of negative emotional states on work-related outcomes like employee commitment, job satisfaction and personal accomplishment (Thoresen et al., 2003), there is limited research regarding examining the effects of negative emotions on job performance (Koy & Yeo, 2008). Research focusing on negative effects of negative emotions on job

performance has mainly adopted the framework of resource allocation to explain the role of negative emotions on job performance (Beal et al., 2005; Ellis, Ottaway, Varner, Becker, & Moore, 1997; Wright, Cropanzano, & Meyer, 2004). It is argued that individuals' performance depends upon whether or not the attentional resources are allocated to the task at hand (Beal et al., 2005). Off task thoughts serve the purpose of distracting the attentional resources which are required to perform a task. The negative emotional state in particular creates task-irrelevant thoughts which take away attention from work tasks and resultantly hinder job performance (Beal et al., 2005).

The basic proposition is that when individuals approach their work, they bring with them their resources to perform their tasks. These resources comprise their skills, task related knowledge, and cognitive resources (Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989); of which cognitive resources play a pivotal role to accomplish a task (Beal et al., 2005). Attention is the basic cognitive skill which is required to perform a task (Beal et al., 2005). The bulk of an individual's attention can only be focused on one activity at a time and any attempt to focus attention on more than one events at a time will decrease a person's ability to perform (Schneider & Fisk, 1982). Researchers believe that peoples' attentional resources are limited, and if these are burdened with distracting stimuli which also require processing power, performance on one or all of the tasks declines (Schneider & Fisk, 1982). Negative emotional states create demands on people's attentional resources that interfere with current performance activities and consequently hinder job performance (Beal et al., 2005).

Researchers suggest that negative emotions can occupy individuals' attentional resources in three ways. Firstly, when an organizational event triggers a negative emotion,

it resultantly leads to the appraisal of motive-relevant events (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008; Robbins et al., 2012). Appraisal theorists identify two types of appraisal (Smith & Kirby, 2001). During the primary appraisal stage an assessment of the event is made that whether it is good or bad and how relevant it is to one's personal goals (Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993). The primary appraisal process is automatic in nature and hence it is unlikely to have a large effect on individual performance. However, after primary appraisal of the event, people become engaged in a much more elaborate secondary appraisal process. Smith & Kirby (2001), argue that because the secondary appraisal process involves an assessment of coping with potential, self-accountability, and particular expectancies, this stage of the appraisal process determines the specific emotions experienced. The resultant negative emotional state occupies immediate attentional resources of individuals which otherwise could have been used to perform the task (Clore, 1994). During the course of a negative emotional state, reappraisal of the event can continue to occupy attentional resources that otherwise could be utilized towards the task performance (Beal et al., 2005).

The second way in which a negative emotional state can occupy an individual's cognitive resources is rumination (Beal et al., 2005), which has been defined as repetitive and prolonged thoughts about one's concerns and experiences (Beal et al., 2005). It is an act of "passively and repetitively focusing on one's symptoms of distress and the circumstances surrounding these symptoms" which results in response to a negative emotional state (Nolen-Hoeksema, McBride, & Larson, 1997) (p.1). People, in response to stressful situations (for example injustice), think about their experience and try to interpret it in their own context (Watkins, 2008), for example goal blockage. Goal blockage has been viewed as closely related to activation of negative emotional state (Berkowitz, 1989).

Such an emotional state, which is linked with feelings of goal blockage, results in ruminative thoughts and then continued ruminative thoughts "serve as an additional cognitive demand that continuously interfere with performance" (Beal et al., 2005; p.3). Thus, rumination is a special emotion-relevant process that is particularly disruptive to on-task attention because of its extended and pervasive nature and consequently results in lower performance (Beal et al., 2005).

The third way in which a negative emotional state occupies the individual's cognitive resources is arousal. Research posits that the experience of emotion and accompanying arousal can divert attentional resources which are required to perform a task (Beal et al., 2005). Easterbrook (1959) in his formative work on arousal and attention suggests that under high levels of arousal, people would not use all of their cognitive resources available in the immediate environment and would rather focus the main part of their attention on the causes or events encompassing the emotion. Such a process will restrain the individual's ability to effectively process work related information and will consequently impact the job performance (Beal et al., 2005). Moreover Shockley et al., (2012), in their meta-analysis study, demonstrate a negative relationship between negative emotions and performance, when they measured performance both on a short and long-terms basis.

Based on the resource allocation model (Beal et al., 2005), this study argues that the negative emotion of jealousy, being an outcome of an injustice event (Robbins et al., 2012; Weiss et al., 1999), will lead to the appraisal of motive-relevant events (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008), which is expected to occupy the attentional resources of the individuals that otherwise could be used towards the task performance ((Beal et al., 2005).

The negative affect contained in jealousy can arouse a threat-oriented tendency (Tai, Narayanan, & McAllister, 2012; Wang & Sung, 2016), which can cause high level arousal resulting in distracting the attention from task performance to the causes or events encompassing the emotion and will restrain the individual's ability to perform the task (Beal et al., 2005). Beside this, the threat aspect related to jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006) could keep the entire event open in the minds of the workers, causing other off-task activities like rumination which will occupy the cognitive resources and effect job performance (Beal et al., 2005). Thus, jealousy is negatively related to job performance. Hence, we hypothesize:

<i>H7</i>	<i>Jealousy is negatively related to job performance.</i>
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The above arguments in this chapter discuss various relationships. First, there are positive relationships between each dimension of injustice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) and jealousy. Second, there are positive relationships between jealousy and job outcomes of workplace deviance and turnover intentions; and a negative relationship between jealousy and job performance. This study, based on above arguments, seeks to investigate a mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of each dimension of injustice and job outcomes.

The mediating role of emotions between workplace events and job outcomes has been explained using affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) which posits that unfair or unfavourable workplace events trigger employees' emotional reactions which in turn influence employees' attitudes and behaviours (Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013; Veiga, Baldrige, & Markóczy, 2014). AET explains the link

between workplace events and emotional and behavioural reactions to this event (Veiga et al., 2014). It elaborates that how job related emotions influence employee behaviours that are unique to affect and affective events (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). While affect refers to employees' emotions, attitude is an evaluative judgment based on affect (Carlson et al., 2011).

The role of distributive injustice in eliciting jealousy has been explained while developing hypotheses H4a. As distributive injustice relates to violations of fairness of reward outcomes (Janssen, Muller, & Greifeneder, 2011), extant research suggests a potential role of distributive injustice in eliciting negative emotions (e.g., Barclay et al., 2005; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). In the context of jealousy, distributive unfairness can trigger jealousy because focal employee attaches importance to his/her relationship with supervisor because of associated rewards with this relationship, and feels a threat to this relationship from rival colleagues (DeSteno et al., 2006). Any violations of distributive justice principles will reduce predictability of reward outcomes (Jost, Banaji, & Nosek, 2004) which will likely to induce the negative emotion of jealousy with the aim to protect this valued relationship from rival colleagues.

The role of jealousy in developing turnover intentions has been explained while developing hypotheses H6. Earlier research suggests a direct association between negative emotions and employee intentions for turnover and actual turnover (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003). Distributive injustice contributes to the emotional component of attitude and eventually to judgment-driven behaviour such as the decision to quit a job (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). Research also shows a positive relationship between employee jealousy and turnover intentions (Vecchio, 2000). Vecchio (2000),

identifies jealousy as a potential source of workplace stress, which motivates employees to consider alternative employment. Miner (1990) also reports that quitting a job or withdrawal from a jealous environment is an associated behaviour with workplace jealousy. Dogan & Vecchio (2001) also affirm that jealousy creates an intense stressful situation and resultantly employees may react by leaving the organization. This study while using AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), proposes that jealousy will mediate the relationship between distributive injustice and turnover intentions, thus we hypothesize.

<i>H8a</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between distributive injustice and employees' turnover intentions.</i>
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The role of distributive injustice in eliciting jealousy has been explained while developing hypothesis H4a and H8a in above sections and the relationship between jealousy and employees' job performance has been explained while developing hypotheses H7. The role of jealousy in influencing job performance can be explained by adopting the framework of resource allocation model (Beal et al., 2005; Ellis, Ottaway, Varner, Becker, & Moore, 1997; Wright, Cropanzano, & Meyer, 2004). According to resource allocation model (Beal et al., 2005), individuals' performance depends upon the extent to which the attentional resources are allocated to the task at hand (Beal et al., 2005). Off task thoughts serve the purpose of distracting the attentional resources which are required to perform a task. The negative emotional states in particular create task-irrelevant thoughts which take away attention from work tasks and resultantly hinder job performance (Beal et al., 2005).

Based on above arguments and using affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this study proposes a mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of distributive injustice and job performance.

<i>H8b</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between distributive injustice and employees' job performance.</i>
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The positive relationship between distributive injustice and jealousy has been explained while developing hypothesis H4a and H8a. Likewise, the positive relationship between jealousy and workplace deviance has been discussed in detail while developing hypotheses H5. Extant research suggests a positive relationship between jealousy and aggression in the workplace, (Neuman & Baron, 1998; O'Boyle, 1992). It has been argued that there is a direct causal link between jealousy and aggressive behaviour aimed at partners and rivals (Valdesolo & DeSteno, 2006). Jealousy has also been related with cases of emotional and sexual abuse (Puenta & Cohen, 2003). Similarly, research also shows a positive relationship between jealousy and counter-productive work behaviors (Bauer & Spector, 2015).

As per theoretical norms of AET, justice scholars have argued that employees react emotionally to organizational injustice in workplace exchanges and allocations and that these emotional reactions lead to attitudinal and behavioural consequences (Barsky et al., 2011). Injustice perceptions, in fact, have been termed as "emotionally laden experience" (Barclay et al., 2005). A large body of justice literature propagates that emotions are the central player which translate a sense of unfairness into work behaviours (Weiss et al., 1999). Specifically, injustice perceptions cause a negative emotional state because

perceived unfairness precipitates emotional states of individuals through appraisal processes (Robbins et al., 2012). Based on above arguments and AET, this study argues that jealousy will mediate the relationship between distributive injustice and employees' workplace deviance.

<i>H8c</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between distributive injustice and employees' workplace deviance.</i>
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Regarding the mediating role of jealousy between injustice dimension of interactional injustice and job outcomes, the arguments about positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy, and positive relationship between jealousy and turnover intentions have been extended in detail while developing hypotheses H4c and H6 respectively. Research shows the role of interactional injustice in eliciting negative emotions (Rupp & Spencer 2006). It is argued that interactional injustice can be independently associated with negative emotions (Folger & Cropanzano 1998; 2001). It is suggested that irrespective of the type of fairness violations, when individuals try to evaluate them from their perspective, they are likely to imagine how the situation could have been different (Barclay et al., 2005). Thus, even having a favourable distributive outcome, when there are violations of interactional justice principles, individuals can still take into account that how fair interpersonal treatment for which they are entitled would have made the things different (Barclay et al., 2005).

In the context of jealousy, interactional injustice can trigger jealousy because the focal employee will view all injustice dimensions as some type of threat or loss of benefits or rewards against his or her rival colleagues or a type of rejection in

favour of rival colleagues. Unfair interpersonal treatment could be a threat to an individual's sense of dignity and respect (Bies & Moag, 1986). Consequently, the value which the superior or organizational authorities place on the rival colleagues will threaten the integrity of the current working relationship of the focal employee (DeSteno & Salovey, 1996). This is likely to trigger an emotional response, i.e., jealousy with the aim of protecting the valued working relationship (which is important for the focal employee) from being usurped by the rival colleagues because jealousy is a "specific emotion designed to protect these relationships from the advances of rivals" (DeSteno et al., 2006, p. 627). Various scholars have evidenced that individuals can react emotionally to violations of interactional justice even when outcomes are favourable or unfavourable (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008). Based on above research findings and as per theoretical norms of AET, this study suggests a mediating role of jealousy between interactional injustice and employees' turnover intentions. Thus, we hypothesize:

<i>H9a</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' turnover intentions.</i>
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The positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy has been explained while developing hypotheses H4c and H9a. The detailed arguments regarding negative relationship between jealousy and employees' job performance have been extended while developing hypothesis H7. Following theoretical grounds of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996), this study proposes that as injustice is an "emotionally laden experience" (Barclay et al., 2005), violations of interactional justice will induce the negative emotion of jealousy as discussed while developing hypotheses H4c. As emotions

are the central player which translate a sense of unfairness into work behaviours (Weiss et al., 1999), jealousy, being a strong negative emotion (DeSteno et al., 2006) can occupy the attentional resources of employees which will reduce the performance of employees (Beal et al., 2005). Based on above arguments, this study argues that jealousy will mediate the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' job performance.

H9b	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' job performance.</i>
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The arguments about positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy have been extended while developing hypotheses H4c and H9a, whereas arguments about negative relationship between jealousy and employees' job performance have been extended while developing hypothesis H7. Using the lens of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), interactional injustice being an affective event (Colquitt et al., 2001) can trigger negative emotion of jealousy. As emotions are suggested to be a key mechanism through which a sense of injustice is translated into subsequent behaviours (Colquitt et al., 2013; Schoefer & Diamantopoulos, 2008; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999), jealousy is expected to mediate the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' workplace deviance and thus hypothesizes.

H9c	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between interactional injustice and employees' workplace deviance.</i>
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As regards, mediating role of jealousy between third dimension of injustice i.e., procedural injustice and turnover intentions, the detailed arguments regarding positive

relationships between procedural injustice and jealousy, and between jealousy and turnover intentions have been rendered while developing hypotheses H4b and H6 respectively. Employees attach importance to procedural justice because it represents use of fair procedures in determining economic outcomes (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and in this way procedural injustice has been linked with employee emotional states (Colquitt et al., 2001). Extant research shows the independent association of procedural injustice with negative emotions regardless of justice type (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). It has been argued that individuals try to evaluate fairness violations irrespective of their type and they are likely to imagine that how the situation could have been different in case of fairness (Barclay et al., 2005). Thus, even if there is fairness of distributive outcomes, individuals can still take into account that why procedural justice principles are violated and consider how procedural fairness would have made the things different. Various other scholars also evidence that individuals can react to violations of procedural justice even when outcomes are favourable or unfavourable (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008).

As explained while developing hypotheses H6, earlier research identifies jealousy as a workplace stressor which can motivate employees to look for alternate employment opportunities (Vecchio, 2000). It is also suggested that jealous environment motivates employees for withdrawal behaviours such as turnover intentions or actual quitting a job (Miner, 1990). Another study by Dogan & Vecchio (2001), affirms that employees can react to the jealous environment by leaving the organization. According to AET, employees appraise organizational events, and based on the appraisal, they experience emotions that subsequently influence their attitudes and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotions are considered an outcome of affective events and serve as a mediating

mechanism by which features of the work environment impact job attitudes and behaviours (Barclay et al., 2014). On the basis of these illustrations, this study proposes a mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of procedural injustice and turnover intentions and thus hypothesize.

<i>H10a</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between procedural injustice and employees' turnover intentions.</i>
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Regarding the mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and job performance, the detailed arguments about positive relationships between procedural injustice and jealousy, and negative relationship between jealousy and job performance have been discussed in detail while developing hypotheses H4b, H10a and H7 respectively. As discussed above, procedural justice is important for employees because it is used by the other party to plan and implement decisions for resource allocation (Brockner & Wiesenfeld). Procedural injustice being a socio-emotional outcome, as unfair procedures have been related to a threat to one's social identity (Lind & Tyler, 1988), and signal one's standing and value to the group (Tyler & Lind, 1992). Thus, it has been described as affect laden experience (Colquitt et al., 2001). According to fairness theory (Folger & Cropanzano, 2001), individuals attach importance to fairness regardless of its type. Employees during their evaluation of unfair situations, take into account that why the fairness principles have been violated and compare these situations with fair situations and that how procedural fairness would have make the things different (Barclay et al., 2005).

Various scholars also evidence that individuals can react to violations of procedural injustice even when outcomes are favourable or unfavourable (Heilman & Alcott, 2001;

Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008). Thus following AET (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996) and earlier research findings, this study suggests a mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and job performance and proposes the next hypotheses as below.

<i>H10b</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between procedural injustice and employees' job performance.</i>
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As regards the mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and workplace deviance, the detailed arguments about positive relationships between procedural injustice and jealousy, and between jealousy and workplace deviance have been given in detail while developing hypotheses H4b, H10c and H5 respectively. As highlighted in above sections, procedural injustice is linked with employee emotional states (Colquitt et al., 2001) due to its indirect but important association with economic outcomes (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). As discussed in above referred sections, individuals care about procedural injustice (Folger & Freenberg, 1985) and this dimension of injustice also fulfils the jealousy eliciting conditions (DeSteno et al., 2006).

Thus following the strong theoretical norms of AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and earlier research findings, this study suggests a mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and workplace deviance.

<i>H10c</i>	<i>Jealousy will mediate the relationship between procedural injustice and employees' workplace deviance.</i>
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3.4 Hypotheses related to the Moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between jealousy and job outcomes:

Understanding the role of emotions in influencing work attitudes and how to cope with their effects on attitudes and behaviours is of practical and theoretical importance (Brown, Westbrook, & Challagalla, 2005). Overcoming the adverse effects of negative emotions in the workplace is essential for achieving employees' personal goals and better job outcomes (Brown et al., 2005). As Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) mention, if a work event, during the appraisal process, contradicts with employee's personal goals, it can trigger a complex of negative emotions, which can leave adverse effects on job outcomes—unless effective coping strategies are used. Effective coping enables individuals to relieve emotional distress, helps to achieve personal goals, and positive job outcomes (Brown et al., 2005). Grandey (2000) argues that although individuals often experience negative emotions at work, it is important to avoid their adverse effects on job outcomes. This is because in workplace settings individuals want to pursue their personal and organizational goals which are conditional with better job outcomes. Moreover, understanding of coping tactics is also required to advance our knowledge of behavioral self-regulation in the workplace (Brown et al., 2005). This study, therefore, suggests the moderating role of self-efficacy to overcome the adverse effects of the negative emotion of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance.

The moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and workplace deviance can be seen in the light of self-efficacy's role in a stressor-strain relationship. Several studies have examined the moderating role of self-efficacy in a stressor-strain relationship, and evidence that those employees who are high in self-efficacy show better coping abilities in the face of strenuous, challenging or demanding

situations (Heuven et al., 2006; Jex & Bliese, 1999; Pugh et al., 2011). This is because employees who are high in self-efficacy are likely to adopt a more ‘problem-focused’ approach, and devise more effective strategies to cope with stressors such as emotional state of jealousy. Thus, highly self-efficacious individuals might not react as negatively to workplace stressors as those with low levels of self-efficacy (Jex & Bliese, 1999).

Low self-efficacy, on the other hand, has been linked to anxiety (Jex & Gudanski, 1992; Saks, 1994; Stumpf, Brief, & Hartman, 1987). Consequently, when employees with low self-efficacy come across a difficult workplace situation, they tend to adopt a more ‘emotion-focused’ approach and therefore have a greater tendency to worry rather than solving the situation (Jex & Bliese, 1999). As low self-efficacy has been found to create feelings of nervousness, tension and anxiety among employees (Jex & Bliese, 1999; Siu, Lu, & Spector, 2007), individuals who are low in self-efficacy tend to underestimate their abilities while competing with other colleagues (Bandura, 1982). Hence, such employees are likely to react more negatively to feelings of jealousy than self-efficacious employees. Thus those employees who are high in self-efficacy should be able to overcome the deleterious effects of jealousy and can avoid indulging workplace deviance.

This study, therefore, argues that self-efficacy being a self-regulator of individuals’ own emotional states (Bandura, 2012), would likely dilute the negative impact of jealousy. When faced with injustice, highly self-efficacious employees are more likely to be able to regulate the extent to which jealousy motivates them to engage in workplace deviant behaviors. Supported by these findings of literature, next hypothesis of the study is:

H11a:	<i>Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between jealousy and workplace deviance such that the higher the self-efficacy the lesser will be the positive influence of jealousy on workplace deviance</i>
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The moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and turnover intentions can be seen in the context of motivating role of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy beliefs influence individuals by motivating them to set higher goals for themselves and to stand firmly committed to achieve them (Bandura, 1998; Locke & Latham, 1990). They show more resolve in pursuing their goals and hence tend to overcome negative situations like the emotional state of jealousy. Additionally, highly self-efficacious people will have strong beliefs in their capabilities to achieve their goals (Bandura, 1991). The extent to which people feel motivated or discouraged in the face of negative obstacles while pursuing their goals is determined by their beliefs that they can attain the goals set by themselves (Bandura, 1991). The self-efficacy beliefs of individuals that they can achieve their goals keep them motivated and help to overcome obstacles like the deleterious effects of jealousy on their behaviour. Hence, self-efficacy by motivating individuals to achieve their goals can enable them to avoid indulging in escaping behaviour like turnover intentions.

Self-efficacy beliefs, also function as an important determinant of self-regulation of emotional states (Bandura, 1991, 2012). Self-efficacy, being individuals' perception of their capabilities to produce results, motivate them to regulate their thought processes and emotional states to achieve the results (Bandura, 1998), which should help them to cope with the negative effects of jealousy. Highly self-efficacious individuals are expected to be generally better able to effectively and successfully regulate their emotional states and

thought processes in their working environment (Green & Rodgers, 2001; Salanova, Peiro, & Schaufeli, 2002; Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997). People's self-efficacy beliefs influence their choices, aspirations, amount of effort they mobilize to overcome a situation, and how long they persevere in the face of difficulties and challenges (Bandura, 1991). Self-efficacy beliefs are of prime importance in motivating individuals to handle difficult situations because they believe that their actions can produce the desired outcomes (Bandura, 1998). He argues that peoples' beliefs about their capabilities help to make them a good use of skills they possess which aids in achieving desired outcomes. A sense of high self-efficacy, therefore, should help individuals to regulate their emotional states and thought processes (Bandura, 1998), which should help them in overcoming turnover intentions in difficult emotional states like jealousy.

<i>H11b</i>	<i>Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between jealousy and turnover intentions such that the higher the self-efficacy the lesser will be the positive influence of jealousy on turnover intentions.</i>
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The moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and job performance can be seen in the light of self-efficacy role in influencing employees' cognitive processing. Self-efficacy beliefs augment individual performances and outcomes by influencing their cognitive processing (Bandura, 1998). It is argued by Bandura (1998) that highly efficacious people believe that insufficient efforts or deficient strategies lead to failure, and, therefore, tend to put more effort into achieving performance and outcomes. Conversely, low efficacious people view the lack of ability as a cause of failure, and therefore, tend to give up the efforts which are required to achieve performance and outcomes. Self-efficacy motivates individuals to increase their efforts in the face of

negative situations such as negative emotional state of jealousy and show more perseverance to overcome them, whereas those who are low in self-efficacy cast doubts on their capabilities and are easily dissuaded by obstacles (Bandura, 1998). In the context of this study, it can be implied that self-efficacy beliefs will motivate individuals to increase their efforts and show more perseverance in the face of the negative emotion of jealousy which will help to avoid the adverse effects of jealousy on their behaviour. Whereas, those who are low in self-efficacy would tend to give up in the face of difficult situations such as the negative emotional state of jealousy. Thus, highly efficacious people due to their belief that insufficient efforts or deficient strategies lead to failure, tend to put more efforts into achieving performance and outcomes (Bandura, 1998), so they should be able to maintain their job performance even in the presence of difficult situation like negative emotional state of jealousy.

Bandura (2012), also explains that self-efficacy beliefs help people to set the course of their life paths by influencing their choices which they make at important decisional points. According to SCT, employee behaviour cannot be fully predicted without considering his/her self-efficacy. For example, employees who are low in self-efficacy would remain doubtful about their capabilities to succeed and would easily give up in the face of challenging situations; conversely, those who are high in self-efficacy would make motivated efforts, to overcome challenging situations and uncertain outcomes (Stajkovic & Luthans, 2003). Accordingly, previous research evidences that highly self-efficacious people show better abilities in solving difficult and threatening situations (Bandura, 1986), and thus are better able to handle emotionally demanding environments than low self-efficacious individuals (Heuven, Bakker, Schaufeli, & Huisman, 2006; Pugh, Groth, & Hennig-Thurau, 2011). Because highly self-efficacious people deal with difficult situations

in a better way and show more perseverance in the face of difficult situations (Gist & Mitchell, 1992), high self-efficacy, therefore, helps in job performance and better job outcomes through persistence, handling situations such as negative emotional state of jealousy, and adopting appropriate task strategies (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006).

<i>H11c</i>	<i>Self-efficacy moderates the relationship between jealousy and employee's job performance such that the higher the self-efficacy the lesser will be the negative influence of jealousy on job performance.</i>
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3.5 Conceptual Framework:

The research objectives of this study which are mentioned in chapter one, literature review of study variables in chapter two and hypotheses developed in chapter three assisted to derive the theoretical framework of research to conceptually sum up the whole conceptual idea in testable form. The conceptual framework has following latent variables; organizational injustice dimensions i.e., distributive injustice, procedural injustice, and interactional injustice as exogenous variables, job outcomes (workplace deviance, job performance, and turnover intentions) as endogenous variables, jealousy as a mediating variable and self-efficacy as a moderating variable. While drawing on affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the conceptual model suggests a mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of injustice dimensions and job outcomes which is explained in the above sections. The conceptual model of this study also proposes a moderating role of self-efficacy in overcoming the adverse effects of the negative emotion of jealousy on job outcomes. Overall, this research provides a comprehensive framework of emotion laden reaction to injustice perceptions and also suggests a regulating mechanism to handle the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes.

The conceptual model of this study is conceptualized in three facets; i) the green lines in this framework represent the main effects of perceived injustice dimensions i.e., distributive injustice, procedural injustice and interactional injustice on job outcomes i.e., workplace deviance, job performance, and turnover intentions (hypotheses H1, H2 & H3), ii) the blue lines represent the causal links between perceived injustice and job outcomes through jealousy as a mediator (hypotheses H4, H5, H6, H7, H8, H9 & H10), iii) and the brown lines represent the last aspect of the framework explaining the moderating role of self-efficacy in overcoming the adverse effects of jealousy (hypotheses H11). Figure- 1.1 below provides an illustration of the conceptual model for this research.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF THE STUDY

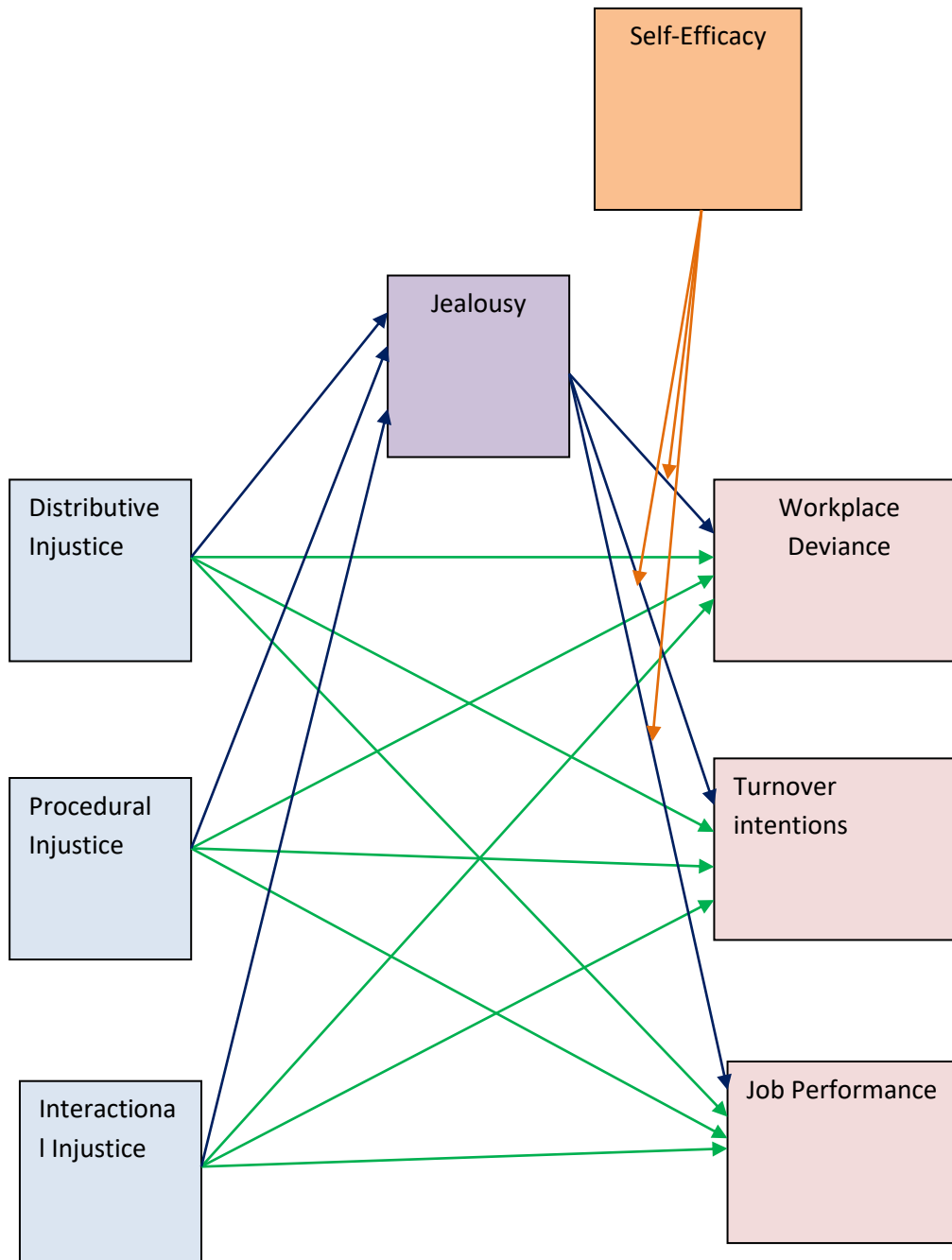


Fig: 3.1 Conceptual Model

3.6 Summary:

This chapter extended arguments for hypotheses and conceptual framework development for this study. Considering the research objectives, this chapter was divided into three parts. First part extended arguments about direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional) and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The second part of this chapter rendered arguments about indirect relationships between injustice dimensions and job outcomes through mediating role of jealousy. The third and part of this chapter discussed that how self-efficacy can play a moderating role in reducing the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes. Finally, the whole idea is drawn in the form of a theoretical framework to test the hypotheses of this study.

CHAPTER- FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction:

This chapter covers the methodology through which the research objectives of this study are addressed. Various philosophical positions are explained, research designs, and research methods are discussed and the rationale for adopting a specific philosophical position, research design, and data collection method is also highlighted. The chapter further describes the recruitment procedure for survey participants. Further it discusses ethical considerations, data collection process, time horizon, sample size, common method bias issues and remedies adopted to address it, questionnaire design, pilot testing, validating process of scales.

A flowchart of the methodological process:

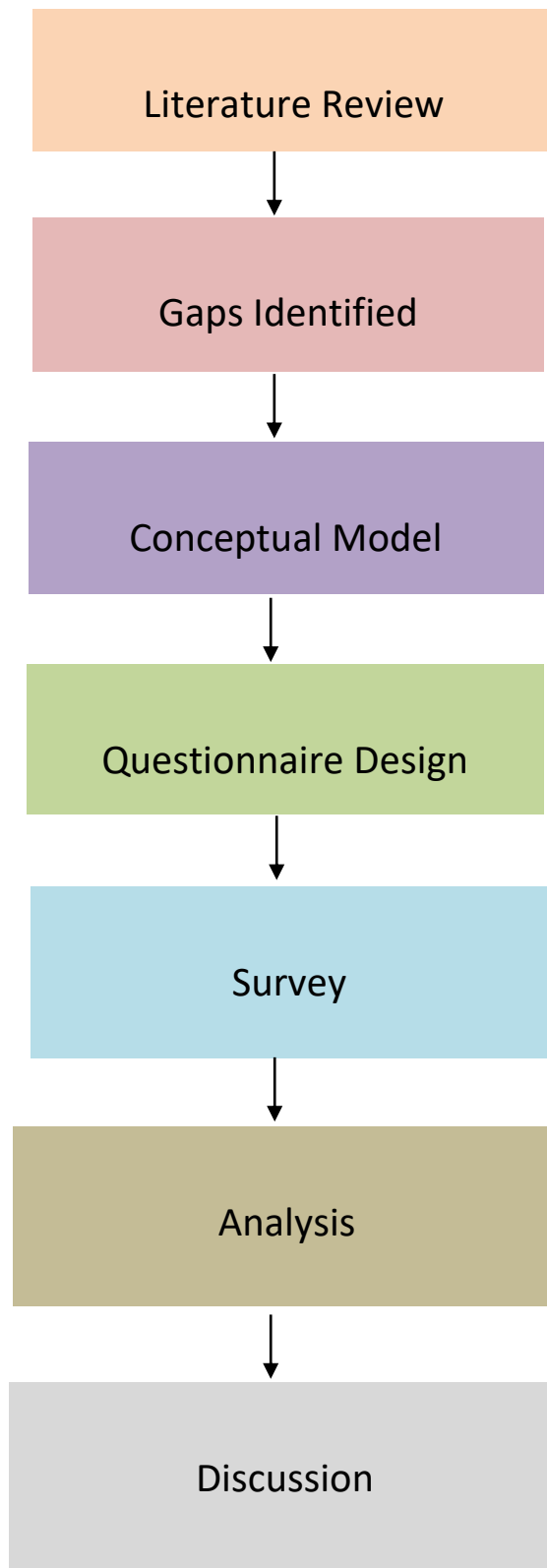


Figure 4.1 methodological process

4.2 Research methodology:

The below flow diagram illustrates that research methodology for a study comprises of a choice of research design, philosophical worldview, strategy of inquiry and research method, where choice of research design determines the choice of remaining options.

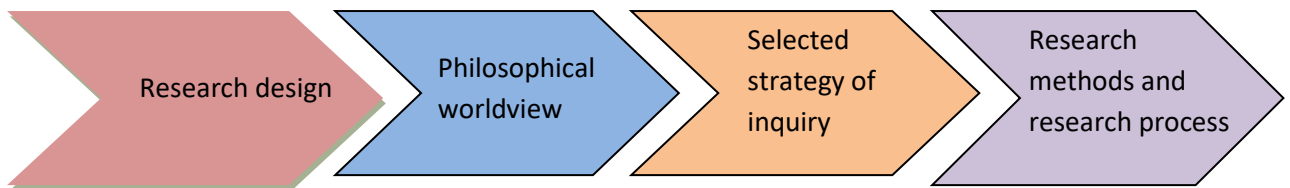


Figure 4.2: flow diagram illustrating research methodology

4.3 Research Design:

Creswell (2009, p.5) refers to research design as “plans or proposal to conduct research, which involves the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry, and specific methods”. According to Malhotra & Birks (2006), an appropriate research design is essential for an effective and efficient research (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). Creswell (2009) mentions, that selection of a research design, typically involves three factors; the research problem, researcher’s personal experience and finally the audience of research. The research problem should focus the research design that suits the research objectives (Booth et al., 2008; Creswell, 2009). The second factor i.e., researcher’s personal experience and preference also play a role in selection of research design, however, researcher should make a choice of research design according to requirements of objectives of the study (Creswell, 2009).

4.3.1 Types of Research Designs:

Creswell (2009) highlights three types of research designs; quantitative design, qualitative design and mixed method design. However qualitative and quantitative designs are not completely opposite, rather they should be treated as different ends of a continuum (Newman & Benz, 1998). Mixed methods research, likewise, is placed in the middle of this continuum because it involves using both qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Creswell, 2014). Creswell (2014), describes the qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods designs as below.

4.3.1.1 Qualitative Designs:

According to Creswell (2014), in qualitative research the focus is to explore and understand the individuals' or groups' meaning which are ascribed by them to human or social problems. The activities and behaviour of individuals are noted at participants' sites. Field notes are taken in an unstructured and semi-structured way based on prior questions posed by the researcher. The observations usually comprise of open-ended general questions which provide participants with room to freely provide their views. Data analysis involves making interpretations of the findings or results. The researcher adopts an inductive approach and typically focuses on "individuals' meanings and the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation" (Creswell, 2014, p. 4). The basic procedures in reporting the results of a qualitative study are to develop descriptions and themes (Creswell, 2014).

4.3.1.2 Quantitative Designs:

Quantitative research design involves "testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables (Creswell, 2009: p.4). According to Creswell (2009), study

variables can be measured using instruments, to obtain numbered data for analysis by employing statistical procedures. The final written report is structured and normally consists of an introduction, literature and theory, methods, results, and discussion. "This form of inquiry has assumptions about testing theories deductively, building while controlling biases, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalize and replicate the findings" (Creswell, 2014, p. 4).

4.3.1.3 Mixed Methods Research:

This research design involves combining both qualitative and quantitative research approaches and typically involves both forms of data (Creswell, 2014). This form of inquiry believes in assumption that "the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provide a more complex understanding of a research problem than either approach alone" (Creswell, 2014, p. 4).

4.3.2 Research design used in this research:

This study uses a quantitative research design. This research is investigating the mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of injustice perceptions and job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, following Affective Events Theory. This study is also examining the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating pernicious effects of jealousy on these job outcomes. A quantitative research design seems appropriate to test these relationships. The rationale to adopt quantitative research design, the philosophical position of research and selecting strategy of inquiry are discussed below.

4.3.2.1 Rationale for use of quantitative research design in this study:

The literature review of the study variables (Chapter two) reveals an established stream of research on the study variables of this research-organizational injustice, workplace deviance, turnover intentions, job performance and self-efficacy. The related theory (affective events theory) which is used in the context of this research is also extensively tested. However there exists an important gap in existing research i.e., the mediating role of an important negative emotion of workplace jealousy has not been investigated between these relationships. And the role of self-efficacy has not been investigated to overcome the pernicious effects of workplace jealousy.

This study, therefore, seeks to test the cause and effect relationships among study variables using existing theories to confirm the mediating role of workplace jealousy and moderating role of self-efficacy in these cause and effect relationships. Quantitative research design involves “testing objective theories by examining the relationships among research variables (Creswell, 2009: p.4). Moreover, researcher wants to test these theories and relationships while controlling his personal biases and alternative explanations. Quantitative research design relies on testing the theories and relationships deductively to control personal biases and alternative explanations (Creswell, 2014). Besides this, the study variables and related theories of this research have been mostly investigated on employees in western countries and very rarely these have been investigated outside the social conditions of west, which is an important gap in existing research. This study seeks to address this gap also by investigating these relationships on employees in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Prior organizational studies conducted in Pakistan, suggest the suitability of quantitative research design in Pakistani organizations to adequately capture

participants' responses (Abbas et al., 2014; Khan et al., 2013). Therefore, adopting quantitative research design suits the objectives of this study. According to Creswell (2009, p.5), a research design has three components: Philosophical worldview, strategies of inquiry and specific methods.

The research design of this study is explained below in figure.

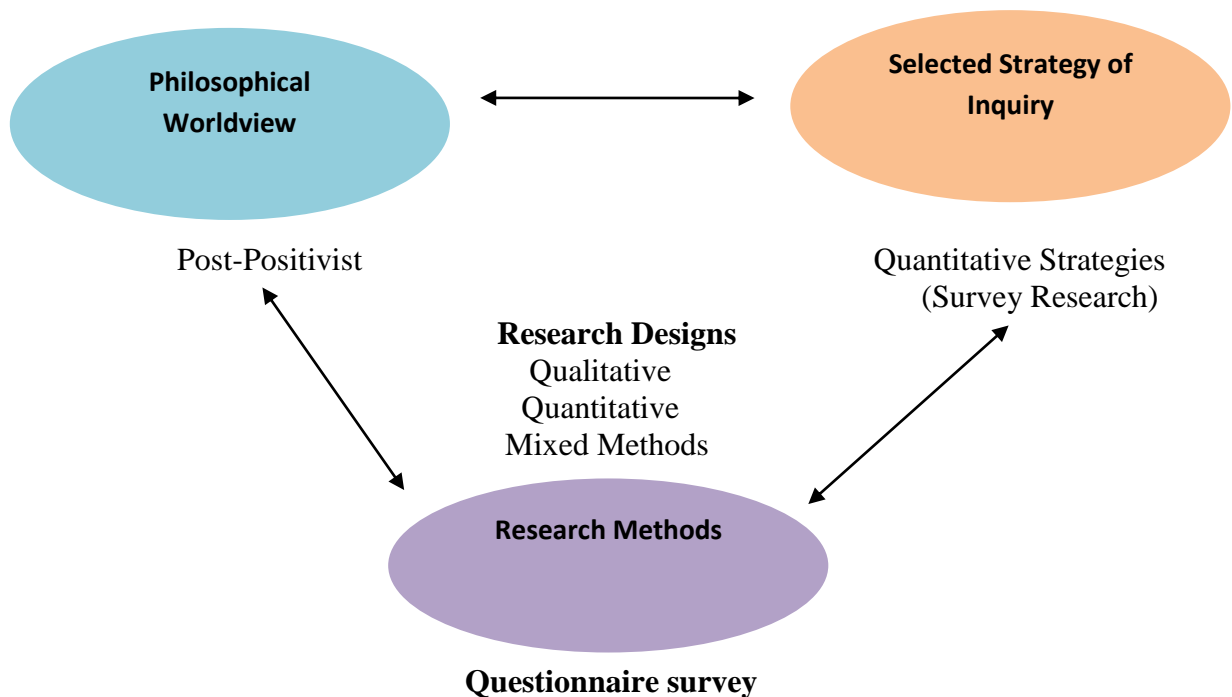


Fig 4.3 Research Design based on Creswell (2009) and adopted for this study as per research requirements

Fig 4.3 shows the complete research design of this study, involving the post-positivism philosophical worldview, quantitative method and questionnaire survey as research method. Following sections give a detailed illustration and rationale for use of philosophical position, strategy of inquiry and research methods used in this study.

4.4 Philosophical Worldviews:

Research philosophy refers to the development of a perspective which requires that the researcher makes core assumptions concerning two dimensions: the nature of society and the way in which it may be investigated (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The adopted research philosophy includes important assumptions about the way in which the researcher views the world and essentially guides the research strategy (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2007). Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009) suggest that philosophical assumption is researcher's view about world and decides subsequent choice of research strategy and methods. Philosophical approaches and assumptions have been referred differently in the literature. Some refer to them as worldviews (Creswell, 2014), defined as basic beliefs that guide actions (Guba, 1990). Others refer them as paradigms (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011), ontology and epistemology (Saunders et al., 2009). Creswell (2014), defines worldviews as a "general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study" (p.6). All the suggested worldviews explain some philosophical assumptions, research design, and methods that serve the purpose for the research approach (Creswell, 2014).

Creswell (2014) explains four types of worldviews and links the choice of these with belief and the research area of the researcher. He describes the worldviews as; "post positivism (represents the way of thinking after positivism), constructivism (promotes social constructivism), transformative (emphasizes on emancipation) and pragmatism (which arises out of actions and situations instead of antecedent conditions)" (p.6). The four philosophies are summarized in the table below which is adopted from (Creswell, 2014).

Four Worldviews	
Post positivism	Constructivism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Theory verification 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding • Multiple participant meanings • Social and historical construction • Theory generation
Transformative	Pragmatism
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political • Power and justice oriented • Collaborative • Change-oriented 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consequences of actions • problem-centered • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented

Table:4.1 Four worldviews, adopted from Creswell (2014)

4.4.1 Post Positivism:

Post-positivism worldview represents the thinking after positivism and challenges the traditional belief of positivism regarding absolute truth of knowledge about human behaviour (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Post-positivism worldview recognizes that when we study human behaviour, we cannot say in absolute terms that the knowledge about human behaviour is completely true (Creswell, 2014). This is because the knowledge about human behaviour is subject to change with more research due to its conjectural nature (Creswell, 2014). As positivism faced the criticism in terms of its belief on absolute truth of knowledge which was practiced by both natural and social scientists (e.g., Klee 1997), a post-positivistic approach has emerged which emphasizes that although reality exists, but we cannot know that reality perfectly due to nature of human behaviour, including the limitations of our scientific methods and approaches (Lach, 2014).

According to Creswell (2014), post-positivism worldview is often related to a quantitative approach to research. This approach is deterministic in nature, where effects or outcomes are likely to be determined by causes. Post-positivists, thus, while studying a problem, emphasize the need to identify and assess the causes that determine outcomes as is the case with experiments. This philosophy also has a reductionist based approach, where the intention remains to reduce ideas into small, testable discrete sets of ideas, such as study variables comprising of hypotheses and research questions. The knowledge that develops through a post positivism lens is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality that exists "out there" in the world" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7). He further elaborates that the final outcomes are theories or law like generalizations that govern the world which are required to be tested or verified and refined for understanding the world. Thus, in the scientific method, the accepted approach to research by post-positivists is that "a researcher begins with a theory, collects data and on the basis of which the theory is either supported or refuted, followed by required revisions before additional tests are made" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7).

Thus, post-positivism worldview follows the same research techniques, however, the primary difference is about their belief about nature of knowledge related human behaviour. Positivism believes about absolute truth of knowledge, post-positivism acknowledges the limitations of this knowledge, because the knowledge about human behaviour is subject to change with more research due to its conjectural nature (Creswell, 2014; Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Positivism seeks to investigate, confirm, and predict law like patterns of behaviours. Post-positivism is the modified scientific approach for the social sciences which follows the quality standards of objectivity, validity and reliability and aims to produce objective and generalizable knowledge about social patterns, seeking

to affirm the presence of universal properties/laws in relationships amongst pre-defined variables (Taylor & Medina, 2013). According to Creswell (2008), post-positivism follows the same principles as positivism. According to Phillips & Burbules (2000), positivism, being an unsatisfactory philosophy of science, led to unsatisfactory account of the roots of human action. What we need is an account of science that does not limit the understanding of human nature so severely, and post-positivism turns out to fill this bill admirably. Post-positivism is a philosophy of science adequate for understanding competent research in the natural sciences as well as in the social sciences.

4.4.2 Constructivism:

The worldview of constructivism or social constructivism (often combined with interpretivism) is normally related to qualitative based research approach (Creswell, 2014). According to Creswell (2014), Social constructivists believe that individuals try to understand the world and develop varied and multiple subjective meanings of their experiences. The researcher relies on participants' point of view regarding a situation. Researchers use broad, general, and open ended questions to enable participants to construct a meaning of the situation. Researches interact with participants and carefully listen to them to know their opinions about the situation. Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. "They are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives" (Creswell, 2014, p. 8). Thus, constructivists during their interaction with people consider these factors and focus on the specific context in which people live and work in order to understand the cultural and historical settings of the participants. Researchers also recognize the influence of their own backgrounds in

interpretation and position themselves to acknowledge the role of personal, cultural, and historical experiences in their interpretation. The researcher aims to interpret others' meanings of the world, rather than starting with a theory (as in post-positivism), and generate or inductively develop a theory. "The process of qualitative research is largely inductive; the inquirer generates meaning from the data collected in the field" (Creswell, 2014, p. 9).

4.4.3 The transformative worldview:

This approach arose "from individuals who felt that the post-positivist assumptions imposed structural laws and theories that did not fit marginalized individuals in our society or issues of power and social justice, discrimination, and oppression that needed to be addressed" (Creswell, 2014, p. 9). In studying these groups, the research focuses on inequities based on gender, race, ethnicity, disability, and socioeconomic class that result in asymmetric power relationships and links these inequities with social and political actions. This research approach uses a program theory of beliefs about how a program works and why the problem of domination, oppression and power relationship exists (Creswell, 2014).

4.4.4 Pragmatism:

This world view is typically associated with mixed methods research. "Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality. This applies to mixed methods research in that the researcher draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions when they engage in their research" (Creswell, 2014, p. 11). The pragmatism

worldview, instead of focusing on the methods, is primarily more interested in questions asked and use of mixed methods for data collection. This is pluralistic and more concerned with what works for the purpose. "Researchers have a freedom of choice. In this way, researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques, and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes" (Creswell, 2014, p. 11). Thus pragmatism allow mixed methods researcher to use different worldviews, multiple methods, and different forms of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014). Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003) extend the following arguments while linking pragmatism with mixed methods research.

- A single study can use both qualitative and quantitative research methods.
- The matter of primary importance is research questions.
- The hard division between post positivist and constructivist worldviews should be avoided.
- Using "metaphysical concepts" like "truth" and "reality" should be avoided.
- The methodological choices should focus on the practicability and applicability of the research philosophy.

4.5 World view adopted for this study:

This research adopts the philosophical position of post-positivism. This study seeks to investigate the cause and effect relationship between employees' injustice perceptions and job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance through the mediating role of jealousy. This study also seeks to explore the moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and job outcome. Creswell (2014) argues that in post-positivism worldview causes effect outcomes. The post-positivists identify or assess the causality of an outcome, thus following the pattern of

doing experiments. Hence use of post-positivism worldview seems appropriate to investigate the cause and effect relationship among study variables of this research. This philosophy also has a reductionist based approach, where the intention remains to reduce ideas into small, testable discrete sets of ideas, such as study variables comprising of hypotheses and research questions. These hypotheses are tested and then either confirmed wholly or partly, or refuted, which leads to further development of theory which may then be further tested by more research. This study also develops research objectives, research questions and hypotheses, by using existing theory, to confirm the cause and effect relationships among study variables.

A post-positivism worldview involves developing and/or using numeric measures for measuring the objective reality that exists in the world (Creswell, 2014). This research is using a quantitative research design i.e., it seeks to use numeric measures for measuring the objective reality that exists in the world and analyses of data using statistical packages. Therefore, a post-positivist worldview deems appropriate to measure objective reality using numeric measures and further analysis using statistical packages.

Summarizing, the post-positivism worldview and rationale for adopting it for this study, this worldview begins with a theory, involves collection of data, either supports or refutes the theory on the basis of the results and then proceeds by making the required revisions and conducting additional tests. As this study follows all these steps during its course, use of post-positivist worldview deems appropriate for this research.

4.6 Strategies of Inquiry:

Strategies of inquiry are types of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods models or designs which guide about specific research directions in a research design (Creswell, 2009). These have also been termed as approaches to inquiry (Creswell, 2007) or research methodologies (Mertens, 1998). According to Creswell (2009), the usual strategies of inquiry related with quantitative research design are surveys and experiments.

4.6.1 Survey research:

The purpose of survey research is to make inferences about characteristics, attitude or behaviour of a population by taking a sample from that population and to generalize these characteristics, attitudes or behaviour from the sample to the population (Creswell, 2014). The survey sampling process can be used to determine information about large populations, through a representative sample, with a known level of accuracy (Rea & Parker, 1992). Survey research typically “provides a quantitative or numeric description of the trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population” (Creswell, 2014.P. 12). Survey research involves cross-sectional or longitudinal studies using questionnaire or structured interviews for data collection, with the intention of generalizing from a sample to a population (Babbie, 1990). Researcher seeks to discover common relationships across organizations by studying the representative sample of these organizations and hence, aims to provide generalizable statements about objectives of study (Gable, 1994). According to Creswell (2009), the main methods used in survey research for collection of data are interviews and questionnaires. Interviews can be structured or unstructured and can be conducted through telephone or face to face. Questionnaires can be administered personally, by telephone or mailed to the respondents.

Forza (2002) classifies the survey research into following categories. First, exploratory survey research – This survey is conducted during early stages of research into a phenomenon with the aim to gain an initial insight on a topic. Usually there is no model. Second, theory testing survey research - is a process with a series of steps which are related to each other. Usually there is a detailed research design phase which follows a pilot testing phase to ensure that the survey instrumentation and procedures are adequate to ensure the quality of survey research process. Alreck & Dettle (1985) suggests that matching the capabilities and limitations of data –processing methods should be matched with the sampling and instrumentation.

4.6.2 Experimental Research:

According to Creswell (2009), experimental survey research seeks to assess the influence of a specific treatment on an outcome. The impact is evaluated by giving a specific treatment to one group and withholding from other group and then evaluating the impact that how both groups scored on an outcome. The data are collected by using instruments to measure attitudes, and the information is analysed by employing statistical procedures and hypothesis testing. Experiments include true experiments, where subjects are randomly assigned to treatment conditions, and quasi experiments, where non-randomised designs are used (Keppel, 1991).

4.7 Strategies of Inquiry used in this research:

This research uses the survey as strategy of inquiry to record the numeric description of the attitudes and behaviour of sample population. Self-report survey data are

the most common type of data collected in the organizational sciences because of its ease to obtain large quantity of data with less time, effort or money (Schwarz, 1999).

4.8 Rationale for use of survey rather than experiment:

Decision on suitability of data collection method is based on the research requirements and other constraints like time, cost and resource allocation. This study uses survey method instead of experiment for data collection due to following reasons. First; the results of experiments may not be valid because of testing effect. Field experiments were not possible due to the nature of study. This study is measuring effects of injustice perceptions on employee job outcomes in workplace; injustice perceptions could be different in the field. The experiment conducted in branches could suffer from testing effects biases because when employees know that they are under test, they may not give true responses due to social desirability issues.

Second, researcher wanted to collect data from participants without disturbance to their work routines. In experiments, researchers manipulate a situation or condition to see how people react (Neuman, 2013). In survey research researcher only carefully record answers from many people who have been asked the same questions (Neuman, 2013). As data is collected from employees of a commercial bank, it is extremely important for a bank to avoid any disturbance to their routine operations due to direct public interaction with bank employees. Questionnaire survey method is preferred way of data collection without causing disturbance to the work routine of employees because employees can fill these questionnaires at their convenient times. Researcher while administering

questionnaires motivated the respondents to complete the questionnaires at their convenient time and return the filled questionnaires in the drop boxes which were placed by the researcher with the permission of branch managers.

Third, Researcher also opted for survey research method because of the cost and time constraints of researcher. As has been suggested by Creswell (2014) survey method has advantage of economy and rapid turnaround during data collection process. Additionally, surveys can be more accurate in identifying extreme responses, documenting behaviours and capturing associations among sample variables. Vidich & Shapiro (1955, p. 31) mention that survey method are relatively superior due to their deductibility over field methods. They observe that "Without the survey data, the observer could only make reasonable guesses about his area of ignorance in the effort to reduce bias." Thus due to these considerations and advantages this study employed survey research method.

4.8.1 Disadvantages of Survey:

Main disadvantages which is associated with survey data is that researcher is unable to directly observe each participant during the data collection process and there could be a chance that some of the respondents may not answer the questions thoughtfully (DeSimone, Harms, & DeSimone, 2015), and may have a tendency to agree or disagree with items, regardless of content (Couch & Keniston, 1960; Cronbach, 1942), or tend to present in a socially desirable manner (Berg, 1967; Edwards, 1957).

4.8.2 Strategy to address the disadvantages of survey:

This study addresses the above highlighted disadvantages associated with survey by employing the recommended statistical data screening method to identify the specific low quality response patterns. DeSimone et al. (2015) suggest use of Mahalanobis Distance method test for statistical data screening to identify the extreme responses (DeSimone et al, 2015; Hair et al., 2006). The advantage of statistical data screening method is that they do not require survey modification and therefore do not alert the respondents about analyses of their responses for screening purposes (DeSimone et al., 2015). This study also uses the descriptive statistics for individual items e.g., mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis as suggested by (DeSimone et.al., 2015) to ensure quality of data. These statistical data screening techniques are discussed in next chapter. Moreover, to improve the data quality and response rate, the anonymity and social desirability issues were addressed by taking appropriate measures which are explained in the section under common method variance.

4.9 Form of data collection:

Survey research normally uses a written questionnaire or formal interview to gather information about beliefs, attitudes and behaviours of participants (Neuman, 2013). This study uses questionnaires for data collection. Questionnaires could be either open ended or closed ended (Creswell, 2009), whereas structured questionnaires are used in Survey research (Malhotra & Birks (2007). The term structured refers to the degree of standardization applied to the data collection process-a formal questionnaire is used and questions are asked in a pre-arranged order (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Most of the

questions, in a typical questionnaire, are fixed-response alternative questions which require the participants to select from a set of predetermined responses (Malhotra & Birks, 2007).

4.9.1 Form of data collection used in this study:

This study uses structured and closed ended questionnaires for data collection. Questionnaire is a usual quantitative tool in surveys (Picardi & Masick, 2013) and suitable to collect data about attitudes (Sekran & Bougie, 2016). Questionnaire offers several advantages like capturing precise information (Collis & Hussey, 2013) and generally less time consuming and less expensive as compared to interviews and observations (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Malhotra and Birks (2007), reiterate several advantages of using questionnaires based survey. First; it is easy to administer a questionnaire. Second; a small group of individuals can be used to identify the attributes of a large population (Fowler, 2009). Third; there is consistency of collected data because the responses are confined to the given alternatives only. Finally; data coding, analysis and interpretation is relatively simple.

4.9.2 Rationale for use of questionnaire:

This study uses the structured closed-ended questionnaire for data collection due to following reasons. First, this study seeks to get some extremely sensitive information from participants of the study i.e., their perceptions of injustice, their reactions to injustice perceptions in the form of workplace deviance, turnover intentions and decreased job performance, and workplace jealousy. Researcher felt that respondents might not answer correctly due to social desirability issues while answering such questions during

interviews. Researcher, therefore, uses the questionnaires which can be answered anonymously to address social desirability issues. It has been suggested that questionnaire is a suitable way to collect data about attitudes (Sekran & Bougie, 2016). Second, researcher wanted a consistency in collected data. As questionnaires can confine responders' responses to the given alternatives only, which provide a consistency in collected data (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). So, by using questionnaires, researcher seeks to obtain consistency in collected data. Third, researcher had limited time and resources for data collection. Using questionnaires could be convenient to collect data from more respondents with limited time and resources (Sekran & Bougie, 2016). Lastly, researcher seeks to use scales of instruments for generating a numeric data for analysis. As Malhotra & Birks (2007), suggest that a researcher while making choice of research method should consider his forms of data collection, analysis and interpretation. Extant research also reiterates that questionnaire based survey method is a commonly used technique in quantitative research for investigating casual relationships (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013).

Researcher uses personally administered questionnaires due to following reasons. First, researcher can personally visit the participants which can improve the response rate. Due to sensitive nature of questions, the response rate could be low in case of sending the survey questionnaires by mail/email. Second, researcher seeks to handle initial queries of participants regarding nature of study. Researcher believes that any ambiguity regarding nature of research may result in lower response rate. However, researcher remained extremely careful, while answering respondents' queries, that by no way he expresses any views which may influence respondents' opinions about constructs of the study.

4.10 Sampling Process:

Sampling process involves collecting data from a sample of a population according to research objectives, budget and time constraints (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). A sample is a subset of the population which is selected by a researcher for investigation of population characteristics (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Alder & Clark, 2014). The selection of an appropriate sampling design involves number of important factors (Hair et al., 2003). First, the choice of a suitable sampling design is guided by the research objectives. Second, Research requirements for the degree of accuracy also play a role in selection of sampling design. Third, researcher's economic and human resources also play a vital role in deciding the sampling design. Fourth, the time frame for the research also plays a significant role in determining appropriate sampling design. Fifth, researcher requires a complete and accurate list of the target population to choose a probability sampling design. Finally, the scope of the research is also a deciding factor in determining the sampling design. In view of above contributing factors which play an important role in deciding the appropriate sampling design, this study discusses the core issues regarding the sample for data collection, the target population, sampling design, rationale for using convenience sampling design, and the sample size.

4.11 Sampling Method:

Sampling methods are broadly categorized into two types: probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Saunders et al., 2009; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

- Probability sampling technique is use of random selection of a sample, where each unit in the population has a known chance of being selected.
- Non-probability sampling is a technique where a sample is not selected by using random selection method, due to which some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others.

Saunders et al., (2009) categorize probability sampling techniques into four types, i.e., simple random, stratified, systematic, and cluster; and non-probability sampling techniques into five types, i.e., quota, convenience, purposive, self-selection and snowball. However, choosing sample from a population is not straightforward because not all cases may be known or accessible to researcher. This study uses a convenience sampling method which is a type of non-probability sampling.

4.11.1 Sampling method used in this research:

This study adopted a non-probability convenience sampling method. According to Creswell et. Al., (2014), in convenience sampling, respondents are chosen based on their availability and convenience. Convenience sampling is a widely used technique for data collection (Saunders et al., 2009). Researchers' emphasis various advantage of using convenience sampling, such as, cost effectiveness, ease of sampling and collection of data in less duration (Tolmie et al., 2011). At the same time this sampling technique has disadvantages as well, for example, it may be vulnerable to selection bias.

4.11.2 Rationale for using convenience sampling method:

This study adopts non-probability convenience sampling technique due to following reasons. First, the target bank has about 12,000 employees and it was not possible to contact all the employees, primarily because the bank was not willing to provide the details of all its employees due to confidentiality issues. Consequently, it was not possible to create a sample frame from where a probability sample could be drawn. “A lack of adequate lists may automatically rule out systematic random sampling, stratified random sampling or any other type of probability sampling method” (Hair et al., 2003, p. 364). It was, therefore, necessary to contact the human resource department to get a list of employees who could participate in the study. The human resource department was requested to send the recruitment email to all its employees. Bank, accordingly, sent the email to all its employees and provided the researcher a list of those employees who gave their consent to participate in the study. Second, researcher is having limited time and human resources to select any probability sampling technique. It is suggested to choose a less time demanding sampling method if researcher has constraints of time and resources (Saunders et al., 2015; Hair et al., 2003). Third, the researcher is dealing with a relatively homogenous population with similar background and profile (bank employees with similar educational background and work environment) in such cases use of a non-probability convenience sampling method can be a valid choice. According to Malhotra et al., (2007), when there is less variability in population and the population is homogeneous, then the use of non-probability convenience sampling is preferable.

4.11.3 Remedies used to minimize convenience sampling bias:

To minimize the convenience sampling bias, researcher used following remedies. Human resource department of target bank was requested to send the recruitment email to all its employees for participation in the study. Human resource department of the bank, accordingly, sent the recruitment email to all its employees and provided a list of all those employees who gave their consent to participate in the study. Human resource department was requested to send the recruitment email to all its employees to minimize sample selection bias. Researcher accordingly distributed the questionnaires to all employees who had provided their consent to participate in the study. Previous research suggests the suitability of convenience sampling method in adequately capturing the population characteristics for latent constructs. For example, Poon (2012), while examining the interactive effects of distributive justice and procedural justice in predicting turnover intention, used a mediation-moderation framework, employing the convenience sampling method by using a survey data of 168 employees.

4.12 Sample Respondents Selection Criteria:

The prior approval was obtained from the target bank before data collection. As mentioned earlier, the target bank has about 12,000 employees. The bank was not willing to provide a complete list of its employees primarily due to confidentiality issues. So, it was not possible to contact all the employees of the bank and create a sample frame from where a probability sample could be drawn. Hence, researcher contacted human resource department and requested to send the recruitment email to all its employees and managers along with researcher's statement of research's purpose and confidentiality assurance. Managers were invited to participate for responding job performance questions about their subordinates, whereas other staff members were invited to participate for other study variables, i.e., perceived injustice, workplace deviance, job performance, intentions to quit,

jealousy and self-efficacy. Bank obtained the consent from managers and staff members to participate in the research and provided the names and branches of all those managers and staff members who gave their consent. Researcher, while self-administering, distributed the questionnaire to all managers and staff members who shown their willingness to participate in the study and were in the list provided by the bank. As researcher was aiming to match the job performance related responses from managers with responses from respective staff members, researcher used an identification code on all questionnaires before distribution. The identification codes were used to identify employees and matching job performance responses for each staff member.

To ensure well informed and reliable respondents, researcher while applying for bank's permission for data collection provided a statement which explained the nature of study and gave confidentiality assurance. The statement assured complete confidentiality to the respondents and clarified participants' rights to refuse to take part in the study or withdraw at any stage without giving any reason. It was also clarified that participants' responses to questions will be completely confidential and no one will be identified in any written report or publication, and that only aggregate data will be presented. The statement also explained that the researcher is bound by the "Code of Ethics of the University of Salford" which mandates complete confidentiality and that, under no circumstances, would any information divulged in this questionnaire be revealed. Further, that data will be kept in a locked cabinet, accessible only to the researcher. Information kept on computer would be password protected. Moreover, participants were provided a consent sheet along with questionnaires to tick the consent boxes to confirm their understanding of their rights as a research participant. It was also mentioned that participants can contact the researcher for any clarification or concerns about the study. These strategies are used to ensure that more

informed and reliable respondents are selected to participate in the study. The confidentiality assurance was also important to communicate because Pakistan is a high-power distance country (Hofstede, 1980; 1984), and respondents might be reluctant to share their perception of injustice, workplace jealousy and reactive behaviours in the workplace.

The bank's hierarchy comprises of top management (Bank's president, country group chiefs, regional heads, area managers), middle management (Managers/Supervisors), and employees who are performing routine operational activities of bank, and lower level staff (security guards, record keepers). To collect the data, Managers/Supervisors and employees were selected as target respondents. Induction in Pakistani banks normally requires a university Bachelor's degree, so respondents can easily understand the English language used in the questionnaire. Earlier organizational studies conducted in Pakistan targeted white-collar employees as respondents because blue-collar workers are not educated to a level to be able to respond to a questionnaire effectively (Abbas et al., 2014).

4.12.1 Ethical Considerations:

Research ethics refers to the appropriate behaviour of researcher in relation to the rights of the individuals who are the subject of research or are affected by it (Saunders et al., 2009). Research ethics, therefore, concerns the important questions like how the research topic is formulated and clarified, the research is designed and participants will be accessed, how data will be collected, processed and stored, and finally analyses of data and writing up research findings in a moral and responsible way (Saunders et al., 2009).

Following key ethical issues have been highlighted by Saunders et al., (2009), which emerge while conducting the research.

Ethical issues which arise during research process
"privacy of possible and actual participants",
" voluntary nature of participation and the right to withdraw partially or completely from the process";
"consent and possible deception of participants";
" maintenance of the confidentiality of data provided by individuals or identifiable participants and their anonymity";
" reactions of participants to the way in which you seek to collect data, including embarrassment, stress, discomfort, pain and harm";
"effects on participants of the way in which you use, analyse and report your data, in particular the avoidance of embarrassment, stress, discomfort, pain and harm";
"behaviour and objectivity of you as researcher".

Table 4.2: Ethical issues which arise during research process (Saunders et al., 2009 p. 185).

To ensure that this research complies with these ethical principles, researcher obtained the departmental ethics approval from College of Arts & Social Sciences, Research Ethics Panel, University of Salford (see appendix A). Researcher also obtained the approval from the target organization before contacting the participants for data collection. Considering ethical considerations, researcher provided detailed information about the research to all participants while applying for approval from their organization before contacting participants. Researcher also provided the assurance for complete confidentiality and anonymity to all respondents and clarified participants' rights to refuse to take part in the study or withdraw at any stage without giving any reason. It was also explained that researcher is bound by the "Code of Ethics of the University of Salford" which mandates complete confidentiality and that, under no circumstances, would any

information divulged in this questionnaire be revealed. Researcher also explained that how the data will be handled and stored after collection and ensured only researcher's access to it (appendix B).

During field visits, before starting collection of data, participants were provided a covering sheet with questionnaire which provided the detailed information about research, anonymity and confidentiality. It also explained their rights as research participants. Researcher also explained about handling, accessibility and storing of collecting data. The participants were also conveyed that whom they can contact if they need more information about the study. The participants were asked to tick the consent boxes on the covering sheet to confirm their understanding of the nature of study and their rights as a research participant (appendix C). To ensure complete anonymity and confidentiality of participants, participants' names were not included on questionnaire and researcher used coding to pair the questionnaire from the employees and their managers. Only aggregate data was analyzed and no one was identified in any outcome or written report. The paper based information is stored in a locked cabinet where no one has access except the researcher. The information which is kept on the computer is password protected.

4.13 Measurement Scales:

This study used the measurement instruments from existing literature and these scales have been extensively used to measure these variables. Baruch & Holtom (2008) indicate that quantitative methodologies are frequently used in managerial and behavioural sciences empirical studies, and questionnaires are frequently used as a data collection tool. All the study variables are measured using self-reported responses except for job performance which was supervisory reported to deal with the issue of common method

bias. Addressing the issue of common method bias has been discussed in section 4.17. Earlier research shows the accuracy of self-reports in measuring job conditions in general (Spector, 1992). Moreover, in this study, accurate reporting was encouraged by taking the following additional steps: (a) Complete confidentiality and anonymity was ensured of all survey responses; (b) data was tracked with codes rather than using respondent names; (c) questionnaires were collected directly by researcher from drop boxes rather than through colleagues or supervisors; and (d) respondents were motivated for accurate reporting by mentioning on the cover page to answer all questions honestly as there is no right or wrong answer. Previous studies support the use of these methodological precautions to improve the accuracy of self-report measures (Aquino et al., 1999). The questionnaires used in this study are attached as Appendix-C. The justifications for use of these scales and references from literature are explained below.

4.13.1 Perceived Injustice:

Perceived injustice is measured by using a 20-items scale developed by (Colquitt, 2001). This scale is widely used in organizational justice studies to measure employee injustice perceptions. For example, Khan, Quratulain, & Bell (2014), in their study use this scale to measure procedural and distributive justice. Colquitt et al., (2012), in their study, measure justice dimensions using Colquitt's (2001) scales. They found the coefficient alpha for procedural justice as .90, for interactional justice they reported the coefficient alpha as .95, and the coefficient alpha for distributive justice was .96. **Distributive injustice** was measured using four items, on a five point scale anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. For the distributive injustice scale, example items include "These outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work." and "These outcomes are

appropriate for the work I do". The alpha reliability of distributive injustice scale for this study is 0.93. **Procedural injustice** was measured through seven items, and five point anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. For the procedural injustice scale, the example items include "I have expressed my views and feelings during those procedures" and "I had the influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures". The alpha reliability of procedural injustice scale for this study is 0.91. **Interactional injustice** was measured using nine items, five point scale anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. For the interactional injustice scale, the example items include "He treated me in a polite manner" and " He has been candid/frank in his communications with me". The alpha reliability of distributive injustice scale for this study is 0.93.

Colquitt et al., (2012) extend the arguments that differences in the objective qualities of treatment can truly be captured by using self-report subjective appraisals of justice dimensions. Three different types of data support that self-report appraisals can pick up true variance in objective treatment (Colquitt et al., 2012). First, previous laboratory studies of organizational justice literature show a strong relationship between self-report manipulation checks and objective manipulations of justice concepts (Brockner et al., 2007; De Cremer & Tyler, 2007; Rupp & Spencer, 2006). Second, meta-analysis comparison of field and laboratory studies suggest that the outcome relationships by using self-report justice measures were similar to relationships with manipulated justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Finally, previous justice research shows that multiple employees within a workplace unit hold similar appraisals about treatment of their supervisors or organization towards them (Dietz et al., 2003; Liao & Rupp, 2005; Naumann & Bennett, 2000). In the light of these arguments it can be suggested that self-reported responses are appropriate to measure employees' injustice perceptions.

Scale Items	Source of items
Distributive Injustice	Colquitt (2001)
These outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work.	
These outcomes are appropriate for the work I do.	
These outcomes reflect what I have contributed to the organization	
These outcomes are justified, given my performance.	
Procedural Injustice	Colquitt (2001)
I have expressed my views and feelings during those procedures	
I had the influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures.	
Those procedures have been applied consistently.	
Those procedures have been free of bias.	
Those procedures have been based on accurate information.	
I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures.	
Those procedures confirm ethical and moral standards.	
Interactional Injustice	Colquitt (2001)
My manager treats me in a polite manner.	
My manager treats me with dignity.	
My manager treats me with respect.	
My manager refrains from improper remarks or comments	
My manager has been candid/frank in his/her communications with me	
My manager explains the procedures thoroughly.	
My manager's explanations regarding the procedures are reasonable	
My manager communicates details in a timely manner.	
My manager seems to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs	

Table 4.3: Measurement Scale- Injustice

4.13.2 Workplace Deviance:

The scale used to measure workplace deviance is taken from existing literature which was developed by Aquino et al., (1999). The scale has 14 items of which eight items are used to measure organization directed deviance and the remaining six items are used to measure interpersonal deviance. Example items are "intentionally arrived late for work" and "refused to talk to a co-worker". The alpha reliability of the scale for this study is 0.88. However, while measuring the construct of workplace deviance, scholars did not distinguish between the two dimensions of organization directed deviance and interpersonal directed deviance, and used one scale to measure the construct of workplace deviance (Judge et al., 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002). This study following these footprints used the scale developed by Aquino et al., (1999), to measure the construct of workplace deviance. For each item the respondents were asked to indicate the number of times they had performed the behaviour described within the last year using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (more than 20 times).

This scale has been widely used to measure workplace deviance in previous studies. For example, Aquino, Galperin, & Bennett (2004), use this scale to measure workplace deviance and use all 14 items to measure workplace deviance through self-reported responses for their study. Bordia et al., (2008), use eight items related to organization directed deviance of this scale to measure organizational directed workplace deviance and found the reliability coefficient of 0.65 for eight items pertaining to organization directed deviance. Ferris et al., (2012), in their adapted scale to measure daily workplace deviance also use items from this scale. Mitchell & Ambrose (2007) use three

employee related items from this scale to measure interpersonal workplace deviance and found the alpha reliability as 0.92.

Stewart, Bing, Davison, Woehr, & McIntyre (2009) mention that, due to differences in attribution, there may be more accuracy for self-reports of workplace deviance as compared to non self-reports. The basic attribution error may occur as others may not consider the situational influences on an individual's behaviour and instead make incorrect attributions of responsibility to the individual. There is further evidence from the literature which supports the accuracy of self-reports of job conditions in general (Spector, 1992). These arguments also support the use of self-reported responses to measure workplace deviance. Various previous studies have used self-reported responses to measure employees' deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 2004; Aquino et al., 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Jones, 2009).

Scale items	Source of items
Workplace Deviance (How many times in the last year you...)	Aquino et al., (1999)
made an ethnic, racial or religious slur against a co-worker	
swore at a co-worker	
refused to talk to a co-worker	
gossiped about your supervisor.	
made an obscene comment or gesture at co-worker	
teased a coworker in front of other employees	
intentionally arrived late for work	
called in sick when not really ill	
took underserved breaks to avoid work	
made unauthorized use of organizational property	
left work early without permission	
lied about the number of hours worked	
worked on a personal matter on the job instead of working for employer.	
purposely ignored supervisor's instructions.	

Table 4.3.1: Measurement Scale Workplace Deviance

4.13.3 Turnover intentions:

A three item, five-point scale developed by Vigoda (2000) was used to measure turnover intentions. Examples of the items included “I often think about quitting this job” and “Lately, I have taken interest in job offers in the newspaper”. The scale was anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The alpha reliability of the scale for this study is 0.78. This scale has been widely used in previous studies to measure intentions to quit. For example, Abbas et al., (2014), in their study, measure turnover intentions using this scale and report, the Cronbach’s alpha as 0.76. Poon (2004) also measures turnover intentions by using the three items scale developed by Vigoda, (2000), and report the alpha reliability as 0.78.

Intention to Quit	Source of items
Scale items	Vigoda (2000)
I often think about quitting this job.	
Next year I will probably look for a new job outside this organization.	
Lately, I have taken interest in job offers in the newspaper.	

Table 4.3.2: Measurement scale – Turnover Intentions

4.13.4 Jealousy:

Jealousy was measured using scales developed by DeSteno et al., (2002), & Vecchio (2000). The first two items were taken from the scale of DeSteno et al., (2002) and the remaining three items were taken from the scale of Vecchio (2000). The two items taken from the scale of Desteno et al., (2002) were slightly modified because DeSteno et al., (2002), developed the scale to measure jealousy in romantic or sibling relationships. The word "partner" was replaced with "boss" to use these items in the context of workplace. The original item was "I would feel rejected by my partner", the item was modified as "I would feel rejected by my boss". The second item had originally been "I

would not feel angry with my partner or with the person he/she was with". The item was modified as "I would not feel angry with my boss or with the person he/she was with". The scale asked employees to express the emotions that they felt at the workplace. The jealousy scale is based on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1: strongly disagree 7: strongly agree). The coefficient alpha for the scale for this study is 0.85.

Jealousy	Source of items
Scale items	
I feel rejected by my manager	DeSteno et al., (2002)
I do not feel angry with my manager or with the person he/she was with	DeSteno et al., (2002)
I feel depressed when my manager speaks favourably about another employee	Vecchio (2000)
I feel resentful if my manager asks one of my co-workers for help with a problem	Vecchio (2000)
I sometimes worry that my manager feels that another employee is more competent than I.	Vecchio (2000)

Table 4.4.3: Measurement scale - Jealousy

4.13.5 Self-efficacy:

Self-efficacy was measured employing a six-item scale used by (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007), which they adopted from Parker (1998). This six items scale to measure self-efficacy has been widely used in workplace studies (Jensen & Luthans, 2006; Luthans et al., 2007). There is evidence from the literature that Parker's scale (1998) is suitable to measure self-efficacy in the work domain (Luthans et al., 2007; Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008), and its use of a Likert-type scale has considerable psychometric support as a measure of efficacy (Maurer & Pierce, 1998). Hence, using this scale to measure self-efficacy in the workplace setting seems appropriate. The sample items include "I feel confident analysing a long-term problem to find a solution" and "I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area". The scale was seven points and anchored between 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. This study found an alpha

reliability of 0.86. The use of self-reports to measure self-efficacy has been mentioned as more appropriate, because of the fact that it is very difficult for others to report on someone else's self-efficacy (Caprara, Di Giunta, Pastorelli, & Eisenberg, 2013).

Self-Efficacy	Source of items -
Scale items	Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, (2007), which they adopted from Parker (1998).
I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution	
I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management	
I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy	
I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work areas	
I feel confident contacting people outside the organization (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	
I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	

Table 4.3.4: Measurement Scale – Self-Efficacy

4.13.6 Job Performance:

Job performance was measured by using the seven item scale of Williams & Anderson (1991). This scale has been used to measure job performance in previous studies. For example Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger (2010), used this scale to measure task performance in their study. They report the alpha reliability as 0.91, however, this study found the alpha reliability as 0.92 which is well above the threshold value. Abbas et al., (2014) and Zapata-Phelan et al., (2009), use the same scale to measure job performance in their studies. The supervisors were asked to complete the scales indicating the extent to which they agreed with statements about the focal respondents' performance, such as "This employee adequately completes assigned duties" and "fulfils responsibilities specified in job description".

This study used the evaluation of job performance from supervisors to reduce potential same source bias as suggested by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff (2003). Addressing common method bias is an important issue and it has been suggested that obtaining data from different sources can reduce common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). The method of measuring job performance from co-workers or supervisors has commonly been used in various studies to reduce potential common method bias. For example, Piccolo et al., (2010), measured task performance from co-workers to reduce potential same-source bias. Abbas et al., (2014), measured employees' job performance through their supervisors to address the issue of same source bias. Colquitt et al., (2012), while examining the justice-job performance relation, also used participants' supervisors' performance ratings, to deal with the same source bias issue. Another recent study used supervisors rated job performance measure to address the issue of common method bias (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Zapata-Phelan et al., (2009) also used supervisory rated job performance measures in their study to deal with the issue of common method bias. These examples from the literature support the choice of this study to measure employees' job performance from supervisors to reduce potential same-source bias.

Job Performance	Source of items
Scale items	Williams & Anderson (1991)
Adequately completes assigned duties.	
Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description.	
Performs task that are expected of him/her	
Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	
Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	
Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	
Fails to perform essential duties.	

Table 4.3.5 Measurement Scale – Job Performance

All scales were maintained using English language and no native language translation was made because majority of the working population in Pakistan can easily understand the English language. Previous studies conducted in Pakistan did not apply any translation technique, nor did they report any serious problem in collecting data in the English language (Abbas et al., 2014; Lehner et al., 2014; Raja, Johns, & Ntalianis, 2004). Moreover, participating employees and supervisors of the bank, from where the data was collected, all had a minimum qualification of university graduation, enabling them to easily understand English language. Additionally, the official communication language in all organizations in Pakistan, including employees of the participating bank, is English. Therefore, standardized back translation of the questionnaire into the native language was not required. Furthermore, every effort was made to use well-established scales which have simple language and are easy to understand.

4.14 Pilot Testing of questionnaire:

Pilot testing refers to “testing the questionnaire on a sample of respondents to identify and eliminate potential problems” (Malhotra & Birks, 2006, p. 345). Pre-testing involves, examining the “measurement properties of the survey questions and examine the viability of the administration of these surveys” (Forza, 2002. p. 171). It is suggested to pre-test the questionnaires by submitting the questionnaires to three types of people: colleagues, industry experts, and target respondents. The role of colleagues is to test whether the questionnaire fulfills the requirements of study objectives. The role of industry experts is to “avoid inclusion of some obvious questions that might reveal avoidable ignorance of the investigator in some specific area” (P. 171). The role of target

respondents is to provide feedback on every aspect of questionnaire that can affect the understanding or quality of answers of the respondents.

According to Creswell (2014), pre-testing the instruments is important to establish content validity of instruments and to improve questions, format, and scales. Malhotra & Birks (2006), suggest pre-testing of instruments to identify any problematic issues regarding any question content, wording, sequence, form, difficulty, layout, instructions and time scales. Saunders et al., (2009) suggests the pre-testing of instruments before using them for data collection. It is suggested that pre-testing the questionnaire before field survey is an important measure to take (Brace, 2008). The sample size for the pilot study normally ranges from 15 to 30 respondents (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). On the other hand, Greener (2008) suggests that a convenience sample that includes respondents who are familiar with the target sample is appropriate for the pilot study.

This study pre-tests the instruments using the criteria suggested by (Forza, 2002). The instruments were pre-tested by submitting the questionnaire to three types of people. First, instruments were submitted to two senior academicians to ensure that instruments fulfill the requirements of research objectives. The instruments were found to suitably fulfill the requirements of research objectives. Second, the questionnaires were informally distributed to 10 industry experts who were senior managers by using researchers personal contacts in banking industry. Moreover, the questionnaires to measure job performance were also submitted to them for their feedback for any obvious flaws. Third, while contacting managers, questionnaires for other study variables were also informally distributed to twenty employees in those locations to get their feedback on any aspect of

questionnaire that can affect the understanding or quality of answers of the respondents. These employees were working in different roles having experience ranging from five to eight years. The managers and target respondents were requested for their comments about introduction of the research, instructions for responders, research questions, response categories, and questionnaire layout, to highlight anything which may be difficult to understand or confusing for responders and also to give any suggestions for improvement in questionnaire layout. The feedback of target respondents and the adjustments made to the questionnaire are outlined in the table below. All the managers were satisfied with the instrument to measure job performance.

Respondents' feedback	Adjustments
It was suggested to make the time (25-30 minutes) in bold.	This part in the introductory section was changed to bold.
It was suggested to change the font size to 12 instead of 10 to facilitate the respondents to read the questions.	The font size was changed to 12 from 10.
It was suggested that for the introductory sentences of distributive injustice, the words "rewards outcomes" to be replaced with words "benefits / rewards" and to explain the type of benefits / rewards using words "pay increase, bonuses, promotion, time-off" to make employees familiar with the terminologies which are	The introductory sentences of distributive injustice scale were amended accordingly.

<p>used in their organization.</p>	
<p>It was suggested that for the introductory sentences of procedural injustice scale, the words “job outcomes” to be replaced with words “benefits/rewards” to make the respondents understand this in the context of their organization. It was also suggested to include the words “Your performance appraisal procedures” in brackets at the end of introductory sentences to sum up the introductory sentences for procedural injustice.</p>	<p>The introductory sentences of procedural injustice scale were amended accordingly.</p>
<p>It was suggested that for the introductory sentences of interactional injustice the words “authority figure” be replaced with “Manager/ Regional or Area Manager” which were actually used in the organization to facilitate the respondents' understanding these words in the context of their organization. The words "job outcomes" were replaced with "benefits/rewards".</p>	<p>The introductory sentences of Interactional injustice scale were amended accordingly. The words "job outcomes" were replaced with "benefits/rewards".</p>

Table 4.4: Feedback of respondents in pilot study

Following the pilot testing and after making changes in the light of target respondents' feedback, the field survey was conducted.

4.15 Validity and Reliability of Scales

Validity and reliability are of prime importance for any instrument and ensure that the research design has no avoidable flaws. Brennan, Camm, & Tanas (2007) suggest assessing an instrument's validity before its reliability because there is no use in having a perfectly reliable, but completely invalid, instrument.

4.15.1 Validity:

According to Saunders et al., (2009) an instrument's validity refers to its ability to measure what is actually meant to be measured, i.e., whatever is found through a scale is actually representing the reality of what the research is measuring. A number of ways and approaches have been suggested by scholars for assessing validity (Churchill Jr, 1979; Diamantopoulos, 2005; Rossiter, 2002; 2005). Some validity tests can be made before data collection (formative validity), whereas others can be performed after (construct validity). Brennan et al., (2007) emphasize differentiating between both of these.

4.15.1.1 Formative Validity: Construct has been defined by Rossiter (2002), as a conceptual term which can be used for describing a phenomenon of theoretical interest. The theoretical interests of research are addressed in the form of appropriate research questions which then lead to the measurement of different constructs. However, due to the abstract nature of constructs, which are theoretically discussed by behavioural scientists (Diamantopoulos, 2005), they cannot be measured directly and instead items are used

which define the facets of the measured construct. In order to ensure that the items capture all the facets of a construct's abstraction, experts like Churchill Jr (1979) and Rossiter (2002) suggest the use of more than one item of measurement i.e., to use multi-item scales. This study, following Churchill Jr (1979) and Rossiter (2002)'s suggestion uses multi-item scales to measure all the facets of the constructs' abstraction. The scales used to measure the constructs of this study are discussed in section 4.18.

Formative validity involves content and face validity. Content validity ensures that the measurement scale includes an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept (Saunders et al., 2009). Face validity indicates that the items that are intended to measure a concept, do, apparently look like they measure the concept (Sekaran, 2006). Saunders et al., (2009) mention that content validity can be established through careful definition of the research through the literature reviewed. Creswell (2014) suggests that if existing instruments are used, the established validity of instruments in previous studies can be relied upon.

In this study, content validity was established through literature review of the constructs and also by using all the instruments from existing literature. These instruments have been used by previous scholars to measure these constructs and results reveal the adequate content validity. The details of previous studies where these instruments were used have been referred to in a previous section. Saunders et al., (2009) suggest seeking comments from experts on the representativeness and suitability of the questions and allowing suggestions to be made on the structure of the questions. They argue that this will help to establish content validity and make any necessary amendments prior to pilot

testing. In this study, the feedback regarding representativeness, suitability and structure of the questionnaire was assessed by gathering expert opinions from 10 senior managers of the banking industry during pre-testing. Instruments were also submitted to two senior academicians to ensure that instruments fulfill the requirements of research objectives. Additionally, this also established the content validity as per the above criteria of (Saunders et al., 2009).

4.15.1.2 Construct Validity:

Construct validity can be defined as the extent to which the measurement questions actually measure those constructs which are intended to be measured (Saunders et al., 2009). Construct validity is assessed through convergent and discriminant validity (Sekaran, 2006).

4.15.1.3 Convergent validity: Measures of a construct which should be related to each other theoretically, are actually observed to be related to each other, i.e., they should be able to correlate or converge between similar constructs. (Brennan et al., 2007). There should be high correlation among items of the same scale. Hair et al., (2014, p. 102) suggest using average variance extracted (AVE) and "outer loadings of the indicators, to establish convergent validity" in PLS-SEM (p. 102). This study, therefore, establishes the convergent validity by using (AVE) and outer loadings of the indicators which is discussed in detail in section 5.8.3.1.

4.15.1.4 Discriminant validity: Measures of a construct that in theory should not be related to each other are, in fact, observed to be not related to each other, i.e., they should be able to discriminate between dissimilar constructs (Brennan et al., 2007).

Discriminant validity is established when based on a conceptual model, the constructs are predicted to be uncorrelated and empirically found to be so (Sekaran, 2006). Hair et al., (2014) suggests to establish discriminant validity by using three different criteria in the PLS-SEM i.e., Fornell-Larcker criterion, examine the cross loadings of the indicators, and heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) criterion. This study establishes the discriminant validity by using Hair et al., (2014)'s recommended criteria which is discussed in detail in section 5.8.3.2.

4.15.2 Reliability:

Saunders et al., (2009) define that reliability refers to consistency. Reliability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept (Sekaran, 2006). Reliability concerns whether the instrument will produce consistent findings at different times and under different conditions, such as with different samples (Saunders et al., 2009). Reliability is commonly measured by internal consistency (Saunders et al., 2009), which involves that the individual items or indicators of the scale should be measuring the same construct and the respondents should attach the same overall meaning to each of the items, and thus should be highly inter-correlated. Internal consistency is most frequently calculated by using Cronbach's alpha (Saunders et al., 2009). As this study suggests use of PLS- based structural equation modeling (see later sections), which measures internal consistency through Cronbach's alpha as well as composite reliability (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). This study, therefore, measures internal consistency reliability by using Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach, 1951) and composite reliability. The rationale for use of both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability and establishing reliability of scales is discussed in detail in section 5.8.2.1.

4.16 Data Collection Process:

Initially 752 employees and 52 managers gave their consent to participate in the study. However, there were some employees who although gave their consent to participate in the study, their managers did not give their consent, so they were dropped from the list. After short listing those employees whose managers/supervisors had given consent for their participation in the study, 613 questionnaires were distributed among employees for filling the self-rated version and the same number of questionnaires were distributed to 52 managers/supervisors for measuring the job performance related questionnaire. Questionnaires were administered in eight different cities at 52 locations. An identification number was assigned to identify the respondent and to pair it with the supervisor-reported version of the survey. The researcher visited the branches of the target bank personally to distribute the questionnaires, so that any possible respondent queries regarding the nature of the study or their rights could be addressed. All queries from respondents were answered with extreme care so that the researcher's bias should not influence the respondents' answers. To ensure the convenience, confidentiality and social desirability issue of the respondents drop boxes were placed in the branches with the permission of supervisors. It was also communicated to the respondents that they should drop the questionnaires in the drop boxes after completion.

The researcher collected the filled questionnaires from these drop boxes. Follow-up visits were also made in locations to improve the response rate. Finally, researcher was able to collect 435 filled questionnaires from employees indicating a response rate of almost 71 percent showing high and encouraging interest of the bank's employees to participate in the research. Supervisory rated questionnaires were received with a response

rate of 94 percent, which were, then, paired with the self-rated versions by matching the identification numbers. The responses of those employees whose managers did not return the questionnaire were also excluded from the list, therefore, 423 paired responses remained. During scrutiny, 35 questionnaires were found unfilled or improperly filled and hence also excluded from further analysis, consequently, there were 388 usable paired responses (388 self-reported responses and 388 supervisors rated responses) for analysis. The sample size seems justified considering that similar studies have used even smaller sample sizes; for example, Colquitt et al., (2012), while explaining the justice-performance relationship, used the sample size of 195 employees from a hospital network. Likewise, Poon (2012), while examining the issue of how and when distributive justice and procedural justice interact to predict turnover intentions, employed the convenience sampling method by using a survey data of 168 employees.

4.17 Time Horizon:

Decision on suitability of time horizon for survey data collection method is based on the research requirements and other constraints like time, cost and resource allocation. Time horizon for conducting research can be either cross-sectional or longitudinal. Cross-sectional study involves gathering data just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks or months to answer a research question, whereas in longitudinal study, data is collected at more than one point in time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Longitudinal survey designs help the researcher to collect larger amounts of data compared to cross-sectional designs. However, the major shortcoming of the longitudinal survey method is that it may not be a true representative and may suffer from response bias (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Cross-sectional survey has frequently been used in organizational justice studies, showing its

suitability to effectively capture participants’ responses in similar constructs (Aquino et al., 1999; Begley, Lee, & Hui, 2006; Janssen et al., 2011; Levine et al., 2011).

This research following a usual trend of organizational behaviour studies, is using cross-sectional time horizon to collect data. The details of time horizon of this research are discussed below.

Bank’s approval for data collection	May-2015
Pilot study	June-2015
Start of data collection	July-2015
Distribution of survey in first 10 branches	July-2015
Distribution of survey in next 20 branches	August-2015
Distribution of survey in remaining 22 branches	September-2015
Follow up round one	October 2015
Follow up round two	November 2015
Follow up round three	December 2015

Table 4.5 Time horizon of research

4.18 Sample size:

An appropriate sample size has been suggested to achieve an acceptable level of statistical power (Hair et al., 2011). One commonly suggested method is 10 times rule by Barclay, Higgins, and Thompson (1995), which guides that size of the sample should be equal to the larger of

1. 10 times the largest number of formative indicators used to measure a single construct, or
2. 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model.

Considering the research model of this study, maximum four structural paths are pointing to a particular construct in the model. Seeking guidance from the 10 times rule, requirement of minimum sample size for data analysis will be 40. However, Hair et al., (2014) suggests that since the sample size recommendations in PLS-SEM are built on the OLS regression properties, the sample size rule provided by Cohen (1992), should be followed, which accounts for the statistical power and effect sizes. Therefore, considering the recommendation of Cohen's (1992), which relies on maximum number of independent variables in the measurement and structural models, the research model of this study would require minimum 59 observations for achieving a statistical power of 80% to detect minimum R^2 values of .25 (with 5% probability of error). Comparing the minimum sample size requirements, of both 10 times rule and Cohen's (1992) rule, the sample size of 388 for this study seems appropriate for PLS SEM analysis.

4.19 Generalizability and validity of the study:

In this study the sample was taken from one organization to control extraneous influences. This enabled the study to capture the responses of the respondents having similar organizational settings and environment. It can be broadly said that this study is generalizable across the banking sector. However, the reliability of the study increases because the external factors were controlled. So, although, the generalizability of the study is limited at the same time its reliability is high.

The method of collecting data from a single organization elicits enough support from previous organizational justice and outcomes relationship studies. For example, Rupp, McCance, Spencer, & Sonntag (2008) while investigating the relationship between customer related interactional injustice and the emotional labour dimension of surface acting with anger as mediating and perspective talking as moderating variables, collected data from a single German bank with a sample size of 152. There are other studies also in which similar constructs were measured using one organization. For example, Cole et al., (2010) conducted their study in one organization, due to its specific perspective suitable for the study, to examine the relationships between organizational justice and withdrawal outcomes and to check the linkages of emotional exhaustion as a mediator. Several other organizational studies were completed by collecting data from one organization (Colquitt et al., 2012; Dunford, Jackson, Boss, Tay, & Boss, 2015; Harold, Holtz, Griepentrog, Brewer, & Marsh, 2015; Koivisto, Lipponen, & Platow, 2013). Therefore, collecting data from one organization to measure these study variables seems appropriate.

4.20 Common Method Variance:

Common method variance, which is a variance caused by the measurement method, is a main source of measurement error in behavioral research (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Measurement errors may cause a threat to the validity of the results regarding relationships between measures especially in self-reported studies (Bagozzi & Yi, 1991; Spector, 1987). Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik (2008) argue that studies involving reflective and formative constructs should particularly address the issue of common method bias. This bias results due to inflated correlations as a result of method effect (Meade, Watson, & Kroustalis, 2007). Podsakoff et al., (2012) argues that using same method to measure multiple constructs can result in biased effects. For instance,

while studying a hypothesized relationship between two constructs, if these constructs share common measurement methods, then the observed correlation between the measures may have a systematic effect due to common measurement methods. Thus, at least partially, the observed correlation between the measures presents a rival explanation due to common method bias.

Cote and Buckley (1987) determined that about (26.3%) of the variance in a typical research measure may attribute to common method biases being sources of measurement error. They studied the extent of method variance in various fields of research, and found, on average, the lowest method variance in marketing field (15.8%) and highest in the domain of education (30.5%). They also evidenced that on average 22.5 % variance was found in typical measures of job performance, whereas on average of 40.7% variance was observed in attitude measures. Besides estimating the degree of presence of method variance in typical measures, various scholars also examined the extent to which method variance can influence the between measures relationships (Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). These studies compared the relationship strength between two variables by controlling common method variance versus when it was not. They determined that, the presence of common method bias, on average, accounts for approximately 35% variance compared to approximately 11% when it was not present. Therefore, it is clear that the effect of common method variance on observed relationships between measures of different latent constructs needs to be seriously considered while developing empirical research designs.

This research adopted the recommended remedies to minimize the effect of common method bias. For example, Podsakoff et al., (2003) indicated that one of the main

reasons for common method bias is to measure the predictor (Independent) and Criterion (Dependent) variables from the same source. Podsakoff et al., (2012) suggest that in order to control the common method bias the measures should be obtained from different sources. They suggest two remedies to minimize common method bias which can result due to measuring predictor and criterion variables from same source: (a) to obtain the predictor measure (s) and the criterion measure (s) from two different respondents or (b) obtain either the predictor or criterion measure(s) from respondents and the other measure from sources of secondary data (e.g., company records, annual reports). Podsakoff et al., (2012) reiterate that this can reduce or eliminate the effects of social desirability issues, motifs for consistency, and dispositional states, and responder's tendencies to respond in a lenient, moderate, or extreme way making it biased for the predictor-criterion relationship.

This study following these guidelines, obtained the responses from two sources to reduce common method bias. The responses for the dependent construct of job performance were obtained from supervisors, instead of same employees who were responding for other independent and dependent constructs. Moreover, to reduce the social desirability issues and to obtain responses that reflect respondent's true feelings, complete confidentiality was also ensured and responses were collected from drop boxes instead of personal collection from respondents. On the covering page respondents were asked to answer honestly as there were no right or wrong answers. Various studies have used the same remedy to address the issue of common method bias, for example Abbas et al. (2014), measured the employees' job performance through their supervisors to address the issue of common method bias. Colquitt et al., (2012), while examining the justice-job performance relation also used the participants' supervisor's performance rating aiming to deal with same source bias issue. Another recent study used supervisors rated job

performance measure to address the issue of common method bias (Hoobler & Hu, 2013). Zapata-Phelan et al., (2009) also used supervisory rated job performance measures in their study to deal with the issue of common method bias. These examples from literature support the choice of this study to measure employees' job performance from supervisors to reduce potential same source bias.

4.21 Chapter Summary:

This chapter discussed the research methodology and explained various research philosophies. Various research designs and data collection methods were also explained. The adopted research philosophy, research design, and data collection method for this study were also justified. The measurement scales used in this research were elaborated and rationalized. The validity and reliability of scales were also discussed. Pilot testing procedure and feedback was also part of this chapter. The sampling strategy employed in this study was also clarified. Moreover, respondents' selection criterion is explained and data collection method was also discussed.

CHAPTER- FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction:

This chapter analyses the results of the survey. The chapter discusses data cleaning process i.e., checking for errors, preliminary analysis to deal with issues like missing values, outliers, and normality of data. The demographic profile of respondents is also discussed along with performing non-response test. Exploratory factor analysis is also performed. The chapter, then gives the rationale for choosing PLS-SEM instead of CB-SEM. The chapter also covers mediation and moderation results. Finally, results are interpreted in the light of proposed hypotheses.

5.2 Data Cleaning Process and preliminary analysis:

Data cleaning process involves checking the data for errors before analyzing it (Pallant, 2011). One of the necessary initial steps in any multivariate data analysis is data examination (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Examination of data involves checking for errors, missing values, detection of outliers, and normality tests (Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Hair et al., (2014) mention that the typical issues involved after collection of data are missing values and normality of data, which should be addressed. This study following the guidelines from Pallant (2007), performs following steps for data cleaning.

5.2.1 Checking for errors:

According to Pallant (2007), the first step towards data cleaning is to check for values that fall outside the range of possible values for a variable. The values which fall outside the possible range of values can distort the statistical analysis, so it is important to

correct these values before data analysis. All individual items for all scales (both categorical and continuous) were checked using SPSS statistical package version 22. Overall five values were found outside the possible range of values for the variables. Upon comparing the values with the actual questionnaires responses, it was found that the entries were typographical errors during typing. These values were corrected according to survey responses as recommended by (Pallant, 2007).

5.2.2 Treating missing values:

The collected data was also checked for missing values. All measures in this study were found to have random missing values. Altogether there were eight missing values for four items of two variables. It is, however, important that while treating data for missing values, it should be kept close to the original distribution pattern of values (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al., (2014), recommends that if missing values per indicator are less than 5%, then mean value replacement method should be used as a tool to handle missing values issue instead of case wise deletion when running PLS-SEM. Since the missing values for each variable were less than 5%, the missing values were treated by replacing them with the mean of valid values of that variable for the purpose of multivariate analysis. Hair et al., (2014) argues that although alternatively, researchers can opt to delete all the missing values, but, it decreases variation in the data and may introduce biases when certain groups of observations have been deleted systematically.

5.2.3 Outliers Test:

An outlier “is a case with such an extreme value on one variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that it distorts statistics” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 72). There can be many reasons for the

presence of outliers in the data (Hair et al., 2010). First, it may result due to an incorrect entry during data entry. These extreme values need to be checked and corrected during data cleaning process. Second, it may happen due to a programming error i.e., this could happen during recording or transforming a variable or not identifying the missing values correctly. Such outliers can be treated during debugging process. Third, it could be due to a valid but extraordinary response. Such outliers need to be handled according to research objectives. Outliers can be identified by using statistical and graphical methods.

Univariate outliers are those cases that have large standardised scores i.e. > 3.29 , and can be detected using Z-scores method (Tinsley & Brown, 2000). Multivariate outliers can be identified using Mahalanobis Distance method (DeSimone et al., 2015; Tinsley & Brown, 2000). It is a multivariate version of outlier analysis that compares a respondent's scores to the sample mean scores across all items within a survey. Specifically, the Mahalanobis D is an estimate of the multivariate distance between a respondent's scores on survey items and the sample mean scores on survey items (DeSimone et al., 2015; Tinsley & Brown, 2000). Respondents selecting responses identical to the sample mean response values will have a Mahalanobis D value equal to zero, while high values of D indicate more extreme deviation from the sample means across the survey items.

This study used z-scores to identify univariate outliers and Mahalanobis distance method to detect multivariate outliers. The results of z-scores showed that only two items of workplace deviance scale were showing higher z score values than 3.29 (3.73 & 3.62). (Appendix-D). Whereas another item for workplace deviance was showing the z score value of 3.29. The actual values of these items were accordingly checked and all these values were Likert response 5 which were appearing as univariate outlier in z-scores.

These values were not deleted as they did not appear to be unrepresentative of the population (Hair et al., 2010). The results of Mahalanobis distance test revealed three mild and two extreme outliers (Appendix-D). According to Pallant (2007) in order to ascertain that how much problem these outliers cases can be, the 5 % trimmed mean value in the descriptives to be compared with the mean values. If the trimmed mean and mean values are very different then these data points may require further investigation, but if these values are not very different, then these cases can be retained in the data file. The results of Mahalanobis distance test show that the 5 % trimmed mean and mean values almost similar. Thus, further investigation for these data points is not required and these data points were retained in the data file. Hair et al., (1998), suggests retaining the outliers if they represent a segment of the population. Thus, following the guidelines of Pallant (2007) and Hair et al., (1998), the outliers were retained.

Mahalanobis D Test	Outlier cases
Mild Outliers	181, 179, 1
Extreme Outliers	34, 214

Table 5.1 - Identification of outliers using boxplots

5.2.4 Assessing normality of data:

Saunders et al., (2009) argues that checking the normal distribution of data is an important step before statistical tests. Characterizing the distribution shape of a variable helps to understand its nature (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). A normally distributed data is equally distributed on each side of the highest frequency and can be termed as symmetrical distribution. In this symmetrical distribution the data can be plotted as a bell-shaped curve (Saunders et al., 2009). Checking the normal distribution of data is

an important pre-condition in regression analysis and some other multivariate data analysis techniques. It is, however, suggested that in case of violation of equal distribution assumption, an alternative strategy can be employed (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009). Hair et al., (2014) has suggested examining the normality of data by using two measures of distribution-Skewness and Kurtosis. Skewness assesses the extent of symmetrical distribution of a variable's data. If the distribution of responses for a variable stretches toward the right or left tail of the distribution, then it can be characterized as skewed (Hair et al., 2014). Kurtosis is a measure of the distribution of responses whether distribution is having a very narrow distribution with most of the responses in the center. In case of skewness, a number greater than +1 or lower than -1 is an indication of a substantially skewed distribution. In case of kurtosis, if the number is greater than +1, the distribution is too peaked and a kurtosis of less than -1 indicates a distribution that is too flat (Hair et al., 2014).

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are also used to assess whether distribution of scores significantly differs from a normal distribution. According to Pallant (2007), Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are used to assess the normality of distribution of scores. Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are designed to test normality by comparing the data to a normal distribution with the same mean and standard deviation as in the sample (Pallant, 2007). A non-significant result (Sig. value of more than .05) is an indication of normality.

This study assessed normality of data by using Kolmogorov-Smirnov & Shapiro-Wilk tests using SPSS, kurtosis and skewness tests, and by looking at the histogram. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests are showing significant results

(Sig. value is 0.000) for all values. The results show a violation of normal distribution criteria. The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests using SPSS are showing in appendix E. The results for skewness show that the negative values of skewness ranged from -.057 to -.828 and positive values ranged from .049 to 1.065. With respect to kurtosis, it was found that the negative values ranged from -.635 to -1.404 and positive values ranged from 0.050 to 1.558. Results show skewness in procedural injustice (1.065). Regarding kurtosis, results show that distributive injustice, job performance, procedural injustice, interactional injustice, and self-efficacy are showing values which fall outside the normal distribution limits of kurtosis. The results of Skewness & Kurtosis are given in appendix E.

Tabachnick & Fidell (2007), recommends use of histogram also for inspecting the shape of distribution. The results of histogram show data distribution of distributive injustice, job performance, Procedural injustice, interactional injustice, workplace deviance, jealousy and self-efficacy are violating the normality distribution pattern. The data for intention to quit is showing a data which is close to normal distribution. (Appendix E). Overall Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, histogram and kurtosis show that data is violating the normal distribution limits. So, it concludes that data is not normally distributed.

5.3 Demographic Profile of Respondents:

This section reports the demographic profile of respondents to analyse individual attributes of the respondents. Descriptive statistics is performed to analyse individual attributes of the respondents. The results revealed interesting insight about the

respondent's demographic characteristics. The detailed information is appended in below table.

Demographics of respondents	Coding	Usable responses	Response rate%	Minimum-Maximum
Gender				
	Male	295	76%	1 (Male) – 2 (Female)
	Female	93	24%	
Age (in years)				
	18-24	12	3.1%	1 – 5
	25-31	154	39.7%	
	32-38	134	34.5%	
	39-45	60	15.5%	
	46 & above	28	7.2%	
Job Nature				
	Field work	40	10.3%	1 – 5
	Office work	227	58.5%	
	Technical	30	7.7%	
	Staff	34	8.8%	
	Managerial	57	14.7%	
Experience with current Organization (in years)				
	Less than 1	24	6.2%	1 – 5
	1-5	80	20.6%	
	6-10	179	46.1%	
	11-15	74	19.1%	
	16 & above	31	8%	
Income				
	Below 25000	48	12.4%	1 – 4
	25000-40000	152	39.2%	
	40000-50000	67	17.3%	
	50000 & above	121	31.2%	
Education				
	SSC	0		2 – 5
	HSSC	12	3.1%	
	Bachelors'	136	35.1%	
	Masters'	221	57%	
	PhD	19	4.9%	

Table 5.2 Profile of survey respondents:

The table describes the profile of the survey respondents and provides the information about the respondents' individual demographic characteristics in detail. The first column represents the demographic characteristics, followed by its coding in groups to use that information in a meaningful way. The number of final usable responses and its

percentage is then provided. And the last column represents the minimum and maximum values as discussed in the initial screening phase.

5.3.1 Demographic Analysis of the Respondents:

There were six demographics variables included to get information of the demographic characteristics of respondents. These include gender, age, job nature, tenure with current organization, income level and qualification of the respondents. Frequency information for each variable is provided below:

5.3.1.1 Gender:

The data was collected from 388 employees from the banking sector organization. Out of these, 295 (76%) were male employees and remaining 93 (24%) were the female employees. The results show greater participation of males in organizations as compared to females. However, these results indicate an encouraging trend of increased female participation in Pakistani organizations. Previous research by Abbas et al., (2014) reported just 6 percent female participants.

5.3.1.2 Age:

The range value of the respondent's age was divided into five categories to collect information about the respondents' age. The above-mentioned table demonstrated that around 40% of the respondents were from age-category of 25-31 years old and about 35% of the respondents' lies from the age-category of 32-38 years old. The findings highlighted a relatively young work force in the banking sector organization. The remaining employees are from remaining age-categories such that around 3% are from 18-24 years, 15.5% are from 39-45 years, and remaining 7.2% are from 46 & above category of age.

5.3.1.3 Job Nature:

The respondents were also asked to provide information about their job nature. The results illustrate that around 10% employees are from field work which refers to those employees who have to visit the markets to attract the new customer. The majority of the respondents is from the operations department, comprising of almost 59% of the responses and are categorized as office workers. Around 8% respondents are from technical departments such as I.T infrastructure, 9% are from the remaining staff working as supporting officers, and remaining 14.7% are from managerial positions.

5.3.1.4 Experience with current organization:

Similar method was adopted to get the information about the tenure of the respondent with current organization. The findings revealed that around 46% employees are with the current organization from 6-10 years. The employees of National bank stayed with the bank for longer duration. The results illustrate that collectively around 73% of the respondents are working with the current organization for 6 to 18 years, which shows the tendency of employees to stay longer with this organization.

5.3.1.5 Income:

The level of income was also categorized to get approximate information about income. Such information can be better assessed through such categories as employees might be reluctant to provide with the exact information about their income. The findings revealed that around 40% employees are earning between twenty-five thousand to forty thousand rupees. The results for income also indicate that almost 88% of the respondents are having income of more than twenty-five thousand rupees.

5.3.1.6 Level of Education:

The frequency distribution and percentages of the level of qualification is also described in the table above. It is important to note that almost 97% of the total respondents are having Bachelor's degree and above. It shows that banking organizations are now hiring more educated work force. Specifically, 57% are having Masters' degree which indicates an encouraging trend of hiring educated work force.

5.4 Factor analysis:

Exploratory factor analysis is often used to explore the interrelationships among a set of variables (Pallant, 2011). Factor analysis “attempts to produce a smaller number of linear combinations of the original variables in a way that captures (or accounts for most of the variability in the pattern of correlations (Pallant, 2011, p. 179). In factor analysis factors are estimated using a mathematical model, whereby only the shared variance is analysed (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Even though the items were not shown to be normally distributed, EFA was run using SPSS to understand the dimensionality of the constructs using SPSS. After the initial analysis, items which were loaded less than .4 were eliminated as recommended approach (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). After eliminating those items, the results authenticate the eight constructs which were used in the study, and accounted for 73.1% of the total variance explained in the data. The varimax rotation matrix was used to extract the components. The results revealed significant results for KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Scales are also showing internal reliability having Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.788 to 0.936 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The results of factor analysis are shown in (appendix F). The eight constructs obtained from factor composition are: distributive injustice (DJ),

procedural injustice (PJ), interactional injustice (IJ), turnover intentions (TI), workplace deviance (WD), jealousy (Jealousy), self-efficacy (SE), and job performance (JP) consist of six constructs:

Following items were deleted after factor analysis

	Jealousy
Jealousy -Q2 (Deleted)	I would not feel angry with my manager or with the person he/she was with
Jealousy -Q5 (Deleted)	I sometimes worry that my manager will feel that another employee is more competent than I.
	Job Performance
JP3-Q5 (Deleted)	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation
JP4-Q6(Del)	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform
JP5-Q7 (Deleted)	Fails to perform essential duties
	Workplace Deviance (How many times in the last year you...)
WD-Q7 (Deleted)	Intentionally arrived late for work
WD-Q10 (Deleted)	Made unauthorized use of organizational property
WD-Q12 (Deleted)	Lied about the number of hours worked
WD-Q13 (Deleted)	Worked on a personal matter on the job instead of working for employer.
WD-Q14 (Deleted)	purposely ignored supervisor's instructions.

Table 5.3: showing deleted items after EFA

5.5 Non-response bias test and sample representativeness:

Non-response bias is concerned with determining whether the “persons who respond differ substantially from those who do not” (Armstrong & Overton, 1977, p. 396). Non-respondents can alter the sample frame and therefore need to be addressed (Forza, 2002). Armstrong & Overton (1977) suggests that non-response bias test is important because it gives more confidence to generalize the sample to the population from which it is drawn. Three main methods are used to estimate non-response bias i.e., comparison with known values for a population, subjective estimates and extrapolation methods (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Extrapolation is a commonly used method to estimate non-response bias which assumes that persons who respond late are like non-respondents and can be compared with early respondents using an independent t-test to assess whether there is significant difference between both groups (Armstrong & Overton, 1977). Independent t-test is a statistical test which is used to compare two groups whether both groups are statistically different (Akamavi, Mohamed, Pellmann, & Xu, 2015).

As explained in the previous section the responses were collected through drop boxes kept in participating branches. The researcher made regular trips to the participating branches to collect the responses that were deposited in the drop boxes. Roughly the researcher had visited a branch three times during the data collection phase to retrieve the responses (in certain branches it was more than three). There was a difference of more than a month between the first visit of the researcher to the branch to collect the responses and the last visit to collect the responses from the drop box. In each of the visits the respondents were informally reminded of the survey. In the last visit the drop box itself was removed from the branches. Hence it is possible to visualize that responses collected

during the first visit as the first wave of responses and the responses collected from the last visit as late respondents.

Following extrapolation method (Armstrong & Overton, 1977), 40 late responses from late respondents, who were representing non-responders, were compared with 40 responses from early respondents by using independent t-test. If the value in the Sig. (2-tailed) column value is above than .05, there is no significant difference between the two groups (Pallant, 2007). The results of independent t test using SPSS show that all the values in the Sig. (2-tailed) column is above the cut-off value of .05, hence, it can be concluded that no statistically significant differences were found in two groups at 95% in the mean scores for both groups (appendix G). Regarding sample representativeness, respondent bank keeps details of demographic profiles of their employees in confidence, and was unwilling to formally share with the researcher. However, when contacted a senior manager from human resource department, agreed that sample profile of our study matches with the profile of the employees of the bank.

5.6 Structural equation modeling:

This study used structural equation modelling (SEM) as a statistical tool for analysing the research model of this study. Structural equation modelling (SEM) is considered a powerful second-generation multivariate data analysis technique to analyse constructs which are measured indirectly by indicators, such as latent constructs (Hair et al., 2014). SEM is a comprehensive statistical technique that allows to assess the properties of measures and theoretical (structural) relationship, and facilitation of accounting for measurement properties and theoretical variables (Chin, 1998; Hoyle, 1995; Maruyama, 1997). It provides a suitable technique to deal with multiple relationships and ability to test

a series of relationships constituting a large-scale model (Hair et al., 1998). SEM is considered as one of the most rigorous and flexible technique for research design and analysis of data as compared to multiple regression, discriminant analysis or exploratory factor analysis (Chin, 1998; Hoyle, 1995). Thus, it is “a multivariate technique combining elements of factor analysis and multiple regressions to simultaneously examine a series of interrelated dependence relationships among the measured variables and latent constructs as well as between several latent constructs” (Hair et al., 2010: 609).

Structural equation modeling has increasingly been used in a number of disciplines, including psychology, education, sociology, marketing, management, health, demography, organizational behaviour, biology, and even genetics (Hair et al., 1998). Latent constructs are unobservable, and are measured by indicators. SEM model can be used to simultaneously examine a series of dependence relationships and is especially helpful when one dependent variable becomes an independent variable in a subsequent dependence relationship (Hair et al., 2014). In this research model, the mediating variable of jealousy acts both as a dependent and independent variable. Jealousy is dependent on perceived injustice and then also acts as an independent variable in subsequent relationship with job outcomes of workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

There are two popular approaches to estimate the relationships in SEM-based techniques (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010; Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011), i.e., covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM) which is a confirmatory approach focusing on the model's theoretically established relationships which aims at minimizing the difference between the model implied covariance matrix and the sample covariance matrix (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2012). The other approach is partial least square based SEM

(PLS-SEM), which is used in this research. This study seeks to use PLS-SEM approach based on rationale which is explained in next section.

5.7 Rational for use of PLS-SEM instead of CB-SEM:

PLS-SEM deemed to be more suitable technique for this study due to various reasons. First, the results of normality tests i.e., Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, kurtosis, and histograms, show that the data for this study is violating the normal distribution pattern. Therefore, this study seeks to use PLS-SEM which is a preferred method if data is violating the normal distribution pattern. Hair et al. (2014) suggests the use of PLS-SEM, instead of CB-SEM if data is not normally distributed. “While PLS-SEM is similar to traditional covariance-based, maximum likelihood structural equation modeling (CB-SEM), in the sense that the measurement and structural models are analyzed simultaneously, PLS relies on ordinary least squares estimation (implemented iteratively via the PLS-SEM algorithm) to solve the models, thereby relaxing the assumption of multivariate normality underlying CB-SEM” (Hult, Morgeson, Morgan, Mithas, & Fornell, 2017). Although the results for PLS-SEM & CB-SEM do not differ much, PLS-SEM is the preferred method when the data is not normally distributed (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Ringle, Sarstedt, & Straub, 2012).

Second, PLS-SEM is also preferable over alternative (CB-SEM) methods if the focus of researcher is on optimized the prediction of dependent variables, as is the case in this study. While CB-SEM focuses to maximize overall model fit and inter-item covariance among a matrix of observed variables, conversely, PLS-SEM focuses on maximizing the relationship between specified latent variable predictor and response

variables (Chin, 1998). Thus, the scores capture the variance which is most useful to predict the endogenous latent variables (Hair et. al., 2014).

Third, PLS-SEM is a method with greater statistical power than CB-SEM i.e., it is more likely to find a specific relationship significant when it is in fact significant in the population (De la Torre-Ruiz, Vidal-Salazar, & Córdón-Pozo, 2017; Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2016). Thus, it is argued that in case of large sample size as in this study, PLS-SEM, “increase the precision (i.e. consistency) of PLS estimation, and make similar the solutions offered by PLS-SEM and CB-SEM” (De la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2017) (p.13)

Fourth, research also suggests that PLS-SEM is robust against inadequacies such as multicollinearity and skewness (Cassel, Hackl, & Westlund, 1999). Due to these obvious advantages of PLS-SEM over CB-SEM, it has been variously used by scholars (De la Torre-Ruiz et al., 2017; Hult et al., 2017; Lin, Chen, & Filieri, 2017). This study, therefore, in the light of above arguments seeks to use PLS-SEM instead of CB-SEM for data analysis.

5.8 PLS-SEM:

According to Hair et al., (2014), PLS-SEM estimation procedure is an ordinary least squares (OLS) regression-based method rather than the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation procedure for CB-SEM. PLS-SEM works by using available data for estimation of model's path relationships with the aim to minimize the error terms (i.e., the residual variance) of the endogenous constructs. In other words, PLS-SEM estimates coefficients (i.e., path model relationships) that maximize the R^2 values of the (target) endogenous constructs. This feature of PLS-SEM achieves its prediction objective. Therefore, PLS-SEM is a preferred method when the research objective is to explain variance (prediction

of the constructs). PLS-SEM, thus, is a prediction oriented variance-based approach that focuses on endogenous target constructs in the model and aims at maximizing their explained variance (Hair et al., 2012; Hair, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Mena, 2012). PLS-SEM is particularly appealing when the research objective focuses on prediction and explaining the variance of key target constructs (endogenous constructs) by explanatory constructs (exogenous constructs). Latent variables are the (unobserved) theoretical or conceptual elements in the structural model (Hair Jr, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2014). A latent variable that only explains other latent variables (only outgoing relationships in the structural model) is called exogenous, while latent variables with at least one incoming relationship in the structural model are called endogenous (Hair Jr et al., 2014). Path coefficients are the relationships between the latent variables in the structural model.

Several review studies documents increasing use of PLS-SEM across a variety of disciplines (Hair et al., 2012). Moreover one of the leading journals in the strategic management field i.e., Long Range Planning, devoted three special issues for PLS-SEM method (Robins, 2014), showing the increasing importance of use of PLS-SEM. It is, thus becoming increasingly popular as a methodological approach in business research (Sarstedt, Ringle, Henseler, & Hair, 2014).

PLS-SEM works by estimating the weights and loadings for creating scores for latent variable, relationships between latent variables and their manifest or associated observed variables, and regression coefficients for the indicators and latent variables (Chin & Newsted, 1999). Outer loadings are the results of the single regression of a construct on its set of indicators. CB-SEM analysis also uses a similar "goodness of fit statistics" approach (Hair et al., 2014). This deficiency, however, is addressed by employing a

blindfolding method that generates 't' statistics for each effect path (Hair et al., 2014). PLS-SEM works efficiently with small sample sizes and complex models i.e., many constructs and many indicators are involved (Hair et al., 2014). In addition, PLS-SEM can easily handle reflective and formative measurement models (Hair et al., 2014).

This study uses Smart-PLS software (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015) for the purpose of data analysis through PLS-SEM. A well-reputed book "A primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation modeling (PLS-SEM)" by Hair et al., (2014) was used for support regarding use of Smart-PLS software, data analysis and interpretation of results. Smart-PLS, following estimation of the model, provides three key results in the modelling window. These include (1) the outer loadings for the measurement models, if only reflectively measured constructs are included in the model. Outer loadings include the relationships between the measured indicator variables of the reflective construct; (2) the path coefficients of the relationships between the constructs are provided for the structural model; and (3) the R^2 values of each endogenous latent variable in the structural model. The R^2 values are normal between 0 and +1 and represent the amount of explained variance in the construct. For example, an R^2 value of 0.70 for a construct in the structural model means that 70% of the construct's variance is explained by the endogenous latent variables. The goal of PLS-SEM algorithm is to maximize the R^2 values of the endogenous latent variables and thereby their prediction. On the basis of the estimated path coefficients and their significance, the researcher can determine whether the conceptual model and hypotheses are substantiated empirically.

Hair et al., (2014) explained that PLS-SEM analysis comprises of two stages: measurement model and structural model. Measurement model is used to establish latent

variables by certain indicator variables. Measurement models are also called outer models in PLS-SEM. A reflective measurement model has relationships from the latent variable to its indicators. In contrast, formative measurement model has relationships from the indicators to the latent variables. Indicators are available data (e.g., responses to survey questions) that are used in measurement model to measure latent variables. Structural model represents the theoretical or conceptual element of the path model. The structural model (also called inner model in PLS-SEM), includes the latent variables and their path relationships (Hair et al., 2014). Model estimation "enables empirical measures of the relationships between the indicators and the constructs (measurement models), as well as between the constructs (structural model)" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 96). The model estimation determines that how well the theory fits the data and involves assessment of the measurement models and the structural models (Hair et. al, 2014). The measurement and structural models are explained in table 4.1 below.

Stage 1: Evaluation of the Measurement Models	
Stage 1a:- Reflective Measurement Model	Stage 1b:- Formative Measurement Model
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal consistency (composite reliability) • Indicator reliability (factor loading) • Convergent validity (average variance extracted) • Discriminant validity (cross loading, Fronell Larcker, HTMT). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Convergent validity (average variance extracted) • Collinearity among indicators (VIF) • Significance and relevance of outer weights
Stage 2: Evaluation of the Structural Models	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coefficients of determination (R^2) • Predictive relevance (Q^2) • Size and significance of path coefficient 	

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• f^2effect sizes• q^2effect sizes |
|---|

Table 5.4:- Systematic Evaluation of PLS-SEM Results, adopted from Hair et al., (2014)

5.8.1 Measurement Model Analysis:

A PLS path modeling application software; SmartPLS3.2 was used to build and test the path model. After properly building the model in the Smart PLS software, estimation of the model was made by running a PLS-SEM algorithm. "The PLS-SEM algorithm stops when the maximum number of 300 iterations or the stop criterion of $1.0E-5$ (i.e., 0.00001) has been reached" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 84). Examination of measurement models enables researcher to evaluate the reliability and validity of the construct measures. However, Hair et al. (2014) argues that while "evaluating the measurement models, researcher should distinguish between reflectively and formatively measured constructs" (p. 98).

5.8.2 Reflective Measurement Model:

It has arrows (relationships) pointing from the construct to the observed indicators. If the construct changes, it leads to a simultaneous change of all items in the measurement model. Thus, all indicators are highly correlated (Hair et al., 2014). In reflective measurement model the causality flows "from the construct to its measures (indicators)" (Hair et al., 2014 p. 71). According to Hair et al., (2014) assessment of reflective measurement models includes; (1) assessing internal consistency reliability using composite reliability; (2) assessing convergent validity by evaluating the reliability of individual indicators, and average variance extracted (AVE); and, (3) assessing discriminant validity by using Fornell-Larcker criterion and cross loadings (Hair et al., 2014). The use of each criterion to assess the reflective measurement model is discussed below.

5.8.2.1 Internal Consistency Reliability:

It is a measure which is used to judge that how well the items on the test are able to measure same construct. It analyses whether the items used to measure a construct are similar in their scores. The internal consistency reliability is conventionally evaluated by Cronbach's alpha, which provides an estimate of the reliability based on the inter-correlations of the observed indicator variables (Hair et al., 2014). The normal acceptable threshold for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70 (Vinzi, Trinchera, & Amato, 2010). However, Hair et al., (2014) argues that "Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to the number of items in the scale and generally tends to underestimate the internal consistency reliability, as such it may be used as a conservative measure of internal consistency reliability" (p. 101). Due to Cronbach's alpha's "limitations in the population, it is more appropriate to apply a different measure of internal consistency reliability, which is referred to as composite reliability" (Hair et al, 2014, p. 101). Chin (1998) also explained that using composite reliability is more appropriate than Cronbach's alpha because in the former, there is a parallelity. Whereas in parallelity it is assumed that all the variables manifesting the construct are equally important in defining that construct. However, in the latter this assumption is not made and the importance of each manifest variable to define the construct is based on the model and their loading. Chin (1998) also suggested that Cronbach's alpha creates lower estimates of reliability. Therefore, in this study both estimates are used to make sure that the results comply with the composite reliability as well as internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha). Composite reliability is generally interpreted in the same way as Cronbach's alpha and a value of above 0.70 is acceptable (Hair et al., 2014). The table below shows the reliability measures for the constructs of this study.

Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
Distributive Injustice	0.934	0.953
Turnover intentions	0.788	0.876
Interactional injustice	0.936	0.947
Jealousy	0.856	0.912
Job Performance	0.921	0.944
Procedural Injustice	0.916	0.933
Self-efficacy	0.869	0.901
Workplace Deviance	0.887	0.906

Table 5.5: Showing internal consistency reliability

As shown in the table all the measures have the Cronbach's alpha values larger than the recommended value of 0.70 (Vinzi et al., 2010), likewise all composite reliability values are well above the recommended value of 0.7 (Hair et al., 2014), indicating high levels of internal consistency reliability.

5.8.3 Validity:

After examining data in terms of their reliability, the validity of the scales should also be analysed. Hair et al., (2014) suggest establishing convergent and discriminant validity.

5.8.3.1 Convergent validity:

Convergent validity refers to the extent the measure positively correlates with other measures of the same construct (Hair et al., 2014). They explained that the items that measure similar constructs, should highly correlate with each other and should share a high proportion of variance. Hair et al., (2014) suggest using average variance extracted (AVE) and "outer loadings of the indicators, to establish convergent validity" (p. 102).

Average variance extracted (AVE), has been explained as the extent to which a latent construct explains the variance of its indicators (Hair et al., 2014). An AVE value of

0.50 or higher has been recommended, which implies that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators (Hair et al., 2014). Regarding outer loadings, higher "outer loadings on a construct indicate that the associated indicators have much in common, which is captured by the construct" Hair et al., 2014, p. 102). A value of 0.7 or higher has been recommended for standardized outer loadings (Hair et al., 2014). Hulland (1999), however argues that in social sciences, the weaker outer loadings can be expected. Hair et al., (2014) suggests elimination of those indicators from scale which have very low outer loadings below 0.40, however the indicators between the values of 0.40 to 0.70 can be retained on the basis of their contribution to content validity.

The results for the AVE values are given in the table 5.6 below, showing the AVE values for all constructs above the threshold value of 0.5 which establish the convergent validity. Regarding outer loadings, the algorithm for this study revealed the outer loadings ranging from 0.58 to 0.93. A detailed illustration of the finally retained items is given in the table 5.7 below.

Construct	Average Variance Explained (AVE)
Distributive Injustice	0.834
Turnover intentions	0.702
Interactional Injustice	0.664
Jealousy	0.776
Job performance	0.809
Procedural Injustice	0.665
Self-efficacy	0.606
Workplace Deviance	0.522

Table 5.6: Values for average variance extracted (AVE)

	Scale Items	Outer loadings
	Distributive Injustice	
DJ-Q1	These outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work.	0.928
DJ-Q2	These outcomes are appropriate for the work I do.	0.920
DJ-Q3	These outcomes reflect what I have contributed to the organization	0.930
DJ-Q4	These outcomes are justified, given my performance.	0.875
	Procedural Injustice	
PJ-Q1	I have expressed my views and feelings during those procedures	0.710
PJ-Q2	I had the influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures.	0.788
PJ-Q3	Those procedures have been applied consistently.	0.840
PJ-Q4	Those procedures have been free of bias.	0.861
PJ-Q5	Those procedures have been based on accurate information.	0.850
PJ-Q6	I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures.	0.844
PJ-Q7	Those procedures confirm ethical and moral standards.	0.808
	Interactional Injustice	
IJ-Q1	My manager treats me in a polite manner.	0.816
IJ-Q2	My manager treats me with dignity.	0.811
IJ-Q3	My manager treats me with respect.	0.861
IJ-Q4	My manager refrains from improper remarks or comments	0.797
IJ-Q5	My manager has been candid/frank in his/her communications with me	0.781
IJ-Q6	My manager explains the procedures thoroughly.	0.847
IJ-Q7	My manager's explanations regarding the procedures are reasonable	0.870
IJ-Q8	My manager communicates details in a timely manner.	0.808
IJ-Q9	My manager seems to tailor his/her communications to individuals' specific needs	0.735
	Jealousy	
Jealousy -Q1	I would feel rejected by my manager	0.863
Jealousy -Q3	I would feel depressed when my manager speaks favourably about another employee	0.888
Jealousy -Q4	I would be resentful if my manager asked one of my co-workers for help with a problem	0.892
	Job Performance	
JP1-Q1	Adequately completes assigned duties.	0.901
JP2-Q2	Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description.	0.923
JP3-Q3	Performs task that are expected of him/her	0.913
JP3-Q4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	0.859
	Workplace Deviance (How many times in the last year you...)	
WD-Q1	made an ethnic, racial or religious slur against a co-worker	0.581
WD-Q2	swore at a co-worker	0.674
WD-Q3	refused to talk to a co-worker	0.607

WD-Q4	gossiped about your supervisor.	0.779
WD-Q5	made an obscene comment or gesture at co-worker	0.664
WD-Q6	teased a coworker in front of other employees	0.598
WD-Q8	called in sick when not really ill	0.827
WD-Q9	took underserved breaks to avoid work	0.859
WD-Q11	left work early without permission	0.841
	Turnover Intention	
Turn INT-Q1	I often think about quitting this job.	0.746
Turn INT -Q2	Next year I will probably look for a new job outside this organization.	0.892
Turn INT -Q3	Lately, I have taken interest in job offers in the newspaper.	0.869
	Self-Efficacy	
SE-Q1	I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution	0.681
SE-Q2	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management	0.828
SE-Q3	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy	0.904
SE-Q4	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area	0.613
SE-Q5	I feel confident contacting people outside the organization (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	0.796
SE-Q6	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	0.812

Table 5.7 : Scales items and outer loadings.

5.8.3.2 Discriminant validity of the reflective constructs:

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs by empirical standards (Hair et al., 2014). Establishing discriminant validity implies the uniqueness of a construct and capturing phenomenon not represented by other constructs in the model (Hair et al., 2014). Hair et al., (2014) suggests that discriminant validity can be assessed by using three different criteria in the Smart-PLS software.

The Fornell-Larcker criterion is a more conservative approach to establish discriminant validity. In this approach the square root of the Average Variance Extracted

(AVE) values are compared with the correlations of latent variables. The square root of each construct's AVE should be greater than its highest correlation with any other construct (Hair et al., 2014). The logic behind this method is based on the idea that a construct shares more variance with its associated indicators than with any other construct (Hair et al., 2014). The table 5.8 below is showing greater values of the square roots of the AVE on the diagonal than the inter-construct correlations on the off-diagonal.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Jealousy	0.881							
Job performance	-0.675	0.900						
Procedural injustice	-0.535	0.589	0.816					
Distributive injustice	-0.514	0.507	0.669	0.914				
Turnover intention	0.541	-0.454	-0.365	-0.376	0.838			
interactional-injustice	-0.740	0.666	0.628	0.538	-0.535	0.815		
self-efficacy	-0.479	0.602	0.407	0.349	-0.452	0.546	0.778	
Workplace deviance	0.642	-0.576	-0.483	-0.517	0.512	-0.612	-0.485	0.722

Table 5.8: **The fornell-Larcker criterion:**

Another criterion for assessing discriminant validity is to examine the cross loadings of the indicators, which means an indicator's outer loading on the associated construct should be greater than all of its loadings on other constructs (i.e., cross loadings) (Hair et al., 2014). Cross loadings were checked and all indicators were loaded highest on their expected factors (See appendix H).

The third suggested criterion for assessing discriminant validity is a "new heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) criterion that is based on the multitrait-multimethod

matrix, which is the average of the heterotrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators across constructs measuring different phenomena, relative to the average of the montrait-heteromethod correlations (i.e., the correlations of indicators within the same construct)" (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). According to the new HTMT criterion, a correlation value lower than 0.85 has been suggested for establishing discriminant validity (Clark & Watson, 1995; Kline, 2011). However, a threshold value of 0.90 has also been suggested to establish discriminant validity (Teo, Srivastava, & Jiang, 2008).

The HTMT values shown in the table 5.9 are below the threshold value of 0.85, showing that the discriminant validity is established. Following the Fornell-Larker, Cross loadings, and HTMT criteria, the discriminant validity is established.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Jealousy								
Job performance	0.757							
Procedural injustice	0.590	0.637						
Distributive injustice	0.572	0.545	0.717					
Turnover intention	0.649	0.525	0.422	0.433				
Interactional injustice	0.824	0.717	0.667	0.573	0.620			
self-efficacy	0.518	0.629	0.417	0.356	0.522	0.570		
Workplace deviance	0.665	0.570	0.469	0.509	0.580	0.604	0.464	

Table 5.9: HTMT .90 table

Based on above arguments, the measurement model of this study is showing acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

5.9 Structural model evaluation:

Structural model represents the theoretical or conceptual element of the path model which includes the latent variables and their path relationships (Hair et al., 2014). Following the confirmation of reliability and validity of construct measures, the next step involves assessment of structural model results. Structural model results involve examining the model's predictive capabilities and the relationships between the constructs, which shows that how well the empirical data support the theory/concept and therefore to decide if the proposed theory/concept has been empirically confirmed (Hair et al., 2014). Hair et al., (2014), suggests "a five-step procedure" for analysis of structural model,

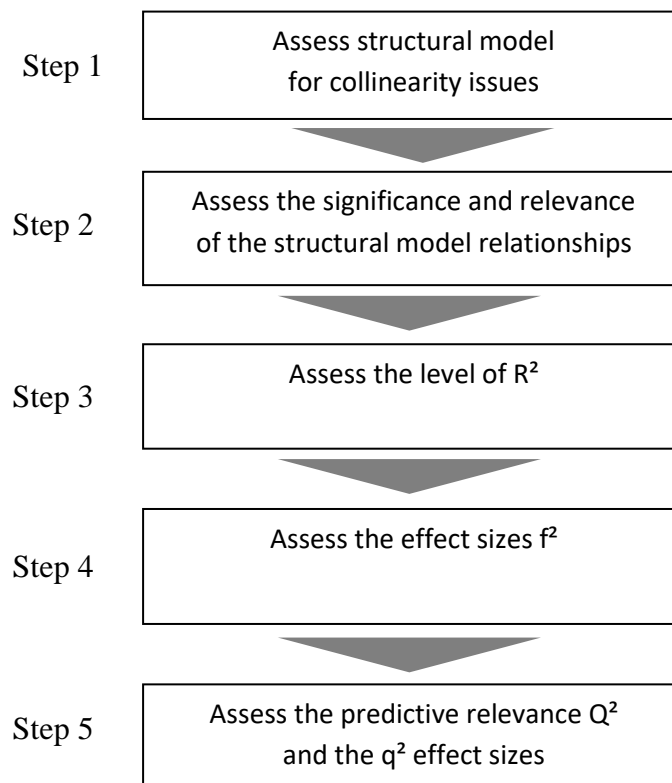


Fig 5.1: Steps involved in analysis of structural model- adopted from Hair et al (2014) (p.169).

To start with the process as suggested by Hair et al., (2014), PLS algorithm was first run for an estimation of the indicators loadings, the path coefficient, R^2 and f^2 values. Following this "a complete bootstrapping procedure with 1000 re-samples" was used to evaluate the strength of the structural model (Chin, 1998). The predictive relevance of the models (Q^2) was estimated by executing blind folding test using Smart-PLS 3.2 software. The results are discussed below.

5.9.1 Collinearity:

Hair et al., (2014) suggested to first examine the structural model for any collinearity issues. The purpose is to check for significant levels of collinearity among predictor constructs which may result when two constructs in the structural model are highly correlated and which can cause a biasness in the path coefficient. Hair et al., (2014) explain that the "estimation of path coefficients in the structural models is based on OLS regressions of each endogenous latent variable on its corresponding predecessor constructs. Just as in a regular multiple regression, the path coefficients might be biased if the estimation involves significant levels of collinearity among the predictor constructs" (p. 168).

Assessing collinearity involves separate examination of each set of predictor constructs for each subpart of the structural model and VIF values should be less than 5 as recommended by Hair et al., (2014). The VIF estimation of the structural model suggests that all VIF values are below the value of 5 (table 5.10 below). Thus, no collinearity is found in the structural model.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Jealousy		1.297			1.297			1.297
Job performance								
Procedural injustice	2.212							
Distributive injustice	1.887							
Turnover intention								
Interactional injustice	1.723							
self-efficacy		1.297			1.297			1.297
Workplace deviance								

Table 5.10: VIF estimation to check collinearity of the structural model

Multicollinearity was also checked through Durbin-Watson test using SPSS. Pallant (2007), suggests that very small tolerance value (less than .10), indicates that the multiple correlation with other variables is high, suggesting the possibility of multicollinearity. Likewise, VIF values above 10 indicate multicollinearity. The following table presents the results for tolerance, VIF and Durbin-Watson test, variance inflation factor (VIF) scores and/or tolerance scores, when checked for all independent variables i.e. three types of injustice with turnover intentions.

Predictors	Collinearity Statistics		Durbin-Watson test
	Tolerance	VIF	
Distributive injustice	.561	1.78	
Procedural injustice	.526	1.90	
Interactional injustice	.619	1.61	
Distributive injustice Procedural injustice Interactional injustice			1.605

Table 5.11: Dependent variable = Turnover intentions.

The results of variance inflation factor (VIF) scores and tolerance scores show that multicollinearity is not an issue with this data. Moreover, the Durbin-Watson test also supports this assertion as the value of Durbin-Watson test is within the normal range of 1.5 to 2.5 (table 5.11). Therefore, the findings of VIF scores and Durbin-Watson test confirmed that multicollinearity is not an issue.

5.9.2 Structural model path coefficients:

PLS algorithm was used for calculating the path coefficients and R^2 values. A complete bootstrapping method with 1000 re-samples was used for calculating statistical significance of path coefficients. The t-value estimates for the direct effect path coefficients are shown in the tables 5.12, figure 5.2. The boot strapping process for the direct effect paths suggests that all the paths for direct effect relationships between distributive injustice and all three outcomes of turnover intentions, job performance and workplace are statistically significant. The direct effect paths between interactional injustice and all three outcomes are also significant. The direct path relationship between procedural injustice and outcome of job performance is significant, however the relationships between Procedural injustice > turnover intentions and Procedural injustice > workplace deviance are not statistically significant. The directions of all the significant relationships are also according to hypotheses of the study.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values	
Distributive injustice -> workplace deviance (H1a)	0.268	0.267	0.045	5.942	0.000	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> workplace deviance (H1b)	-0.010	-0.007	0.062	0.165	0.869	Not Significant
Interactive injustice -> workplace deviance (H1c)	0.485	0.487	0.050	9.701	0.000	** Significant
Distributive injustice -> turnover intention (H2a)	0.130	0.129	0.048	2.694	0.007	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> turnover intention (H2b)	-0.016	-0.019	0.069	0.232	0.817	Not Significant
Interactive injustice -> turnover intention (H2c)	0.476	0.483	0.061	7.790	0.000	** Significant
Distributive injustice -> Job Performance (H3a)	-0.115	-0.111	0.054	2.138	0.033	* Significant
Procedural injustice -> Job Performance (H3b)	-0.216	-0.218	0.056	3.848	0.000	** Significant
Interactive justice -> Job Performance (H3c)	-0.468	-0.472	0.051	9.158	0.000	** Significant

Table 5.12: Path coefficient, T value; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

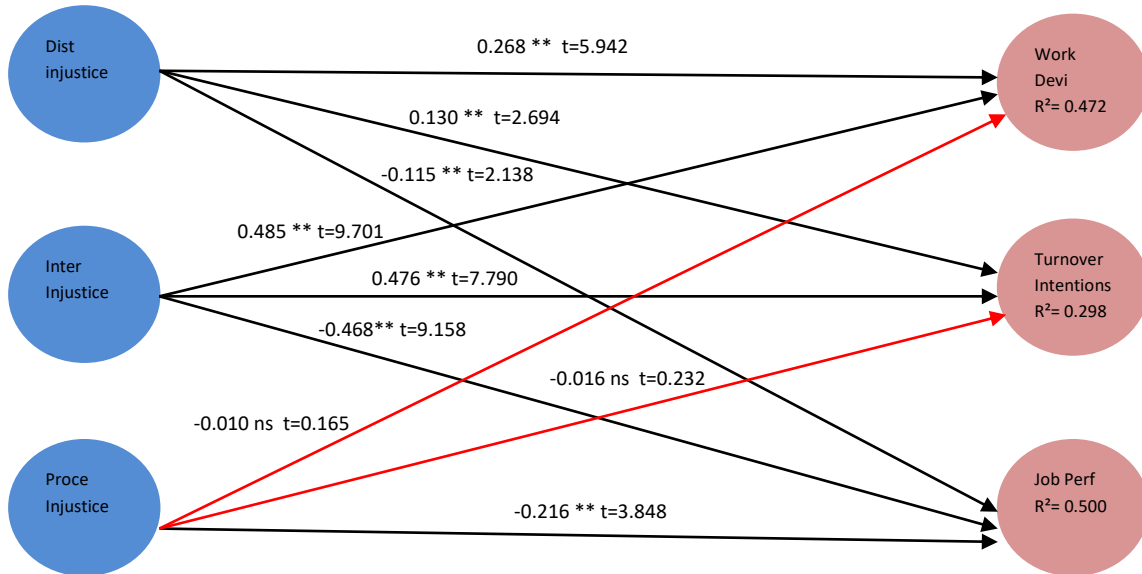


Fig 5.2: Structural model evaluation for direct effect path coefficients.

**= $p < .01$
 *= $p < 0.5$
 ns =not significant
 —→ =significant
 —→ = not significant

The t-value estimates for the indirect effect path coefficients are shown in the tables 5.13, figure 5.4. The boot strapping process for the indirect effect paths suggests that the indirect path relationships between distributive injustice > jealousy, and interactional injustice > jealousy are statistically significant, however the indirect path relationship between procedural injustice > jealousy is statistically not significant. The indirect effect relationships between jealousy and all three outcomes of turnover intentions, job performance and workplace deviance are all statistically significant.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values	
Distributive injustice -> Jealousy (H4a)	0.151	0.150	0.048	3.141	0.002	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> Jealousy (H4b)	0.027	0.029	0.060	0.444	0.657	Not Significant
Interactive justice -> Jealousy (H4c)	0.642	0.643	0.049	13.109	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> workplace deviance (H5)	0.643	0.646	0.031	20.594	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> Turnover intension (H6)	0.540	0.542	0.042	12.810	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> Job Performance (H7)	-0.676	-0.676	0.024	27.686	0.000	** Significant

Table 5.13: Path coefficient, T value; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

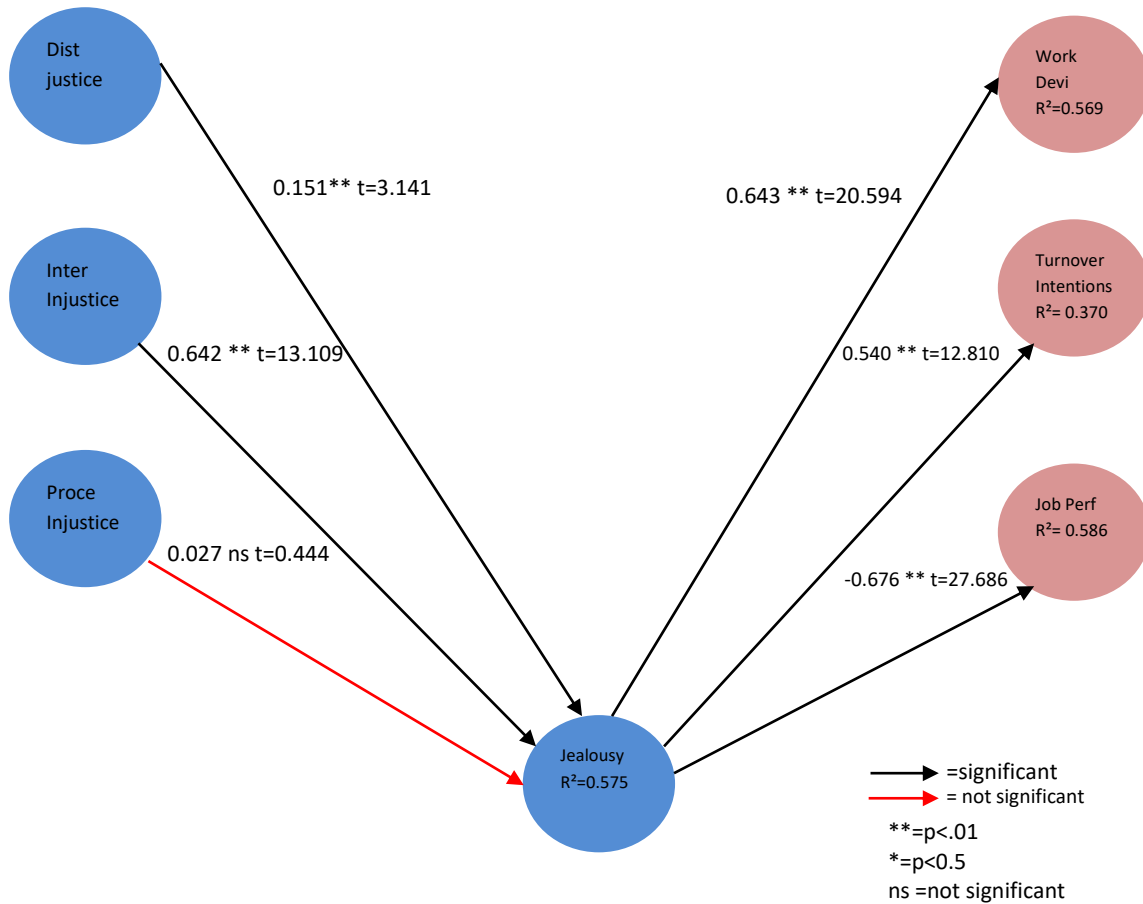


Fig 5.3: Structural model evaluation for indirect effect path coefficients

5.9.3 Coefficient of determination (R² Value)

The model's predictive accuracy was checked by using the coefficient of determination (R² value), which can be calculated as the squared correlation between a specific endogenous construct's actual and predictive values (Hair et al., 2014). The coefficient represents "the exogenous latent variables' combined effects on the endogenous latent variable, and, because the coefficient is the squared correlation of actual and predicted values, it also explains the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by all the exogenous constructs linked to it" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 174). The R² value ranges from 0 to 1. Higher R² values indicate higher levels of predictive accuracy.

According to Hair et al. (2014), R² value of 0.20 are considered high. However, in research regarding marketing issues, R² values of 0.25, 0.50, or 0.75 for endogenous latent variables can be respectively described as weak, moderate, or substantial (Hair et al., 2011; Henseler et al., 2009).

Table 5.14 below satisfactorily explains variance in the endogenous latent variables of this study after including jealousy in the model. The variable jealousy is the key variable in the study which shows variance of 56.7%. The variables of job performance, workplace deviance, and turnover intentions show variance of 55.6%, 45.3 % and 34.1% respectively.

	R Square
Turnover intentions	0.341
Jealousy	0.567
Job performance	0.556
Workplace deviance	0.453

Table 5.14: R² values for indirect effect relationships

Table 5.15 below satisfactorily explains variance in the endogenous latent variables of this study before including mediator in the model (direct effect relationships). The variables of job performance, workplace deviance, and turnover intentions show variance of 49.8%, 43.7 % and 29.8% respectively.

	R Square
Turnover intentions	0.298
Job performance	0.498
Workplace deviance	0.437

Table 5.15: R² values for direct effect relationships

5.9.4 Effect Size f²:

The impact of a specific exogenous construct on the endogenous constructs is evaluated by using the f² effect size measure. This can be measured through a change in the R² value by omitting a specified exogenous construct from the model to check whether that specific exogenous construct has a substantive impact on endogenous constructs (Hair et al., 2014). The effect size can be measured as

$$f^2 = R^2 \text{ included} - R^2 \text{ excluded} / 1 - R^2 \text{ included}$$

"Where R² included and R² excluded are the R² values of the endogenous latent variable when a selected exogenous latent variable is included in or excluded from the model. The change in R² value is calculated by estimating the PLS path model twice" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 177). First time estimation is by including "the exogenous latent variable (yielding R² included) and the second time by excluding the exogenous latent variable (yielding R² excluded)" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 177). The f² values of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, represent small, medium, and large effects respectively of the exogenous latent variable (Cohen, 1988). Results illustrated in table 5.16 reveal that interactional injustice (f² effect size = 0.547) is the key explanatory construct in terms of incremental variance explained in workplace jealousy, followed by distributive injustice (f² effect size = 0.026).

	Turnover Intentions	Jealousy	Job Performance	Workplace Deviance
Distributive Injustice		0.026		
Interactional injustice		0.547		
Jealousy	0.207		0.436	0.398
Procedural Injustice		0.001		
Self-Efficacy	0.073		0.228	0.075

Table 5.16: f² value; 0.02=small, 0.15 medium, 0.35=large effect

The table 5.17 illustrates the f^2 values for direct effect relationships between injustice dimensions and outcomes.

	Turnover Intentions	Job Performance	Workplace Deviance
Distributive Injustice	0.013	0.014	0.069
Interactional injustice	0.186	0.252	0.241
Procedural Injustice	0.000	0.043	0.000

Table 5.17: f^2 value ; 0.02=small, 0.15 medium, 0.35=large effect

5.9.5 Predictive Relevance Q^2 :

Hair et al (2014), recommends to examine the predictive validity of the model using Stone-Geisser's Q^2 value (Geisser, 1975; Stone, 1974). This measure indicates the predictive relevance of the model. When PLS-SEM is showing "predictive relevance, it accurately predicts the data points of indicators in reflective measurement models of endogenous constructs" (Hair et al., 2014, p. 178). The predictive validity is established if the Q^2 values of the endogenous constructs are well above 0. As demonstrated in table 5.18, all the endogenous constructs in the model have values well above 0 and hence the predictive validity is established.

Endogenous Constructs	Q^2
Turnover intentions	0.220
Jealousy	0.413
Job Performance	0.427
Workplace Deviance	0.210

Table 5.18: Q^2 for the endogenous constructs

5.9.6 Model Fit:

SRMR criteria have also been suggested as measures to assess model fit (Hair et al., 2014; Henseler et al., 2014) and defined as the difference between the observed and predictive correlation. Values for SRMR range from 0 to 1, however, values as high as 0.08 are considered acceptable fit (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). The SRMR value of the model is 0.08 which is an acceptable model fit.

5.10 Mediation analysis:

The mediating role of jealousy was tested in the relationship between injustice perceptions and outcome variables by comparing the coefficients of the total and indirect effects using Sobel's test (Sobel, 1982). In addition, the indirect and direct effects were calculated through the bootstrapping procedure where the bias-corrected 95% confidence interval was calculated. Yoo & Arnol (2016) in their study use the same approach for mediation analysis. The estimates of the indirect effects in repeated bootstrap samples can be used to generate confidence intervals for the purpose of inference (Parker, Nouri, & Hayes, 2011). This study makes conclusions on the mediating effect of jealousy based on the two methods in tandem. The results are provided in table 5.19.

In the table the indirect and direct effects of distributive injustice and interactional injustice were compared on the three outcome variables. The path for procedural injustice was not tested as the relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy was not found to be significant. The results show that the Sobel's test statistic for all the six relationships are significant and thus all the mediating effects are significant (Distributive injustice →

Jealousy → Work Place Deviance = 2.58**, Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention = 2.3**, Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance = -2.77**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Work Place Deviance = 3.57**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention = 4.96**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance = -6.9**). Among the direct effects, neither the path from distributive injustice to turnover intention (LLCI = -.017, ULCI = .192) nor the path from distributive injustice to job performance (LLCI = -.166, ULCI = .039) was found to be significant. This is inferred from the results in table, where the interval between the upper and lower limit confidence interval contains the value 0.00. Hence in both the cases only the indirect effect is significant and not the direct effect. It can thus be inferred that in the case of the relationship between distributive injustice and turnover intention as well as the relationship between distributive injustice and job performance, jealousy has a full mediating effect. In the case of the other relationships since both the indirect and direct effects are found to be significant, we can infer that jealousy has a partial mediating effect.

5.10.1 Control Variables: We tested the impact of three control variables on the path coefficients: (i) age of the respondents (ii) level of experience of the respondent and (iii) income level of the respondent. The control variables were entered in the PLS analysis by relating them to jealousy as well as the three outcome variables. A comparison of the coefficients with and without the control variables was carried out. It was found that the control variables had negligible impact on the mediating and outcome variables. No change was observed in the significance level of the main or the moderating relationships in the model. Of the control variables, age didn't have any impact on jealousy or any of the outcome variables. Level of experience had a positive significant relationship with Job

performance, but not to any other variables. Income level had a negative significant relationship with turnover intention and work place deviance, but not any other variable.

Mediating Relationships		Path coefficient	LLCI	ULCI	Sobel test coefficient
Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Work Place Deviance	Indirect Effect	.055	.021	.098	2.58**
	Direct Effect	.214	.129	.304	
Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention	Indirect Effect	.046	.012	.088	2.3**
	Direct Effect	.087	-.017	.192	
Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance	Indirect Effect	-.055	-.096	-.022	-2.77**
	Direct Effect	-.060	-.166	.039	
Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Work Place Deviance	Indirect Effect	.229	.138	.331	3.57**
	Direct Effect	.250	.126	.396	
Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention	Indirect Effect	.191	.092	.305	4.96**
	Direct Effect	.284	.135	.446	
Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance	Indirect Effect	-.23	-.30	-.17	-6.9**
	Direct Effect	-.240	-.351	-.143	

** significant at $p < 0.01$

Table 5.19: Mediation results

5.10.2 The results of mediation analysis:

The model of this research suggested the mediating effect of jealousy between the relationship of injustice dimensions i.e., distributive injustice, interactional injustice and procedural injustice on all three outcomes of turnover intentions, job performance and workplace deviance. The results of mediation tests are summarized in table 5.20.

	Mediation Paths	Mediation effect	Hypotheses	
1	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	Full Mediation	H8a	Supported
2	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	Full Mediation	H8b	Supported
3	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	Partial Mediation	H8c	Supported
4	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	Partial Mediation	H9a	Supported
5	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	Partial Mediation	H9b	Supported
6	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	Partial Mediation	H9c	Supported
7	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	No Mediation	H10a	Not supported
8	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	No Mediation	H10b	Not supported
9	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	No Mediation	H10c	Not supported

Table 5.20: Summary of mediation effects of jealousy between injustice dimensions and outcomes.

5.11 Moderation analysis:

As shown in table 5.21, we regressed the independent variable (jealousy), moderating variable (self-efficacy) and the interaction term (jealousy*self-efficacy) on the three dependent variables. Independent variables were standardized before regressing them. The resulting equation is shown as model 1, 2 & 3. Results show that interaction term is significant only in the case of workplace deviance and job performance. The significance of moderating effect is also seen in the R² change from model 1 to model 3. For instance, in case of workplace deviance R² increases from 0.352 to 0.388 and in the

case of job performance R^2 increases from 0.452 to 0.558. To check the direction of the moderation, we plotted the interaction effect and the resulting graphs are shown in figures 5.4 and 5.5.

As shown in **Figure 5.4**, high self-efficacy helps the employees in maintaining their job performance even when they are experiencing high levels of jealousy, conversely the employees with low self-efficacy are overpowered by their negative emotion of jealousy, thus leaving adverse effects on their job performance. However, the results in relation to workplace deviance are quite interesting. As illustrated in **Figure 5.5**, although self-efficacy has a significant moderating effect on the jealousy-workplace deviance relationship, high self-efficacy can help employees to restrain from getting engaged in workplace deviant behaviors only when the level of jealousy which they are experiencing is low to moderate. However, when the level of jealousy becomes high, then self-efficacy seems to lose its regulating effect and self-efficacious employees also likely to resort to workplace deviance. Surprisingly the positive relationship between jealousy and workplace deviance gets stronger when employees with high self-efficacy experience high levels of jealousy (see Fig.5.5).

	Work Place Deviance			Intention to quit			Job Performance		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Jealousy	0.593 (14.4)**	.537 (11.74)**	4.79 (10.26)**	0.533 (12.38)**	0.426 (9.33)**	0.421 (8.46)**	-0.672 (-17.83)**	-0.530 (-13.78)**	-0.580 (-14.60)**
Self-Efficacy		-0.151 (-3.35)**	-0.133 (-2.98)**		-2.46 (-5.33)**	-0.241 (-5.17)**		0.328(8.52)**	0.346 (9.11)**
Jealousy * Self-Efficacy			0.144 (3.30)**			.043 (0.93)			0.149 (4.03)**
R ²	0.352	0.370	0.388	0.284	0.336	0.335	0.452	0.539	0.558

Table: 5.21 Moderating effect table t-values are in the parentheses ** p < 0.001



Figure: 5.4: Moderation graph-moderating role of self-efficacy in the relationship between jealousy and job performance.



Figure 5.5: Moderation graph-moderating effects of self-efficacy on the relationship between jealousy and workplace deviance

5.12 Interpretation of results:

The hypotheses chapter was divided into three parts. In the first part, hypotheses for direct effect relationships between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance were developed. The second part developed hypotheses regarding mediating role of jealousy between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as were developed workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The third part of the chapter developed hypotheses related to moderating role of self-efficacy in overcoming the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The results of PLS-SEM structural path analysis show that that most of the hypotheses received empirical support.

Regarding direct effect relationships, three hypotheses were developed i.e., First, (H1a, H1b, & H1c) – positive relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice > workplace deviance. Second, (H2a, H2b, & H2c) - positive relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice > turnover intention. Third, (H3a, H3b, & H3c) - negative relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice > job performance. Empirical results support the hypotheses that distributive injustice positively influences workplace deviance – H1a (t value = 5.942; p value = 0.000), and turnover intentions – H2a (t value = 2.694; p value = 0.007), whereas it negatively influences job performance – H3a (t value = 2.138; p value = 0.033). Likewise, empirical results also support that interactional injustice positively influences workplace deviance – H1c (t value = 9.701; p value = 0.000), and turnover intentions – H2c (t value = 7.790; p value = 0.000), whereas it

negatively influences job performance – H3c (t value = 9.158; p value = 0.000). However, hypotheses regarding positive relationship between procedural injustice > workplace deviance – H1b (t value = 0.165; p value = 0.869), positive relationship between procedural injustice and turnover intentions – H2b (t value = 0.232; p value = 0.817) could not get empirical support, although the negative relationship between procedural injustice and job performance got the empirical support – H3b (t value = 3.848; p value = 0.000). The directions of all the significant relationships are according to hypotheses of the study. Below table 5.22 shows the results of PLS-SEM path analysis coefficients.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values	
Distributive injustice -> workplace deviance (H1a)	0.268	0.267	0.045	5.942	0.000	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> workplace deviance (H1b)	-0.010	-0.007	0.062	0.165	0.869	Not Significant
Interactive injustice -> workplace deviance (H1c)	0.485	0.487	0.050	9.701	0.000	** Significant
Distributive injustice -> turnover intention (H2a)	0.130	0.129	0.048	2.694	0.007	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> turnover intention (H2b)	-0.016	-0.019	0.069	0.232	0.817	Not Significant
Interactive injustice -> turnover intention (H2c)	0.476	0.483	0.061	7.790	0.000	** Significant
Distributive injustice ->	-0.115	-0.111	0.054	2.138	0.033	* Significant

Job Performance (H3a)						
Procedural injustice -> Job Performance (H3b)	-0.216	-0.218	0.056	3.848	0.000	** Significant
Interactive justice -> Job Performance (H3c)	-0.468	-0.472	0.051	9.158	0.000	** Significant

Table 5.22: Path coefficient, T value; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

Regarding hypotheses about indirect relationships between distributive, procedural and interactional injustice and jealousy, four hypotheses were developed i.e., First; positive relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice & interactional injustice > jealousy (H4a, H4b, & H4c). Second; positive relationship between jealousy > workplace (H5). Third; positive relationship between jealousy > turnover intentions (H6). Fourth, negative relationship between jealousy > job performance (H7). Empirical results show that jealousy is the outcome of distributive injustice and interactional injustice i.e., Distributive injustice -> Jealousy - H4a (t value = 3.141, p value = 0.002), interactional injustice -> Jealousy – H4c (t value = 13.109, p value = 0.000). However procedural injustice is not found to trigger jealousy – H4b (t value = 0.444, p value = 0.657). But interestingly, empirical results suggest that jealousy can positively influence workplace deviance and turnover intentions and negatively influence job performance i.e., Jealousy -> workplace deviance - H5 (t value = 20.594, p value = 0.000), Jealousy -> Turnover intension -H6 (t value = 12.810, p value = 0.000), Jealousy -> Job Performance - H7 (t value = 27.686, p value = 0.000). The directions of all significant relationships are according to hypotheses of the study. Table 5.23 below shows the results of PLS-SEM path analysis coefficients for indirect effects.

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values	
Distributive injustice -> Jealousy (H4a)	0.151	0.150	0.048	3.141	0.002	** Significant
Procedural injustice -> Jealousy (H4b)	0.027	0.029	0.060	0.444	0.657	Not Significant
Interactive justice -> Jealousy (H4c)	0.642	0.643	0.049	13.109	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> workplace deviance (H5)	0.643	0.646	0.031	20.594	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> Turnover intension (H6)	0.540	0.542	0.042	12.810	0.000	** Significant
Jealousy -> Job Performance (H7)	-0.676	-0.676	0.024	27.686	0.000	** Significant

Table 5.23: Path coefficient, T value; **p<0.01, *p<0.05

To check the mediation effect of jealousy between the relationship of distributive injustice, procedural injustice and interactional injustice on job outcomes i.e., workplace deviance, turnover intentions, & job performance, following hypotheses were developed. (H8a) - Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions, (H8b) - Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance, (H8c) - Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance. (H9a) - Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions, (H9b) - Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance, (H9c) - Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance. (H10a) - Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions, (H10b) - Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance, (H10c) - Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance.

The indirect and direct effects of distributive injustice and interactional injustice were compared on the three outcome variables. The path for procedural injustice was not tested as the relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy was not found to be significant. The results show that the Sobel's test statistic, for all the six relationships, are significant and thus all the mediating effects are significant (Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Work Place Deviance = 2.58**, Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention = 2.3**, Distributive injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance = -2.77**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Work Place Deviance = 3.57**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Turnover intention = 4.96**, Interactional injustice → Jealousy → Job Performance = -6.9**). Among the direct effects, neither the path from distributive injustice to turnover intention (LLCI = -.017, ULCI = .192) nor the path from distributive injustice to job performance (LLCI = -.166, ULCI = .039) was found to be significant. It can thus be inferred that in the case of the relationship between distributive injustice and turnover intention as well as the relationship between distributive injustice and job performance, jealousy has a full mediating effect. In the case of other relationships since both the indirect and direct effects are found to be significant (distributive injustice to workplace deviance - LLCI = .129, ULCI = .0304, interactional injustice to workplace deviance - LLCI = .126, ULCI = .0396, interactional injustice to turnover intentions - LLCI = .135, ULCI = .0446, interactional injustice to job performance - LLCI = -.351, ULCI = -.0143). We can infer that jealousy has a partial mediating effect. The results of mediation tests are summarized in table 5.24 below.

	Mediation Paths	Mediation effect	Hypotheses	Results
1	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	Full Mediation	H8a	Supported
2	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	Full Mediation	H8b	Supported
3	Distributive Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	Partial Mediation	H8c	Supported
4	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	Partial Mediation	H9a	Supported
5	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	Partial Mediation	H9b	Supported
6	Interactional Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	Partial Mediation	H9c	Supported
7	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Turnover intentions	No Mediation	H10a	Not supported
8	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Job Performance	No Mediation	H10b	Not supported
9	Procedural Injustice > Jealousy > Workplace Deviance	No Mediation	H10c	Not supported

Table 5.24: Summary of mediation effects of jealousy between injustice dimensions and outcomes.

Regarding hypotheses about moderating role of self-efficacy, following hypotheses were developed. (H11a) – moderating role of self-efficacy between jealousy > workplace deviance, (H11b) - moderating role of self-efficacy between jealousy > turnover intention, (H11c) - moderating role of self-efficacy between jealousy > job performance. Empirical results show that interaction term is significant only in the case of workplace deviance and job performance. The significance of moderating effect is also seen in the R² change from model 1 to model 3. In case of workplace deviance R² increases from 0.352 to 0.388 and in

the case of job performance R^2 increases from 0.452 to 0.558. The below table 5.25 shows a summary of results.

Paths	Moderating construct	Significance	Hypotheses
Jealousy -> Workplace deviance	Self-efficacy	Significant	H11a
Jealousy -> Turnover intentions	Self-efficacy	Not significant	H11b
Jealousy -> Job performance	Self-efficacy	Significant	H11c

Table 5.25: Path coefficients and significance of moderating effect

5.13 Chapter Summary:

This chapter addressed the preliminary data handling issues like missing values, normality of data, outliers, non-response bias for the research sample. The demographic profile of respondents was highlighted. The validity and reliability of the scales were established. Results from PLS-SEM path modeling were presented and interpreted for direct effect relationships between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes – workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance, hypotheses about indirect relationships between three dimensions of injustice and jealousy, and jealousy and job outcomes – workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, hypotheses for mediating role of jealousy between relationships of injustice dimensions and job outcomes - workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance, and finally hypotheses

about moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and job outcomes - workplace deviance, turnover intentions, and job performance .

CHAPTER- SIX

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction:

This chapter discusses the results of this study in the light of findings from literature review presented in chapter two. This chapter is discussed in three sections. In each section the relevant findings from literature are discussed which led to the development of hypotheses, and then empirical results are discussed in the light of findings from literature. The initial section discusses the findings from literature about direct effect relationships between three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The direct effect hypotheses are briefly discussed which follows by discussion of results in the light of findings from literature. The second section discusses the findings from literature about mediating role of jealousy between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The hypotheses for indirect effect relationships are briefly discussed which follows by discussion of results in the light of findings from literature. The last section discusses the findings from literature about moderating role of self-efficacy in addressing the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance.

Conducting a detailed and systematic review of literature, the current conceptualization of justice literature was assessed. It was assessed that literature acknowledges the influence of injustice perceptions on employee job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. It was also observed that

although the influence of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance is well established both theoretically and empirically, this relationship has been mostly been explained using the lens of social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013). Social exchange perspective which is based on social exchange theory (SET) was used by most of justice scholars to explain that why and how injustice perceptions can influence employee attitudes and behaviours. The perspective of social exchange relationship elaborates that various types of resources can be exchanged between organization and employees through rules of social exchange reciprocity between organizations and employees (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Justice in this model is viewed as a symbolic resource which if organizations offer in this exchange relationship is reciprocated by employees with positive attitudes and behaviours. Conversely, injustice from organizations is reciprocated by employees through reactive behaviours such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and reduced job performance (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler, & Schminke, 2001).

It was also observed from literature review that most of research findings regarding relationship between injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance were made in western contexts and less attention was paid by justice scholars to test the validity of these findings in non-western contexts. It was noted that checking the validity of earlier research findings in non-western context is important because although research suggests the role of cultural characteristics in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), we do not know much about how workplace stressors such as injustice perceptions operate in collectivistic and high power distance cultures such as Pakistan, as research has mainly focused on western nations (Ahmed et al., 2018; Hofstede, 1984). It has been argued that unless we test the theories

largely developed in west, in non-western settings, researchers and practitioners would have little confidence about their validity in those regions (Rotundo & Xie, 2008; Tsui et al., 2007). This study in the light of these findings developed the hypotheses to test the direct effect relationships between three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

Accordingly, three hypotheses were developed to test the direct effect relationships, i.e., (H1a, H1b, & H1c) between three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice and workplace deviance. (H2a, H2b, & H2c) to test the positive relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice and turnover intention. (H3a, H3b, & H3c) to test the negative relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice, & interactional injustice and job performance. The empirical results are discussed below.

6.2 Effects of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice on workplace deviance (H1a, H1b, & H1c):

The PLS-SEM path analysis results of the study confirm that distributive, & interactional injustice significantly influence employees' workplace deviance, whereas the positive relationship between procedural injustice and workplace deviance could not get empirical support. Justice scholars reiterate that deviant behaviour is an intentional act which is motivated by the need to seek retributive justice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). Experience of injustice is evidenced as one of most common causes of workplace deviance (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), and as the literature has evolved,

organizational injustice has become one of the key constructs in explaining workplace deviance (Ambrose et al., 2002; Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007; Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Boyle, 2013; Robbins & Judge, 2003). This relationship follows the strong principle of retaliation which explains that employees are more likely to be involved in deviance when they perceive inequitable treatment in the workplace (Ambrose, 2002; Aquino et al., 1999; Aquino et al., 2006). Similar observations were reported by previous researchers, whereby, perceived injustice has been linked to a range of deviant behaviours such as theft (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Greenberg, 2002), sabotage (Ambrose, 2002), and retaliation (Barclay & Skarlicki, 2009; Barclay et al., 2005). Moreover, and more relevant to the current study, deviant behaviours are reported to be associated with different dimensions of injustice.

Literature review shows the role of three dimensions of injustice perceptions in employee workplace deviance. If employees perceive fairness in their organizations, they will expect fair rewards of their efforts (Shoab & Baruch, 2017), conversely violations of justice principles signal a disproportionate balance of input versus outcome ratio which will motivate employees to restore equity by engaging in retaliatory behaviours (Frey et al., 2013). From perspective of distributive injustice, workplace deviant behaviours can be interpreted as reactions to restore equity when employees feel an imbalance in input and outcome ratio (Greenberg & Scott, 1996), thus when employees perceive distributive injustice, they might show reactive behaviour towards the organization to balance the input/outcome ratio from their perspective (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). From the perspective of procedural injustice, any violations of procedural justice will result in negative perceptions about fairness of procedural systems of the organization for rewards and outcomes, which will reduce the incentive for employees to remain favourable towards

their organizations (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and will lead to deviant behaviours aiming to hurt the organization (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Interactional injustice has also been argued to be an important antecedent of workplace deviant behaviour (Aquino et al., 1999; Ferris et al., 2012; Judge et al., 2006; Miller, 2001; Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2007; Park et al., 2017). Overall literature review suggests that unfair distribution of resources, and procedures adopted to decide the distribution of resources negatively influences employees' attitudes (Cropanzano, 2001), which subsequently guide individuals' actions in workplace (Sardzoska & Tang, 2015). Other scholars have also linked distributive injustice and procedural injustice to deviant behaviours (Aquino et al., 1999; Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Berry et al., 2007). The relationship between interactional injustice and workplace deviance has also got enough support from literature (Tripp, Bies, & Aquino, 2007; Park et al., 2017).

The empirical results of positive relationship between distributive injustice, & interactional injustice > workplace deviance, therefore, are in line with the earlier research findings and confirm the validity of these findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. However, results for positive relationship between procedural injustice > workplace deviance relationship could not get empirical support. Possibly this is due to the cultural differences. Earlier research suggests the role of cultural characteristics in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016). There is possibility that employees in the context of Pakistan attached more importance to immediate outcomes and interpersonal fairness played more significant role in eliciting reactions such as workplace deviance as compared to the structural characteristics of the procedures (Aquino et al., 1999). The research objective number one seeks to explore the direct effect relationship between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace

deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The above direct effect hypotheses are part of research objective number one.

6.3 Effects of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice on turnover intentions (H2a, H2b, & H2c):

The PLS-SEM path analysis results of the study confirm that distributive, & interactional injustice significantly influence employees' turnover intentions, whereas the positive relationship between procedural injustice and turnover intentions could not get empirical support. Going through literature review, it was observed that extant research explains a positive relationship between injustice perceptions and employee turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Loi et al., 2006) in the light of social exchange relationship. Research suggests the important role of organizational injustice in causing turnover intentions among employees (Harris et al., 2018).

Literature review shows a positive relationship between distributive injustice and turnover intention in the context of fairness of outcomes, and in this way distributive injustice is predicted to be associated with affective (e.g., negative emotions), cognitive (e.g., perceptual distortion) and behavioural (e.g., withdrawal and turnover intentions) reactions to specific outcomes (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Poon, 2012). In the light of equity theory (Adams, 1965), people evaluate the fairness of outcomes in the context of input/output ratio. When individuals perceive an inequity in the output compared to their input, they try to restore this inequity by changing their behaviours or changing cognitions (Poon, 2012). For example, employees may quit from their job or develop intentions to

quit their job (Poon, 2012). Thus, unfair distribution of resources will more likely motivate the employees to start thinking to seek fairer outcomes in some other organization (Brashear et al., 2005; Poon, 2012).

Procedural justice also plays an important role in signalling employees that they are valued members of the organization or group (Posthuma et al., 2007). If employees experience procedural justice, they will more likely to develop positive feelings and would like to stay in the organization or part of the group (Posthuma et al., 2007). However, when employees experience procedural injustice, they are most likely to develop negative feelings and consequently they would not like to stay as part of organization or group (Cropanzano et al., 2001).

Literature review also reveals that fairness of interpersonal relationships would also have an impact on individuals' decision to leave or remain with the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012). For example, in terms of fairness theory, fairness is a basic tenet of the psychological contract between employees and the organization, an act of un-fair treatment would motivate individuals to place the assignment of blame on the organization and a sense of accountability of the event can be a motivating factor to leave the organization (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Greenberg, 2002). Fair treatment is important because it stretches a message to employees that they are being valued equally as members of the organization (Posthuma, Maertz, & Dworkin, 2007). Theoretically, fair treatment is viewed by the employees as a fact that the organization values them as an important part of the group. However, unfair treatment stretches a clue that one is no more considered as important part of the group and, thus, an indication of disposability. In such cases of unfair

treatment, employees consider it the employer's failure to establish an equitable employment relationship and, therefore, will want to cease from such a relationship (Bernerth & Walker, 2012).

The empirical results of positive relationship between distributive injustice, & interactional injustice > turnover intention, therefore, are in line with the earlier research findings and confirm the validity of these findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. However, results for positive relationship between procedural injustice > turnover intention could not get empirical support. Possibly this is due to the cultural differences. Earlier research suggests the role of cultural characteristics in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016). There is possibility that employees in the context of Pakistan attached more importance to immediate outcomes and interpersonal fairness played more significant role in eliciting reactions such as workplace deviance as compared to the structural characteristics of the procedures (Aquino et al., 1999). The research objective number one seeks to explore the direct effect relationship between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The above hypothesis is part of research objective number one.

6.4 Effects of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice on job performance (H3a, H3b, & H3c):

The PLS-SEM path analysis results of the study show that three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional injustice significantly influence employees' job performance. Going through literature review, it was observed that extant research suggests that three dimensions of organizational justice i.e., distributive justice,

procedural justice and interactional justice can influence employee job performance (Colquitt et al., 2013; Cropanzano, Rupp, & Byrne, 2003; Shirom, Nirel, & Vinokur, 2006; Van Scotter, Motowidlo, & Cross, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Perceptions of justice violations will most likely result in distressed behaviours, and the most obvious way to restore justice is to reduce their job performance (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The role of distributive injustice in influencing job performance has been explained using lens of equity theory (Adams, 1965). In the context of equity theory, if employees experience an inequity at the workplace, they most likely try to restore the equity and the most obvious way to restore equity is to alter their quality or quantity of work to restore justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). According to Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005), if employees experience reward outcomes which they perceive do not commensurate with their efforts or input, they will most likely alter their behaviour and may reduce their performance to restore equity.

The relationship between procedural justice and job performance has been explained in the light of self-interest model (Thibaut & Walker, 1975) which underpins on the concept that individuals want control of in the decision-making process to ensure favourability of decision outcomes. This indicates that employees want to include their voice and opinion in decision making process to ensure outcome favourability (Linna et al., 2012). Procedural fairness ensures inclusion of voice and opinion in the decision making process (Thibaut & Walker, 1975; Lind & Tyler, 1988). Thus, perceptions of procedural unfairness in the workplace, may impact employee attitude in a negative way which can influence their job performance (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

The relationship between interactional injustice and reduced job performance has been explained in the light of group-value model which explains that quality of interpersonal treatment that individuals experience has important implications for the individuals' sense of self-worth and their experience of personal status within the group and the organization (Lind & Tyler, 1988). According to group-value model, when employees receive respect, politeness and consideration during decision making processes, they feel interactional justice (Linna et al., 2012). As interactional justice represents the interpersonal treatment from the supervisor or other representative of the organization, it is more personal in nature than procedural justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). As such, employees may perceive this as an outcome, and, consequently, it should influence the "outcome/input ratio" of the employee (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993). In this context, fair treatment by managers is reciprocated by employees through better performance (Masterson et al., 2000).

The empirical results of negative relationship between distributive injustice, procedural injustice & interactional injustice > job performance, therefore, are in line with the earlier research findings and confirm the validity of these findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Although, the positive relationship between procedural injustice and workplace deviance and turnover intentions could not get empirical support, the significant negative relationship between procedural injustice and job performance may be more typical in the context of Pakistan that employees give equal importance to procedural injustice in the context of their job performance. The above hypothesis is part of research objective number one.

6.5 Mediating role of jealousy between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance

The literature review also revealed that although research about impacts of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance is well founded, but this is mostly done in the context of social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013). It was also learnt that injustice-job outcome relationship has mostly been studied in the light of employee cognitive behaviour and much attention has not been paid by justice scholars to explore the role of emotions in explaining the injustice-job outcomes relationship. This aspect of injustice-job outcomes relationship is important because emotions are not only the outcome of injustice perceptions (Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Weis et al., 1999) but can also influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Cropanzano et al., 2011; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009) have been suggested as an alternative mechanism of social exchange perspective, through which injustice perceptions may influence employee job outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Ferris et al., 2012). Although emotions are particularly important in justice frameworks (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; De Cremer & Van den Bos, 2007, Weiss et al., 1999), only a few justice studies have empirically examined the mediating role of emotions (Barclay et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2013), and still the role of emotions in affecting the subsequent behaviour is not very clear (Murphy & Tyler, 2008). Thus, it has been called upon that more research is required to explore the mediating role of emotions in explaining the relationship between injustice perceptions and employee reactions in workplace (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Colquitt et al., 2012; Colquitt et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014).

The literature review also revealed an important oversight i.e., jealousy which is an important workplace emotion has not been given much attention by the scholars (Vecchio, 1997; 2000). Jealousy is an important workplace emotion because of its common presence (DeSteno et al., 2006; Vecchio, 2000), and because the experience of this emotion leads to aggressive behaviour (DeSteno et al., 2006; Gunalan & Ceylan, 2014), but unfortunately few studies have been done on jealousy within the organizational settings (Vecchio, 2000). Also, we do not know much about the specific events which are responsible for arousal of jealousy and that how this emotion can impact the job outcomes. Hence this oversight is an important gap in existing research.

In this context, it was also noted that the few studies understanding the role of employee emotions have mainly used composite ‘overall’ measures for emotions (Barclay et al., 2005), thus limiting our understanding of which specific, discrete, emotions underlie the relationship between perceived injustice and behavioural outcomes (Khan et al., 2013). It was also assessed from literature review that another shortcoming of justice research, is to employ a narrow view whereby one or more of the justice types are omitted (Cole et al., 2010). Consequently, researchers have emphasized the need to examine the relationship between all facets of injustice (distributive injustice, procedural injustice and interactional injustice) and emotions for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). This is important as omitting one or more justice types might lead to spurious significant relationships, which otherwise would not exist if the respective variable(s) were included (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Cole et al., 2010).

This study, in the light of above findings, developed hypotheses to investigate the mediating role of mediating role of jealousy between injustice dimensions and job

outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Three hypotheses were developed to explore the role of distributive injustice, procedural injustice, and interactional injustice in eliciting jealousy respectively i.e., (H4a, H4b, H4c). Three hypotheses were developed to examine the role of jealousy in influencing the job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. Hypotheses (H5) was developed to explore the influence of jealousy on workplace deviance. Hypotheses (H6) was developed to examine the influence of jealousy on turnover intention. Hypotheses (H7) was developed to test the influence of jealousy on job performance. Three hypotheses were developed to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. Hypotheses (H8a, H8b, H8c) were developed to check the mediating role of jealousy between distributive injustice and job outcomes i.e., (H8a) mediating role of jealousy between distributive injustice and employee turnover intention, (H8b) mediating role of jealousy between distributive injustice and employee job performance, (H8c) mediating role of jealousy between distributive injustice and employee workplace deviance. (H9a) mediating role of jealousy between interactional injustice and employee turnover intention, (H9b) mediating role of jealousy between interactional injustice and employee job performance, (H9c) mediating role of jealousy between interactional injustice and employee workplace deviance. (H10a) mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and employee turnover intention, (H10b) mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and employee job performance, (H10c) mediating role of jealousy between procedural injustice and employee workplace deviance.

The PLS-SEM path analysis results of the hypotheses (H4a, H4b, & H4c) show that distributive could elicit jealousy as there was a positive relationship between distributive injustice and jealousy (H4a). three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional injustice significantly influence employees' job performance. However, interestingly, hypotheses regarding positive relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy could not get empirical support (H4b). The results show an insignificant relationship between procedural injustice and jealousy. The relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy also got empirical support (H4c). the results show that there is a significant positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy.

Although no prior research empirically tested the link between injustice perceptions and jealousy, extant research suggests a strong theoretical association between perceived injustice and jealousy (Miner, 1990; Smith, 1991). This study proposed a positive relationship between three justice dimensions and jealousy underpinning on following arguments. Although distributive justice represents economic outcomes, but, procedural and interactional justice have symbolic value for employees due to other reasons, and, hence, can be considered as socio-emotional outcomes. Fair procedures signal one's standing and value to the group and thus can convey socio-emotional benefits to individuals (Tyler & Lind, 1992), whereas fairness of interpersonal treatment can be an acknowledgment of employees' dignity and intrinsic worth (Bies & Moag, 1986). Procedural and interactional injustice, therefore, not only result in loss of these socio-emotional benefits but also violates individuals' expectations regarding the way they are entitled to be treated (Barclay et al., 2005). Extant research suggests individuals' reactions to violations of procedural or interactional justice even when outcomes are favourable or

unfavourable (Heilman & Alcott, 2001; Heilman, Block, & Stathatos, 1997; Skarlicki, Barclay, & Pugh, 2008). According to fairness theory, Folger & Cropanzano (1998), violations of procedural and/or interactional fairness can be independently associated with negative emotions regardless of distributive justice. Barclay et al., (2005) explain that fairness theory suggests that irrespective of the type of fairness violation, when individuals try to evaluate it from their perspective, they are likely to imagine how the situation could have been different. Thus, even with a favourable distributive outcome, individuals can still visualize that why their manager made violations of interactional or justice principles and consider how fair treatment, for which they are entitled, would have made the things different (i.e., fair procedures and/or interpersonal sensitivity). Thus, extant research suggests the role of three dimensions of injustice in eliciting emotions.

Empirical results suggest the role of distributive and interactional injustice in eliciting jealousy. However, procedural injustice has not been found to trigger jealousy. Regarding hypotheses for role of jealousy in influencing workplace deviance (H5), role of jealousy in causing turnover intention (H6), and finally, role of jealousy in reducing employee job performance (H7). The empirical results show that jealousy has deleterious effects on these key job outcomes i.e., workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. Regarding hypotheses to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. Empirical results show full mediation effect of jealousy between the relationship of distributive injustice and turnover intention (H8a). Full mediation effect of jealousy between distributive injustice and job performance (H8b), and a partial mediation effect between distributive injustice-workplace deviance relationship (H8c). Empirical results also show partial mediation effect of jealousy between

interactional injustice and turnover intention, job performance, and workplace deviance (H9a, H9b, H9c). However, empirical findings do not suggest mediation effect of jealousy between procedural injustice and turnover intention, job performance, and workplace deviance (H10a, H10b, & H10c).

Interestingly, the findings of this research indicate that jealousy fully mediates the effects of distributive injustice on both outcomes of job performance and turnover intentions. Possibly, this is because distributive injustice is realized in the form of loss of outcomes and relates more strongly with reactions to specific outcomes (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002), any perceived inequity by employees is first likely to trigger an emotional response of jealousy, which, in turn, will translate in the form of influencing their job performance and turnover intention. Jealousy also partially mediates the effects of distributive injustice on workplace deviance. The results suggest that jealousy is the emotional mechanism through which perceptions of distributive injustice are translated into deleterious effects on job outcomes in terms of reduced performance, increased turnover intentions and workplace deviance (H8a, H8b, & H8c).

The empirical results further suggest that jealousy is also an emotional outcome of interactional injustice. Jealousy partially mediates the effects of interactional injustice on employee outcomes of job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance. This may imply that employees view interactional injustice as an actual or perceived rejection by the supervisor in favour of rival colleagues. Jealousy is “negative emotional state which generates in response to a threatened or actual loss of a valued relationship due to the presence of a real or imagined rival” (DeSteno et al., 2006; p. 627). The relationship

between focal employee and supervisor is under threat from rival colleague who is a competitor for the resources. Interactional injustice may be viewed by focal employee as a form of actual or perceived rejection by their supervisor in favour of their fellow colleagues. Earlier research posits that supervisory support can have a deep impact on employee attitudes and behaviours (Babin & Boles 1996; Gong, Yi, & Choi 2014; Sergeant & Frenkel 2000), because supervisors represent the organizations as the closest agent who interact with employees (Dawley, Houghton, & Bucklew 2010). Possibly interactional injustice translates in the form of poor quality of the relationship between the supervisor and the employees (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen 2002), and may be perceived by the employees as a rejection by the supervisor in favour of rival colleagues, which resultantly is found to trigger jealousy. The results also show that jealousy is the key emotional mechanism through which perceptions of interactional injustice are translated in the form of deleterious effects on job outcomes such as job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance (H9a, H9b, & H9c).

Procedural injustice, surprisingly, is not found to trigger jealousy. Previous research suggests that some discrete emotions such as happiness result from the primary appraisal (Weiner, 1985; Weiss et al., 1999), these types of emotions represent a typical function of the outcome, and there is little or no role of secondary appraisal processes such as procedural information (Murphy & Tyler, 2008); jealousy could be one of these emotions. Although both procedural injustice and interactional injustice represent secondary aspects of the appraisal process (Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000), the results indicated a positive relationship between interactional injustice and jealousy. This positive relationship could be because, in case of breach of interactional justice, the delinquent (i.e., the supervisor) is easily identifiable in comparison to breach of procedural justice, where it

is less clear to identify who is actually responsible for the offence and is less "personalistic" (Barclay et al., 2005). As jealousy is an emotional response which is associated with protecting valued working relationships from being usurped by rivals (Desteno et al., 2006), this relationship can easily be identified in case of interactional injustice. Interactional injustice, which is more supervisor-focused, is more obvious, notable and can easily be interpreted than procedural injustice (Colquitt et al., 2013), interactional injustice is, therefore, more likely to elicit jealousy. Conversely in case of procedural injustice, it is less clear for employees to ascertain that who actually cause the event and who benefits (Weiss et al., 1999). A specific valued relationship, which is under threat of being usurped by a rival, is difficult to identify in case of procedural injustice, which is a precondition for arousal of jealousy (DeSteno et al., 2006) (H10a, H10b, & H10c).

The findings of this research are useful to differentiate jealousy from other negative emotions, particularly envy. As previous research suggests that envy and other negative emotions are influenced by procedural injustice (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Murphy & Tyler, 2008; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano 1999). This study suggests that jealousy is unique and may be experienced during episodes of distributive and interactional injustice. Thus, this study makes a significant contribution in the justice literature by empirically evidencing that domain of perceived injustice does indeed matter to understand the specific injustice-emotion relationships as the unique role of all three dimensions of perceived injustice on jealousy would not have become evident without using all three facets in this study.

The second research objective seeks to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between three dimensions of injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The results suggest the mediating role of jealousy between distributive injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance, and interactional injustice and these job outcomes. However, no mediation effect was found between the relationship of procedural injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. Research objective number four seeks to assess the significance of affective events theory in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The research findings suggest the validity of affective events theory in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Earlier studies conducted in Pakistani workplace settings also show the validity of western based research findings in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan (Abbas et al., 2014; De Clercq et al., 2018; Khan et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2014).

6.6 Moderating role of self-efficacy:

Literature review also reveals that although jealousy is a common workplace emotion experienced by employees (Miner, 1990; Vecchio, 2000), much attention has not been paid to examine variables for addressing the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, which seems to be of both practical as well as theoretical significance considering that experiencing jealousy is inevitable. Since, extant research suggests that impact of negative emotions on job outcomes can be regulated by personality attributes and self-beliefs (Abbas et al., 2014; Lehner et al., 2014), this research sought to extend the limited research in this area by investigating the role of self-efficacy as a moderator of the relationship

between jealousy and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job outcomes. Accordingly, this study developed three hypotheses to investigate the role of self-efficacy in addressing the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job outcomes (H11a, H11b, H11c). The moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and workplace deviance (H11a), moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and turnover intention (H11a), and moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and job performance (H11a).

Consistent with SCT, which posits the regulatory role of self-efficacy in regulating the emotional outcomes (Bandura, 1998; 2012), the results show that self-efficacy significantly moderates the negative effects of jealousy on workplace deviance and job performance (H11a, H11c). However, there is no significant moderating effect of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and turnover intention (H11b). As explained in chapter five, high self-efficacy helps employees to maintain their job performance even when jealousy experience is high. This shows that self-efficacy beliefs motivate people that how well they can motivate themselves and persevere in the face of difficult situations (Bandura 1998; 2012). However, results regarding the moderating role of self-efficacy between the relationship of jealousy and workplace deviance are quite interesting. As illustrated in chapter five although self-efficacy has a significant moderating effect between the jealousy-workplace deviance relationship, it can help employees only when the jealousy level is low to moderate. However, at high levels of jealousy experience, self-efficacy seems to lose its regulating effect and employees with self-efficacy are also likely to resort to workplace deviance. Surprisingly the positive relationship between jealousy

and workplace deviance becomes stronger when employees with high self-efficacy experience high levels of jealousy.

A possible explanation for this could be that because self-efficacy and self-esteem are highly related constructs (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002), those who are high in self-efficacy are also likely to be high in self-esteem (Judge & Bono, 2001). The experience of jealousy can create a threat-oriented tendency (Tai et al., 2012) which threatens their self-esteem (DeSteno et al., 2006). As individuals with high self-esteem are expected to be showing more sensitivity and reaction with, anger and aggression in response to such threats (Baumeister, Smart, & Boden, 1996; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007), individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to engage in workplace deviance when they experience high levels of jealousy. Thus, under high levels of jealousy experience, even employees with high self-efficacy are overcome by this negative emotion and they are as likely to engage in workplace deviance as employees with low self-efficacy. Whereas, under low to moderate levels of jealousy experience, self-efficacy, indeed, helps to overcome the effects of jealousy and these employees tend to refrain from engaging in workplace deviant behaviors. However, the findings of this study do not show any significant role of self-efficacy in overcoming turnover intentions. Hence, the employees who experience jealous cannot resist their turnover intentions to avoid difficult workplace situation. The third and fourth research objectives have also been fulfilled.

6.7 Summary of the chapter:

This chapter discussed the results in the light of findings from literature review. As highlighted in introduction, the chapter is discussed in three sections. In the first section the findings from literature about direct effect relationships between injustice dimensions and job outcomes are discussed which follows discussion about results in the light of these findings. The second section of this chapter covers literature findings in relation to mediating effect of jealousy between injustice-job outcomes relationships. The discussion of results follows in the light of findings from literature. The final section discusses the literature findings about moderating role of self-efficacy and the discussion of results in the light of these findings.

CHAPTER-SEVEN

CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction:

This chapter presents the multifold theoretical, methodological and practical contributions of this research to the body of knowledge and highlights that how the research objectives for the research are achieved? In the final part of this chapter, the limitations of this research are acknowledged and suggestions are made for directions of future researchers.

7.2 How research objectives are achieved?

The research objectives were developed on the basis of identified research gaps in literature after detailed review. The literature review is presented in chapter two which follows by development of research hypotheses in chapter three. The research hypotheses are statistically tested and presented in chapter five. The results are discussed in the light of findings from literature in chapter six. Following research objectives were developed for this study.

7.3 Research Objectives:

1. To extend the validity of direct relationships linking employee injustice perceptions to job outcomes such as job performance, turnover intentions and workplace deviance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.
2. To investigate the mediating role of jealousy in the relationship between employee injustice perceptions and key job outcomes of workplace deviance, job-performance and turnover intentions.

3. To explore the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects workplace jealousy on key job outcomes of workplace deviance, job performance and turnover intentions.
4. To assess the significance of affective events theory in Pakistani workplace settings.

7.3.1 First research objective:

First research objective was developed to explore direct effects of employee injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. This research objective was developed based on findings from extant research that injustice perceptions play a pivotal role in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours in the workplace (Harris, Lavelle, & McMahan, 2018; Heffernan & Dundon, 2016). Injustice perceptions have been described as a “driving force” for employees in determining their attitudes and behaviours (Colquitt, Long, Rodell, & Halvorsen-Ganepola, 2015). Due to importance of injustice perceptions in workplace, many researchers investigated the effects of injustice perceptions on various job outcomes like employee commitment (Andrews, Kacmar, Blakely, & Bucklew, 2008; Paré & Tremblay, 2007) job performance, citizenship behaviours and workplace deviance behaviours (Bernerth & Walker, 2012; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, LePine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012; El Akremi, Vandenberghe, & Camerman, 2010; Krings & Facchin, 2009; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002; Rupp et al., 2017; Tekleab, Takeuchi, & Taylor, 2005; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002).

Although earlier research shows the direct effects of employee injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, most of these studies have, been conducted in western social context and much research has not been done to confirm the direct effect relationships outside the social conditions of a western society. Seeking to fill this important gap in justice research, this study firstly explored the direct effect relationships in the context of Pakistan - a different socio-cultural context - to check whether injustice perceptions can produce the same level of adverse effects on job outcomes among the employees in Pakistani workplace environment as have been seen in a western social context. Such an exploration is crucial to validate the key results in injustice research.

This exploration is also important because earlier research suggests that cultural characteristics play a vital role in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), also we do not know much about how workplace stressors such as injustice perceptions operate in collectivistic and high power distance cultures such as Pakistan (Ahmed et al., 2018; Hofstede, 1984). Without validating findings of earlier research outside the social conditions of western cultural contexts, practitioners will have little confidence about their validity in other regions (Rotundo & Xie, 2008; Tsui et al., 2007). This study, in the light of these findings, developed the research objective number one to test the direct effects of three dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

The empirical findings of this study validate the findings of earlier research i.e., all three dimensions of injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional injustice) can

adversely influence job outcomes even in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The results of the study confirm that distributive, & interactional injustice significantly influence employees' workplace deviance, and turnover intentions, whereas distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice can have adverse effects on workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. The insignificant relationship between procedural injustice > workplace deviance and procedural injustice > turnover intentions can possibly be due to the cultural differences. Employees in Pakistan may possibly attach more importance to immediate outcomes and interpersonal fairness as compared to the structural characteristics of the procedures (Aquino et al., 1999). Hence the first research objective is achieved by exploring the direct effect relationship between three dimensions of injustice and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance in socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

7.3.2 Second research objective:

Second research objective was to investigate the mediating role of jealousy in the relationship between employee injustice perceptions and job outcomes of workplace deviance, job performance and turnover intentions. The research objective was developed on the basis of gaps in existing literature after detailed review. It was noted that although the influence of injustice perceptions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance is well founded, this relationship has been mostly investigated in the context of social exchange relationship (Colquitt et al., 2013), and there is scarcity of research to explain the injustice-job outcome relationship in the context of emotions. This aspect of injustice-job outcomes relationship is important because emotions are not only the outcome of injustice perceptions (Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky & Kaplan,

2007; Weis et al., 1999) but can also influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Cropanzano et al., 2011; Johnson, Lanaj, & Barnes, 2014; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). Although extant research suggests emotions as an alternative mechanism of social exchange perspective, through which injustice perceptions may influence employee job outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013; Ferris et al., 2012), only a few justice studies have empirically examined the mediating role of emotions (Barclay et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2013), and still the role of emotions in affecting the subsequent behaviour is not very clear (Murphy & Tyler, 2008).

It was also noted that although jealousy is an important workplace emotion due to its common presence in workplace settings (Vecchio, 1997; 2000), and its association with aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006; Gunalan & Ceylan 2014), but unfortunately few studies have been done on jealousy within the organizational settings (Vecchio, 2000). Also, we do not know much about the specific events which are responsible for arousal of jealousy and that how this emotion can impact the job outcomes. Hence this oversight is an important gap in existing research. It was also noted that another significant shortcoming of justice research, is that most justice studies employ a narrow view whereby one or more of the justice types are omitted (Cole et al., 2010). Consequently, researchers emphasized the need to examine the relationship between all facets of injustice (distributive injustice, procedural injustice and interactional injustice) and emotions for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). This is important as omitting one or more justice types might lead to spurious significant relationships, which otherwise would not exist if the respective variable(s) were included (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Cole et al., 2010).

This study, accordingly, developed the research objective number two to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of three dimensions of injustice perceptions (distributive injustice, procedural injustice, and interactional injustice) and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The empirical results show that jealousy plays full mediating role between distributive injustice > turnover intention, and distributive injustice > job performance. Whereas, jealousy plays a partial mediating role of jealousy between the relationship of distributive injustice > workplace deviance relationship. Jealousy plays a partial mediating role between relationship of interactional injustice > turnover intention, interactional injustice > job performance, and interactional injustice > workplace deviance. Thus, research objective number two is achieved by investigating the mediating role of jealousy between three dimensions of injustice perceptions and job outcomes relationships such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

7.3.3 Third research objective:

Third research objective was to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on key outcomes of workplace deviance, job performance and turnover intentions. This research objective was developed to address an important theoretical gap in literature i.e., to investigate how the effects of jealousy can be regulated in the workplace. Investing a moderating variable to regulate the effects of jealousy is important because of its practical and theoretical use. Since earlier research shows that the relationship of negative emotions and their adverse consequences can be moderated by personality attributes and self-belief (Abbas et al., 2014; Jex & Bliese, 1999; Jex & Elacqua, 1999; Lehner, Azeem, Haq, & Sharif, 2014). Research objective number three seeks to examine the moderating role of self-efficacy to reduce the deleterious effects

of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

The empirical findings of this study suggest the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job performance and workplace deviance. Results suggest that high self-efficacy helps the employees in maintaining their job performance even when they are experiencing high levels of jealousy. The results of the study showed an interesting role of self-efficacy in regulating the effects of jealousy on workplace deviance. Although, self-efficacy showed a significant moderating effect on the jealousy-workplace deviance relationship, it can help employees to restrain from getting engaged in workplace deviant behaviors when they are experiencing low to moderate level of jealousy. However, when employees experience high level of jealousy, then self-efficacy seems to lose its regulating effect and self-efficacious employees also likely to resort to workplace deviance. Surprisingly the positive relationship between jealousy and workplace deviance gets stronger when employees with high self-efficacy experience high levels of jealousy. However, self-efficacy could not help employees to overcome their turnover intentions when experiencing jealousy. Hence, research objective number three is achieved by examining the moderating role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

7.3.4 Fourth research objective:

Fourth research objective was to assess the significance of affective events theory (Weiss et al., 1999) in the Pakistani workplace environment. AET is an over-arching theory which is used to explain the mediating role of emotions in the workplace (Veiga, Baldrige, & Markóczy, 2014). The theory propagates that work events are causes of employees' emotional reactions and these reactions, in turn predict job attitudes and behaviour (Hulsheger, Alberts, Feinholdt, & Lang, 2013). It is used to explain the link between an event (stimulus) and emotional and behavioural reactions to this event by a subject (response) (Veiga et al., 2014). As, AET is an overarching theory used by most scholars to explain the mediating role of emotions, the study seeks to assess its significance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan and accordingly develops research objective number four. AET was used in this study to explain the mediating role of jealousy between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance. According to AET framework, injustice serves the purpose of a workplace stimulating event which triggers an emotional response of jealousy. This emotional response of jealousy will, in turn, influence job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

The empirical results of the study show the significance of AET in Pakistani workplace settings in explaining the mechanism through which injustice perceptions trigger negative emotions such as jealousy which in turn adversely impacted job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The fourth research objective is achieved by assessing the significance of AET in Pakistani workplace settings.

7.4 Contributions of the research:

This study makes important theoretical, methodological and practical contributions. The multifold contributions of this research are discussed below.

7.4.1 Theoretical contribution:

First and foremost, this research has made advancement in the existing justice literature by extending previous work in this domain by integrating justice and emotions. Guided by AET, this study used an important workplace emotion of jealousy as a mediating mechanism to investigate the injustice-job outcomes relationship. To the best of author's knowledge, this study is the first attempt to investigate the mediating role of jealousy between injustice perceptions and job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. In doing so, this study responds earlier calls by justice scholars for integration of justice and emotions to explore the mechanism through which employee injustice perceptions translate into employee behaviour (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Barclay et al., 2005; Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Cropanzano et al., 2011; Kraemer, Gouthier, & Heidenreich, 2017; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009). The empirical findings of this study suggested that distributive and interactional injustice can trigger jealousy which in turn have adverse effects on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. Although extant research shows that jealousy is an important workplace emotion due to its common presence in workplace settings (Vecchio, 2000), and its association with aggressive behaviour (DeSteno et al., 2006), jealousy could not gain much attention from previous scholars; Extending the efforts of previous scholars and focusing on filling this gap in the literature, this study used jealousy to understand the emotional mechanism involved between injustice and the job outcomes relationship.

Second, this research studied three dimensions of organizational injustice i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional injustice in one model to create a better understanding of the nature of complete construct, and each component of it, in isolation. Previous scholars called to examine the relationship between three dimensions of injustice and emotions for a comprehensive understanding of the relationship of each dimension on job outcomes (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014), as studying all injustice dimension in one model can reflect a more accurate picture of peoples' injustice experiences and can be a close indicator of their reactions as compared to specific injustice dimensions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). The findings of this study significantly contribute to the literature by empirically evidencing that the domain of injustice perceptions indeed matter. The findings of the study empirically evidence the differential effects of each injustice dimension on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

Third, this research extended the earlier research findings on variables to regulate the negative influence of emotions on employee job outcomes. Drawing on SCT, which suggests that self-efficacy, being individuals' beliefs about their capabilities to produce results, motivate them to regulate their emotional states to achieve results (Bandura, 1998; 2012), this study, investigated the role of self-efficacy in regulating the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The findings of this study show that employees who are high in self-efficacy can restrain themselves from indulging in workplace deviance behaviours when they experience jealousy. However, self-efficacy works to overcome effects of jealousy on job performance when jealousy levels are low to medium. However, when jealousy levels are high, then self-efficacy seems to lose its regulatory mechanism. Self-efficacy was found to

have no moderating influence in addressing effects of jealousy on turnover intentions. The explanation for such findings is specifically understandable because earlier scholar frequently reported that confident employees might also think of quitting the organization in case of unfavorable working environment because they are more skillful and often have more employment opportunities due to their proven high-performance record (Jackofsky, 1984).

Fourth, the current study contributes towards the theories of coping strategies at workplace by providing evidence that workplace stressors can be managed by increasing employees' self-efficacy. Employees' self-efficacy may not only be used to buffer negative effect of injustice perceptions, it may also be used to cope up other similar constructs such as workplace bullying, incivility, ignoring behavior, and abusive supervision. So, this study's theoretical underpinning put in new direction in coping strategies at workplace, which certainly is an important theoretical contribution.

Fifth, this study tests the validity of earlier research findings about direct effects of injustice dimensions on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. This study also tests the validity of research findings in the domain of affective events theory in the new context of Pakistan. There is a growing consensus among scholars to test the validity of research findings outside the social conditions of west to enhance the confidence of practitioners (Abbas et al., 2014; Levine et al., 2011; Rotundo & Xie, 2008; Tsui et al., 2007). Checking the validity of earlier research findings in non-western context is also important because although research suggests that cultural characteristics play their role in shaping employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016), we do not know much about how workplace

stressors such as injustice perceptions operate in collectivistic and high power distance cultures as research has mainly focused on western nations (Ahmed et al., 2018). The empirical findings of this study confirm the validity of earlier research findings on injustice-job outcomes relationships in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The findings of this study also confirm the significance of affective events theory in the injustice-emotion-job outcomes relationship in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan.

Taken together, this examination extends our understanding of seeing the injustice as an affective phenomenon and how such perceptions are transformed into work attitudes and behaviors at workplace. This examination also initiates the debate of tackling the negative effects of emotions through high psychological resource of self-efficacy.

7.4.2 Empirical and methodological empirical contributions:

This study makes also important empirical and methodological contributions by validating existing scales in the context of Pakistan. Following quantitative survey approach, this study used existing scales, which were mostly tested in western settings, in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Injustice perceptions are measured using the scale developed by (Colquitt et al., 2001), workplace deviance is measured by using Aquino et al., (1999) scale, turnover intention is measured by using scale developed by Vigoda (2000), jealousy is measured by using scales developed by DeSteno et al., (2002) and Vecchio (2000). The scales showed high reliability and validity in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. Since the validity of these scales are tested outside the social conditions of west, future researchers can use these scales outside the social conditions of

west with more confidence. Especially the scale used to measure jealousy was used for the first time in the context of Pakistan. Thus, this research makes important empirical and methodological contributions by testing the validity of existing scales in the socio-cultural context of Pakistan. The scale of self-efficacy was previously used in Pakistan (Abbas et al., 2014). This study supports this validity of this scale in Pakistani workplace settings.

Another important contribution of this study is the use of multi-source design to collect data. The data for performance was measured by the supervisors of the respondents, which not only helped to deal with the common method bias, but also enrich the methodological paradigm. Another contribution is the empirical measurement of emotions by using self-report scale. The previous studies reported that considering the implicit nature of emotions, self-reported measures are better at estimating the emotional experiences (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Diener, 2000). A similar suggestion was also made to measure the deviant behaviors of the employees because some of these behaviors are covert and implicit (Khan et al., 2014). Moreover, the appraisals are important to employees and they are more likely to remember and recall more important events than the less important ones (Fabiani & Donchin, 1995). Therefore, the injustice perceptions were also measured by using self-reported measures because the individuals perceiving such perceptions can only best recall such events. Given the nature of these constructs, current study contributes towards the methodological strength by using appropriate respondents, thus, enriching the data collection procedure.

Earlier scholars frequently highlighted the need of exploring the relationship of emotions and injustice in real world settings. There are studies in literature which have

been conducted in laboratory settings in an experimental design by using students as respondents, but the validity of the findings are limit by the controlled and artificial work settings (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Weiss et al., 1999). Nevertheless, Weiss et al., (1999) explicitly ask to investigate such relationships in real world settings. Current effort to examine the relationship between fairness, emotions, and job outcomes strengthens the validity as it is conducted in a field study, which is another important contribution. Matta et al., (2014) investigated the relationship of justice, emotions and counterproductive work behaviors among young computer programmers in small companies and ask for further examination in other work settings, specifically, service jobs. This study also responded to that call by conducting the field study in banking industry and verifies the validity of earlier research findings.

7.4.3 Managerial implications:

According to Corley and Gioia (2011, P, 18) there is practical utility of a research if it “can be directly applied to the problems practicing managers and other organisational practitioners face”. Given that the injustice perceptions and negative emotions such as jealousy can have adverse effects on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intentions and job performance, this research has several important implications for managers and practitioners.

First, the findings of this research substantiate the importance of jealousy in workplace settings due to its deleterious effects on job outcomes. Extant research suggests the presence of jealousy in workplace environment (Vecchio, 2000) and its association

with aggressive behaviours (DeSteno et al., 2006). The empirical findings of this study evidence that jealousy not only commonly prevails around us but can be very harmful for organizations because of its ability to negatively influence job outcomes such workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. These findings may come as a surprise for most managers as jealousy has not gained much attention from previous scholars (Vecchio, 2000). Thus, managers need to devise strategies to deal with jealousy which otherwise can be harmful for organizations due to its deleterious effects on job outcomes. Employees who experience jealousy tend to engage in workplace deviance behaviours which can be very harmful for organization. Moreover, jealous employees also tend to reduce their performance and develop intentions to quit their organizations. Hence managers should take this negative emotion seriously to avoid its deleterious effects on job outcomes. The findings of this research not only urge managers to be aware of the presence of this pernicious emotion at work, but also give an understanding of jealousy arousal factors and its adverse effects on job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance.

Second, before managers want their employees to restrain from engaging in workplace deviance behaviours, reduce turnover and improve job performance, they need to ensure justice in organizations. The findings of this research substantiate earlier findings that injustice perceptions can trigger employee negative emotions (Barclays et al., 2005; Cole et al., 2010; Colquitt et al., 2013), such as jealousy which in turn motivate employees to engage in workplace deviance behaviours, develop intentions to quit organizations and reduce their job performance. The findings of this research suggest that managers should pay special attention to their justice mechanisms, particularly distributive and interactional justice, because jealousy is outcome of both distributive and interactional injustice. Thus,

managers need to adopt a more proactive role to ensure fair distribution of reward outcomes as well as fair and respectful interpersonal treatment of employees to curtail jealousy at workplace.

Third, this study shows the importance of each dimension of fairness for organizations. Although distributive injustice has often been given more importance by the managers (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014), they should carefully manage perceptions of each dimension. The findings of this research suggest the role of all dimensions of injustice i.e., distributive, procedural and interactional injustice in influencing employees' attitudes and behaviours. This is important for better management of employees' attitudes and behaviors in the workplace, which ultimately impact job outcomes. Positive employees' attitudes and behaviours are essential factors for achieving organizational goals. Thus, managers, who often attach importance to distributive justice and tend to underestimate other justice dimensions, should give importance to all justice facets for expecting positive employees' attitudes, and behaviours especially interactional justice.

Fourth, another implication is that managers should also give importance to employee emotions. Previous research suggests that managers often devise strategies to manage the cognitive perceptions of employees and the emotional aspect of injustice is often neglected (Reb, Goldman, Kray, & Cropanzano, 2006). This study suggests that organizations should devise strategies to understand emotions of their employees because emotional reactions can manifest in the form of negative job outcomes such as workplace deviance, turnover intention and job performance. The managers and executives should acknowledge that the effects of emotions may not always become visible problems in the

short term but may emerge over the passage of time in the long run. Therefore, organizations should devise strategies to address the emotional reactions of their employees for better job outcomes.

Fifth, another implication for managers is to recruit employees who are high in self-efficacy. Employees who have high self-efficacy are likely to have confidence in their capabilities and show more resilience under adverse situations (Bandura, 2012), and are less likely to allow feelings of jealousy to negatively influence their job performance. Maintaining fairness in the workplace and addressing low to moderate jealousy levels may also help in reducing the instances of workplace deviance and improve performances, especially among high self-efficacious employees who are high in self-efficacy. Thus, managers should make suitable changes in their hiring or employment criteria by including personality-based tests during selection processes (Abbas et al., 2014), to determine employees' self-beliefs such as self-efficacy to handle the adverse effects of jealousy experiences on key job outcomes. However, turnover intentions seem to be unavoidable outcome of jealousy. It may be prudent for management to arrange emotional management and regulation sessions with their employees. Therefore, attention should be paid to develop emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Sixth, injustice effects observed in this study suggest that one way by which organizations can reduce the jealousy experiences in workplace is by providing suitable trainings to managers and executives for managing justice mechanisms, particularly distributive and interactional injustice. This can enable managers to ensure fairness of outcomes distribution, and show respectful treatment to their employees, which may help

to control workplace jealousy to a minimum. Earlier research suggests that managers can be successfully trained to follow justice rules (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005). Such training programmes can be implemented as part of managerial and executive development programmes inside organizations. A number of organizations are already conducting such programmes. Extant literature suggests that supervisory practices can be made more effective through suitable training programmes for managers to adopt organizational fair practices (Skarlicki & Latham, 2005). Thus, suitable training programmes may make managers more aware of the pernicious effects of distributive and interactional injustice and thus enable them to promote fair outcomes and treatments (Cole et al., 2010).

Seventh, Managers can arrange anonymous attitude surveys among their employees to spot injustice perceptions. Such surveys can help to identify injustice perceptions and take appropriate steps to resolve injustice issues before they affect the organizational outcomes. Such surveys can also be useful to develop specific training programmes for managers and executives. Although many organizations are already conducting employees attitude surveys, such surveys mostly focus on general job attitudes rather than specifically on justice and emotional outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2012). Such surveys can also be important to identify any specific department or branch office where injustice is a particular issue. Specialized justice training programmes can be arranged for those departments or branches.

Eighth, the findings of this study highlight the importance of fairness in day-to-day affairs of the organizations. The results of the study suggest that fairness is important for employees as well as for organizations. The importance of fairness emanates from such

simple things like allocation of rewards, processes adopted for these rewards, and daily interaction of employees with their supervisors. Such findings may come as a surprise to managers, who might expect that employees' reactive behaviours are reactions to major events in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2012). The findings of this research suggest that organizational injustice, regardless of its dimension type, can contribute to potentially complex organizational problems such as reduced job performance, workplace deviance, and increased turnover over intentions of employees. Organizations have to pay different costs associated with turnover of an employee such as selection and rehiring cost (Dalton et al., 1982). High turnover in an organization is also a cause of reducing morale of other employees along with social capital (Des & Shaw 2001). Organizations pay high costs for trained and skilled employees upon their turnover (Des & Shaw, 2001). Similar Chang et al., (2008) argued that employee's turnover intentions increases due to complex organizational environment. This research suggests to managers and organization to inculcate create environment of equality and justice with strong organizational norm and value, which can reduce the employees' turnover.

Ninth, a further important practical implication of perceived injustice effects is to follow fairness when implementing organizational layoff programmes. In such cases, although, managers may not have control on layoff decisions, they can make the process less painful for their employees by ensuring respectful treatment and providing necessary explanations. As Barclay et al., (2005) mention employees who are laid off are particularly sensitive towards fairness. These findings are even more significant for the managers of those organizations which are undergoing big structural changes such as mergers, acquisitions, or restructuring, where the environments are already prone with uncertainty and rumors (Van den Bos, 2001; Van den Bos & Lind, 2002).

Tenth, a more specific organizational implication of this study is for organizations in Pakistan, who can use the findings of this study for managing injustice perceptions and workplace jealousy more confidently due to its validity in Pakistani organizations. Because most justice and emotions-related theories have been developed and tested in the US and western contexts (Tsui et al., 2007), Pakistani managers may remain suspicious about applicability and validity of these theories and models in the context of Pakistani organizations. The findings of this research can help the managers of Pakistani organizations specially banking organizations to apply these theories and models in their organizations, more confidently.

Eleventh, another important message for organizations is to train their employees and managers in emotional regulation. This will help employees to regulate their own emotions, in times of perceived unfair environment. Moreover, such interventions are also important for managers to learn, as they are the one who can regulate the emotions of themselves and their subordinates, if they are emotionally intelligent. Additionally, the trainings for coping with emotions can also be introduced, whereby, employees would be exposed to emotional intelligence training interventions and counseling. This would help managers to deal with their subordinate's emotional state before it transforms into detrimental workplace behaviors (Kwok, Au, & Ho, 2005).

7.5 Limitations:

While this study makes several important contributions, it acknowledges its following limitations. First, this research is conducted by collecting data from a single banking organization in Pakistan. As most of the injustice research has been conducted in

the western context, the findings of this study have limited validity in other sectors and geographical areas (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Jo & Joo, 2011). The extent of such injustice perceptions and its impact could also vary in other organizations or industries of Pakistan. However, the rationale of choosing the banking sector organization is discussed in detail in the relevant section.

Second, this study aimed to depict the relationships between justice, emotions, and behavioural outcomes. The measurement strategy of this research involved investigating the variability in justice and emotions at a given time and how this relates to outcomes. However, injustice perceptions and emotions can also change over time periods (Holtz & Harold, 2009). Thus, future researchers may conceptualize injustice perceptions and emotions as dynamic experiences and may explore these relationships over multiple time periods. Ployhart & Vandenberg (2010), for example, propose that measuring three or four times periods can help to increase our understanding of the cause and effect relationship of these variables and also how these relationships may vary over time. According to Barclay & Kiefer (2014) the measurements of justice, emotions, and behavioural outcomes over two times periods can give an indication of some changes in the relationship. Thus, future research may explore the relationships using measures at multiple times to assess the dynamic nature of this phenomenon (i.e., when it occurred, whether it changed multiple times, etc.) which would further add to our understanding of relationships.

Third, another limitation of this study is its inability to control factors like environmental support in such relationships. For example, support from supervisor or colleagues may help to cope with injustice perceptions or may also affect such perceptions

in a way that individuals would not take it as an emotional response which could be there in the absence of such support (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, & Sucharskiand; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Similarly, a significant limitation of this study is its inability to control the impact of labour market opportunities which might have an impact on the results of the study. For example, high performers have more opportunities in labour markets, hence they tend to leave the organization in cases of unfavourable working conditions.

Four, Although, job performance is measured through supervisors rated responses, other study variables are measured using self-rated responses. For example, a non-self-report scale has been developed by Stewart et al., (2009), by using the Bennett & Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance measure that displayed strong psychometric properties. However, the author decided to use the original self-rated version because the self-reported measures are better at estimating the deviant behaviors due to covert and implicit (Khan et al., 2014).

7.6 Directions for future research:

This study used self-reported data due to the nature of the constructs measured which is in line with prior research (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Marasi et al., 2016), except job performance. For example, the experience of jealousy by an employee cannot be deduced by others. Likewise, as employees tend not to engage in workplace deviance behaviours, their degree of engagement in deviance is not known b others (for example their supervisors or co-workers). Although common method bias was controlled in this

study by ensuring respondents' confidentiality and anonymity of their responses, future researchers may include data from multiple sources.

This study examines an emotion-laden mechanism of organizational injustice and an employee's job outcomes relationship. The social exchange perspective of injustice perceptions is well researched; therefore, giving rise to the need of exploring a comprehensive comparative study of perceived injustice by; comparing how the emotional and reciprocated social exchange mechanisms differ (Gouldner, 1960). This can result in getting a better insight about unique effect of each mechanism; it may even surface that some of their impact is shared. It may also help in understanding the respective role of emotions and social exchange perspective as drivers of employee attitudes and behaviours. It would also be useful to study other workplace jealousy triggering events apart from organizational injustice, like perceptions of organizational politics (Harris, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2007) because of its likelihood to trigger jealousy in the workplace. The research model can also be extended to understand the effects of jealousy on other outcomes such as customer loyalty or customer satisfaction as jealous service employees are likely to mistreat customers as deviance act.

As an important contribution, this study investigated the moderating role of self-efficacy, which is an important psychological resource. In that way, this research paves the way for future researcher to examine this resource of self-efficacy as coping strategy to other detrimental factors at workplace. For example, self-efficacy can be used to buffer the negative effects of workplace mistreatment i.e. bullying, incivility or supervisors' abusive behavior. This study significantly contributes towards establishing a coping mechanism

through developing employees' self-efficacy which helps them to remain confident on their abilities and manage the negative emotions at workplace. From another perspective, other moderating factors need to be explored in future, which may help individuals in coping with experience of jealousy. In addition, personality traits such as core self-evaluation and emotional intelligence could also weaken the negative effects of emotions and job-related outcomes and could be investigated in future.

Additionally, this study also gives valuable insights by examining a different socio-cultural context, which was also suggested by previous researchers to test the validity of earlier research findings outside the social conditions of west (Johns, 2006). While the findings of this study provide support for earlier research findings in injustice domain, it certainly highlighted the importance of examining more discrete contextual factors (Abbas et al., 2014). This could be achieved by comparing the findings with similar cultural context in Asian countries which will help to increase reliability of research findings, as cultural values can differ from country to country.

This study provided a valuable understanding of the relationships between injustice, emotions, and outcomes. Future research in this domain may focus on adopting a person-centric approach i.e., to investigate how individuals experience injustice as they experience it and how these experiences reflect over a period of time (Guo, Rupp, Weiss, & Trougakos, 2011; Weiss & Rupp, 2011). Future researchers may, therefore, aim to examine the dynamic psychological and experiential processes that play a role in individuals' changing experiences of injustice (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014). Adopting the person-centric perspective to examine processes, in the moment and over time, can help in further understanding the relationships between injustice and emotions.

There are certain other relevant factors, which might be helpful in explaining the injustice and job outcome relationship as possible alternative explanation. A relevant construct, for example, is equity sensitivity. Individuals who are more equity sensitive probably react differently as compared to others. As another possible alternate explanation, individual's social identities are particularly related with interactional injustice, whereby, individuals viewed their identity being threatened hence involved in deviant behaviors (Blader & Tyler, 2009). So, this study suggests future researchers to examine injustice and outcome relationship in more discrete way, and include factors like equity sensitivity, individual identity and/or group identity.

7.7 Conclusion:

The prima facie evidence of this study significantly provide an understanding of the organizational justice phenomenon. This study tested the findings of earlier injustice research, which mainly focused on western societies (Ahmed et al., 2018), in the socio-cultural context due to possible influence of cultural factors on employee workplace perceptions (Eatough et al., 2016; Johns, 2006; Shao et al., 2013). This study also significantly contributes to the organizational justice literature by examining of the emotional mechanism through which injustice perceptions translate to detrimental job outcomes. A moderating role of self-efficacy in handling the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes is also proposed.

This study concludes that organizational injustice is detrimental for organizations because of its ability to trigger negative emotions such as jealousy, which impact job outcomes adversely. If employees are treated with unfairness, they can feel it. This experience has been described as “hot” and painful (Bies, 2001), which results in a

negative emotional reaction to balance the score by involving in undesirable attitudes and behaviours. Such undesirable employee attitudes and behaviours impact job outcomes. Therefore, it is essential for organizations to ensure fairness in workplaces especially distributive and interactional fairness. A just environment motivates employees to maintain positive attitudes and behaviours even when things are not going right for them (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). This study suggests giving importance to employee emotions in the workplace as they can think and feel about injustice (Barclay & Kiefer, 2014; Colquitt et al., 2013; Johnson et al., 2014). This research also sheds light on the mechanism to deal with deleterious effects of jealousy specifically through employees' self-efficacy. Employees' psychological resources of self-efficacy can help them to deal with difficult situations like coping with negative emotions such as jealousy to reduce the deleterious effects of jealousy on job outcomes. Thus, organizations, by ensuring organizational justice, can reap maximum returns from their employees in the form of higher employee performances, retention of high performers and avoiding workplace deviant behaviours.

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Pakistan billed to become 18th largest economy, available at <https://tribune.com.pk/story/660936/global-ranking-pakistan-billed-to-become-18th-largest-economy-by-2050/>

Economic growth of Pakistan, State Bank of Pakistan, available at <http://www.sbp.org.pk/reports/annual/arFY16/Chapter-01.pdf>

APPENDICES

Appendix A - Ethical approval

University of
Salford
MANCHESTER

College of Arts & Social Sciences
Room 633 Maxwell Building
The Crescent
Salford, M5 4WT
Tel: 0161 295 5876

29 April 2015

Muhammad Khan
University of Salford

Dear Muhammad

Re: Ethical Approval Application – 140021

I am pleased to inform you that based on the information provided, the Research Ethics Panel have no objections on ethical grounds to your project.

Yours sincerely

Deborah Woodman
On Behalf of CASS Research Ethics Panel

Appendix B - Permission request from bank for conducting research

The General Manager (HR),
Human Resource Management Department,

Subject: Introduction to PhD research

Dear Sir/Madam,

The purpose of this letter is to introduce my PhD research and explain the data collection process from your organization. University of Salford, UK supervises this doctoral research and ethical approval has been obtained for this project.

You can appreciate that employees' workplace behaviours are extremely important for the goals of any organization. This research aims to investigate the effects of perceived injustice on key employee outcomes. This study will also examine the role of negative emotion of workplace jealousy and individuals' personality trait of self-efficacy. This research would also suggest some managerial implications in the light of research findings.

I propose to conduct paper based questionnaire survey from employees and their immediate supervisors. I would like to extend my assurance that any data collected will be completely confidential and no one will be identified in any written report or publication and only aggregate data will be presented. I would also like to explain that I am bound by the "Code of Ethics of the University of Salford" which mandates complete confidentiality and that, under no circumstances, would any information divulged in this questionnaire be revealed. Further, that information/data will be kept in a locked cabinet, accessible only by the researcher. Information kept on computer would be password protected.

Moreover, participation in this survey is completely voluntary and respondents have the right to refuse to take part in the study or withdraw at any stage without explanation.

I would be grateful for your permission to conduct the research in your organization.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you require further clarification.

Sincerely yours,

Muhammad Arshad Khan

Doctoral researcher, University of Salford, UK

Email: M.A.Khan7@edu.salford.ac.uk

Mobile: +44 7427091202

Appendix C - Survey Questionnaire

Respected Sir/Madam,

My name is Muhammad Arshad Khan. I am a research student at University of Salford, UK. I am inviting you to complete a **survey that will take about 25 to 30 minutes**. As part of PhD program at University of Salford, I am carrying out a study to learn about the effects of perceived injustice on workplace outcomes of employee performance, turnover intentions, and workplace deviance. I am also interested in learning about the influence of workplace jealousy and personality trait of self-efficacy in workplace settings.

I selected your name from the list of employees provided to me by your organization. Your organization provided this list to me on the basis of your consent that you have given to your organization to participate in the study. However your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right to refuse to take part in the study. If you decide to be part of the study, you can still withdraw at any point for whatever reason, even after ticking the consent box. If you decide to withdraw, there will be no consequences to you. In case of withdrawal, any data you have provided will be destroyed unless you indicate otherwise.

Please answer the questions honestly as there are no right or wrong answers. Your responses in this study will be completely confidential. Any information obtained in connection with this study, will remain highly confidential. No one will be identified in any written report or publication, and only aggregate data will be presented. **I would like to mention that I am also bound by the "Code Of Ethics Of University Of Salford" which mandates complete confidentiality and that under no circumstances any information divulged in this questionnaire be revealed.** The information / data you provide will be kept in a locked cabinet where only I will have access to it. The information kept on a computer will be protected by a password.

If you have any question or need more information about the study itself, please contact me at:

E-Mail: m.a.khan7@edu.salford.ac.uk

Telephone: 0092(0)3009507886 (Pakistan) / 0044(0)7427091202 (UK)

I expect to have this study completed by approximately June 2017. If you would like a brief summary of the results, please let me know.

I would like to thank you in advance for your time. Your precious time and valuable participation will be a great contribution towards the noble cause of knowledge creation.

CONSENT

- I understand that I have the opportunity to ask questions about my involvement in this study and to receive additional details requested.
- I completely understand the nature of study.

- I understand that I have the right to refuse to take part in the study. If I agree to participate in this study, I can still withdraw from the study at any point even after ticking the consent box.
- I have been given a copy of this consent sheet.
- I agree to participate in this study. (Please tick the relevant box to show your consent to participate in the study or not).

 Yes No

- I would like to receive a summary of the study's results.

 Yes No

Please send them to me at this e-mail address: -----

Muhammad Arshad Khan
PhD Student
University of Salford, Manchester, UK
E-Mail: m.a.khan7@edu.salford.ac.uk
Telephone: 0092(0)3009507886 (Pakistan) / 0044(0)7427091202 (UK)

Please tick/fill with the appropriate answer:

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age in years: 18-24 25-31 32-38 39-45 46 & above

3. Race/Ethnicity: Punjabi Balochi Sindhi Pathan AJK Gilgit / Baltistan

4. Designation: _____

5. Job Nature: (You can tick more than one option)

Field work Office work Technical Staff Managerial

6. Tenure with current organization:

Less than 1 year 1-5 years 5-10 years 10-15 years 15 & above

7. Total Experience: ____ (Years)

8. How many organizations you have worked in? _____

9. Monthly Income: Below 25,000 25,000-40,000 41,000-50,000 51,000 and Above

10. Highest Qualification: SSC HSSC Graduation Master M.Phil/PhD

For each item of the statements below, please indicate the extent of your agreement and disagreement by ticking the appropriate number.

Organizational Injustice

Distributive injustice sub-scale: These items refer to the benefits / rewards your organization provides for your efforts at work (e.g. pay increase, bonuses, promotion, time-off etc). The words outcomes used below refer to your "benefits / rewards" such as pay increase, bonuses, promotion, time-off etc.

	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	These outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work.					
2	These outcomes are appropriate for the work I do.					
3	These outcomes reflect what I have contributed to the organization.					
4	These outcomes are justified, given my performance.					

Procedural Injustice sub-scale: The following items refer to the procedures or processes which are used by the supervisors / managers / management to decide the "benefits/rewards" provided to you (your performance appraisal procedures).

	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
5	I have expressed my views and feelings during those procedures.					
6	I had the influence over the outcomes arrived at by those procedures.					
7	Those procedures been applied consistently.					
8	Those procedures have been free of bias.					
9	Those procedures have been based on accurate information.					
10	I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by those procedures.					
11	Those procedures confirm ethical and moral standards.					

Interactional injustice sub-scale: The following items refer to your Manager / Regional or Area Manager who has / have a determining / deciding role in the "benefits / rewards" which organization offers to you.

	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
12	My manager treats me in a polite manner.					
13	My manager treats me with dignity.					
14	My manager treats me with respect.					
15	My manager refrains from improper remarks or comments.					
16	My manager has been candid/frank in his/her communications with me.					
17	My manager explains the procedures thoroughly.					
18	My manager's explanations regarding the procedures are reasonable.					
19	My manager communicates details in a timely manner.					
20	My manager seems to tailor his/her communications to individuals'					

	specific needs					
--	----------------	--	--	--	--	--

Intention to quit: please choose the extent to which you think about each question below:

	Questions	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
21	I often think about quitting this job.					
22	Next year I will probably look for a new job outside this organization.					
23	Lately, I have taken interest in job offers in the newspaper					

Workplace deviance

Please read carefully the scale is changed now.

Please choose the option by considering that being an employee, how many times in the last year you:

	Questions	Never	1 to 3 times	4 to 10 times	11 to 20 times	More than 20 times
38	made an ethnic, racial or religious slur against a co-worker					
39	swore at a co-worker					
40	refused to talk to a co-worker					
41	gossiped about your supervisor.					
42	made an obscene comment or gesture at co-worker					
43	Teased a coworker in front of other employees.					
44	intentionally arrived late for work					
45	called in sick when not really ill					
46	took underserved breaks to avoid work					
47	made unauthorized use of organizational property					
48	left work early without permission					
49	lied about the number of hours worked.					

50	worked on a personal matter on the job instead of working for employer.					
51	purposely ignored supervisor's instructions.					

Jealousy

The following items refer to the workplace jealousy. Please tick for each item, the extent to which, you felt regarding the following:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

52	I would feel rejected by my manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
53	I would not feel angry with my manager or with the person he/she was with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54	I would feel depressed when my manager speaks favourably about another employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55	I would be resentful if my manager asked one of my coworkers for help with a problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56	I sometimes worry that my manager will feel that another employee is more competent than I.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Self-Efficacy

The following items refer to the personal trait of self-efficacy. Please tick for each question, the extent to which, you disagree or agree with the following statements:

57	I feel confident analyzing a long-term problem to find a solution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58	I feel confident in representing my work area in meetings with management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59	I feel confident contributing to discussions about the organization's strategy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60	I feel confident helping to set targets/goals in my work area	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
61	I feel confident contacting people outside the organization (e.g., suppliers, customers) to discuss problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

62	I feel confident presenting information to a group of colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
----	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

“Thank you for giving your precious time to contribute towards noble cause of knowledge creation by filling this questionnaire.”

Questionnaire used for supervisor reported responses

Respected Sir/Madam,

My name is Muhammad Arshad Khan. I am a research student at University of Salford, UK. I am inviting you to complete a **survey that will take about 25 to 30 minutes**. As part of PhD program at University of Salford, I am carrying out a study to learn about the effects of perceived injustice on workplace outcomes of employee performance, turnover intentions, and workplace deviance. I am also interested in learning about the influence of workplace jealousy and personality trait of self-efficacy in workplace settings.

I selected your name from the list of supervisors provided to me by your organization. Your organization provided this list to me on the basis of your consent that you have given to your organization to participate in the study. However your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right to refuse to take part in the study. If you decide to be part of the study, you can still withdraw at any point for whatever reason, even after ticking the consent box. If you decide to withdraw, there will be no consequences to you. In case of withdrawal, any data you have provided will be destroyed unless you indicate otherwise.

Please answer the questions honestly as there are no right or wrong answers. Your responses in this study will be completely confidential. Any information obtained in connection with this study, will remain highly confidential. No one will be identified in any written report or publication, and only aggregate data will be presented. **I would like to mention that I am also bound by the "Code Of Ethics Of University Of Salford" which mandates complete confidentiality and that under no circumstances any information divulged in this questionnaire be revealed.** The information / data you provide will be kept in a locked cabinet where only I will have access to it. The information kept on a computer will be protected by a password.

If you have any question or need more information about the study itself, please contact me at:

E-Mail: m.a.khan7@edu.salford.ac.uk

Telephone: 0092(0)3009507886 (Pakistan) / 0044(0)7427091202 (UK)

I expect to have this study completed by approximately June 2017. If you would like a brief summary of the results, please let me know.

I would like to thank you in advance for your time. Your precious time and valuable participation will be a great contribution towards the noble cause of knowledge creation.

CONSENT

- I understand that I have the opportunity to ask questions about my involvement in this study and to receive additional details requested.

- I completely understand the nature of study.
- I understand that I have the right to refuse to take part in the study. If I agree to participate in this study, I can still withdraw from the study at any point even after ticking the consent box.
- I have been given a copy of this sheet.
- I agree to participate in this study. (Please tick the relevant box to show your consent to participate in the study or not).

 Yes

 No

- I would like to receive a summary of the study's results.

 Yes

 No

Please send them to me at this e-mail address: -----

Muhammad Arshad Khan
 PhD Student
 University of Salford, Manchester, UK
 E-Mail: m.a.khan7@edu.salford.ac.uk
 Telephone: 0092(0)3009507886 (Pakistan) / 0044(0)7427091202 (UK)

Please tick for each statement, the extent to which, you think about below mentioned employee's performance:

(1) None (2) Rarely (3) Sometimes (4) More Often/Mostly (5) A Lot

This Employee :

1. Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Performs task that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Fails to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5

“Thank you for giving your precious time to contribute towards noble cause of knowledge creation by filling this questionnaire.”

Appendix D – Outliers tests - Univariate outlier analysis using Z-Score

Descriptive Statistics			
	N	Minimum	Maximum
Zscore(diss1)	388	-1.48480	2.07689
Zscore(diss2)	388	-1.37444	2.13977
Zscore(diss3)	388	-1.16415	1.98900
Zscore(diss4)	388	-1.32132	2.34062
Zscore(procedural1)	388	-1.46653	2.11217
Zscore(procedural2)	388	-1.34425	2.81168
Zscore(procedural3)	388	-1.29525	2.31378
Zscore(procedural4)	388	-1.33656	2.55527
Zscore(procedural5)	388	-1.44287	2.45840
Zscore(procedural6)	388	-1.25035	2.53239
Zscore(procedural7)	388	-1.80443	2.30184
Zscore(IPI1)	388	-1.51927	1.86853
Zscore(IPI2)	388	-1.46618	1.84125
Zscore(IPI3)	388	-1.48070	1.73335
Zscore(IPI4)	386	-1.41755	1.81062
Zscore(INFO11)	388	-1.63481	2.13521
Zscore(INFO12)	388	-1.40944	2.16483
Zscore(INFO13)	388	-1.31340	2.06702
Zscore(INFO14)	388	-1.28978	2.02436
Zscore(INFO15)	388	-1.51772	2.14558
Zscore(i2q1)	388	-2.27461	1.66534
Zscore(i2q2)	388	-2.63178	1.60528
Zscore(i2q3)	388	-2.35702	1.55957
Zscore(WD1)	388	-.85269	3.24866
Zscore(WD2)	388	-1.11224	3.73662
Zscore(WD3)	388	-1.04722	3.62314
Zscore(WD4)	388	-1.73477	1.44769
Zscore(WD5)	388	-1.03246	3.16225
Zscore(WD6)	388	-1.05748	3.02514
Zscore(WD7)	388	-1.26113	3.15708
Zscore(WD8)	388	-1.36351	2.60679
Zscore(WD9)	388	-1.36073	2.39034
Zscore(WD10)	388	-.83689	3.29958
Zscore(WD11)	386	-1.26344	3.05238
Zscore(WD12)	388	-1.33547	1.48446
Zscore(WD13)	388	-1.34724	2.72862
Zscore(WD14)	386	-1.33969	2.12162
Zscore(jlsy1)	388	-2.04505	1.32668

Zscore(jlsy2)	388	-1.20678	2.11401
Zscore(jlsy3)	388	-2.24262	1.09764
Zscore(jlsy4)	388	-2.43600	1.26329
Zscore(jlsy5)	388	-2.52192	.98317
Zscore(SE1)	388	-2.48977	1.36921
Zscore(SE2)	388	-2.08297	1.57677
Zscore(SE3)	388	-1.63767	1.71545
Zscore(SE4)	388	-2.83747	1.21506
Zscore(SE5)	388	-1.71038	1.55336
Zscore(SE6)	388	-1.74410	1.57582
Zscore(JP1)	388	-1.70636	1.75543
Zscore(JP2)	388	-1.61768	1.63024
Zscore(JP3)	388	-1.73646	1.79101
Zscore(JP4)	388	-2.17672	2.14885
Zscore(JP5)	388	-2.68669	2.28913
Zscore(JP6)	388	-2.19346	1.78346
Zscore(JP7)	388	-1.77612	1.45167
Valid N (listwise)	382		

Univariate outlier analysis using Z-Score

Outliers test - results of Mahalanobis Distance test

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Mahalanobis Distance	388	100.0%	0	0.0%	388	100.0%

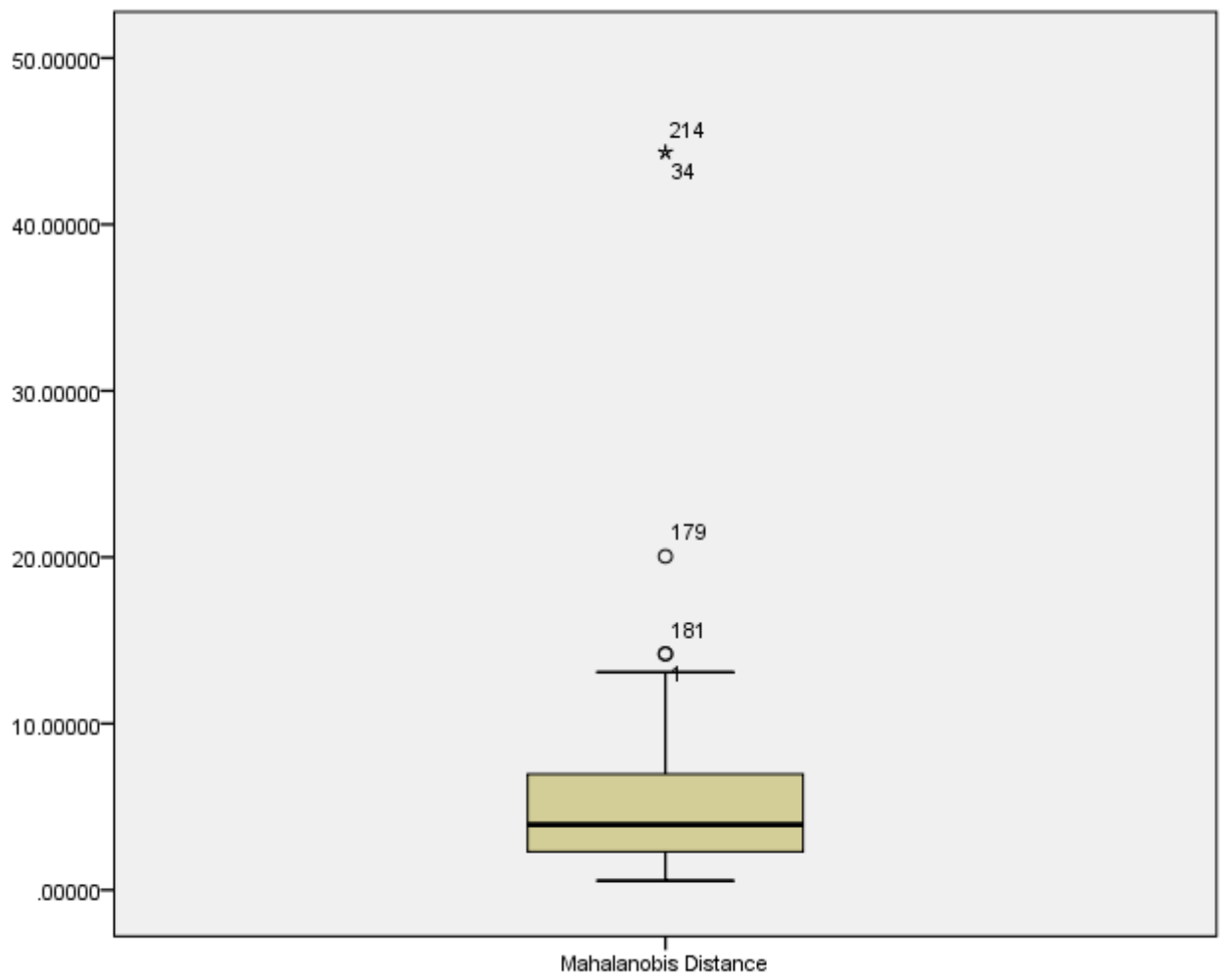
Descriptives

		Statistic	Std. Error
Mahalanobis Distance	Mean	4.9871134	.21354068
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound 4.5672683	
		Upper Bound 5.4069585	
	5% Trimmed Mean	4.5881138	
	Median	3.9354001	
	Variance	17.693	
	Std. Deviation	4.20626353	
	Minimum	.55155	
	Maximum	44.33219	
	Range	43.78064	
	Interquartile Range	4.66089	
	Skewness	4.626	.124
	Kurtosis	38.355	.247

Extreme Values

			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1	34	44.33219
		2	214	44.33219
		3	179	20.05213
		4	1	14.19062
		5	181	14.19062
	Lowest	1	298	.55155
		2	256	.55155
		3	295	.82001
		4	253	.82001
		5	300	.93570 ^a

a. Only a partial list of cases with the value .93570 are shown in the table of lower extremes.



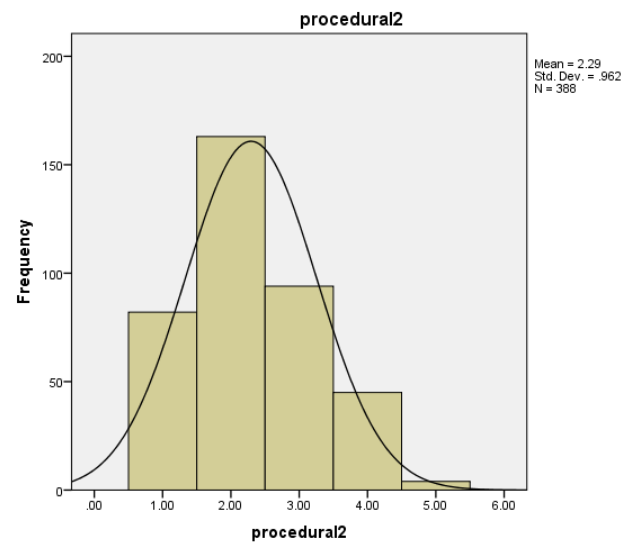
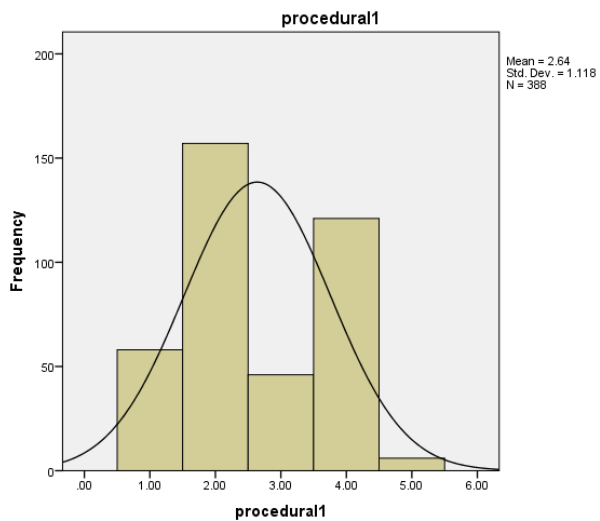
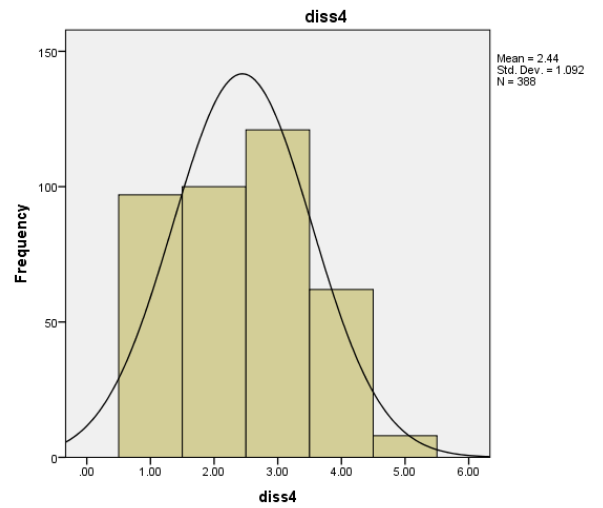
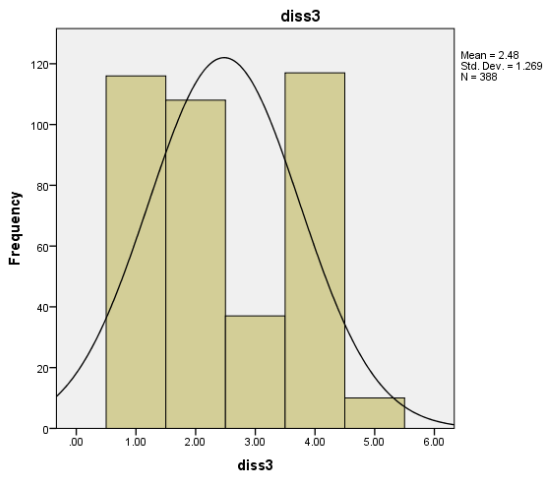
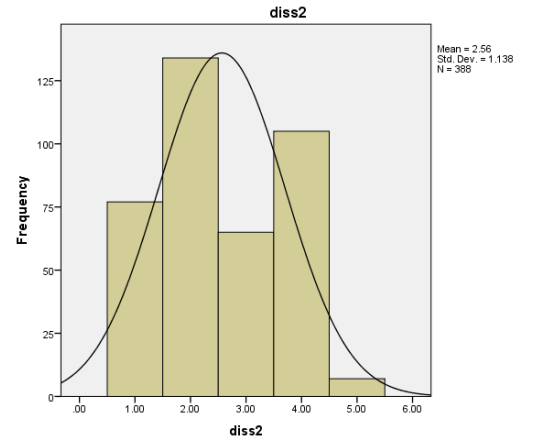
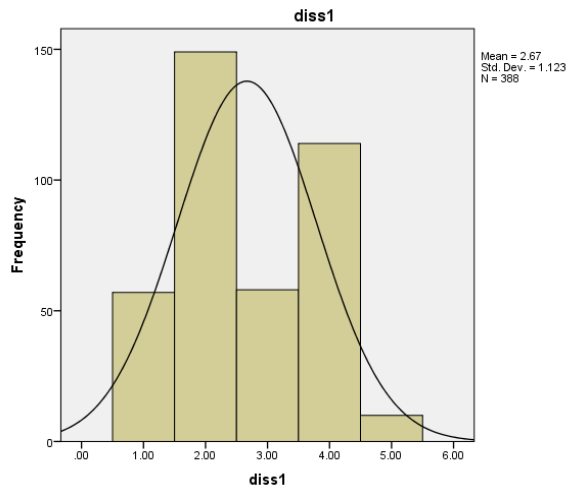
Appendix E – results of normality tests:

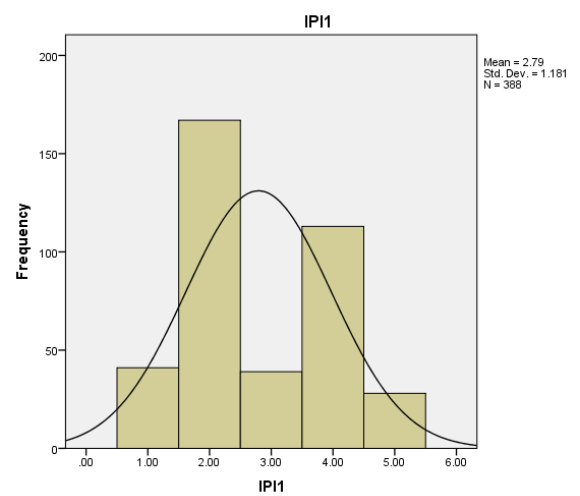
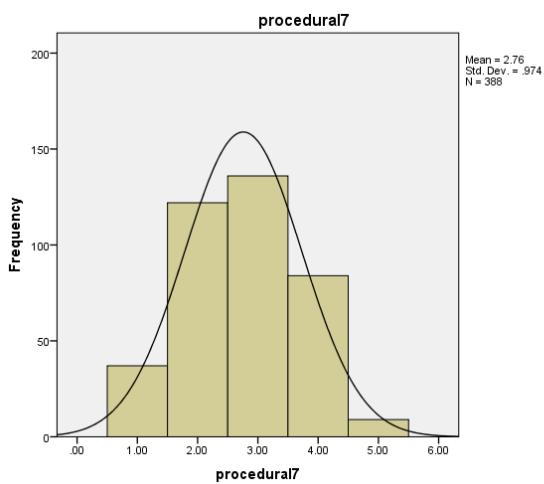
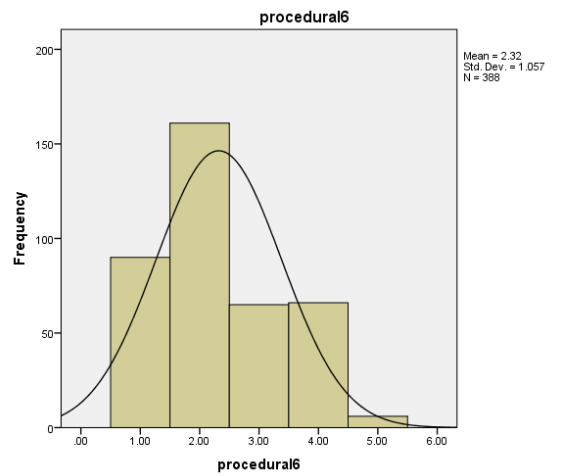
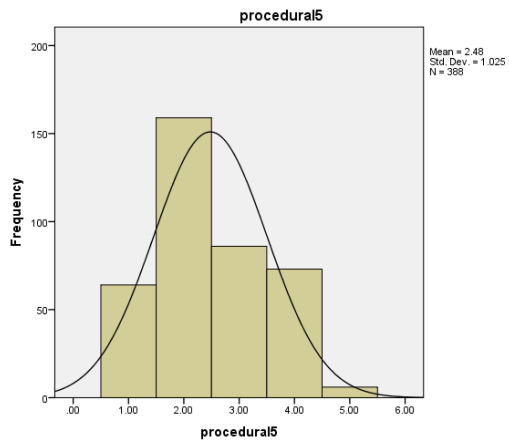
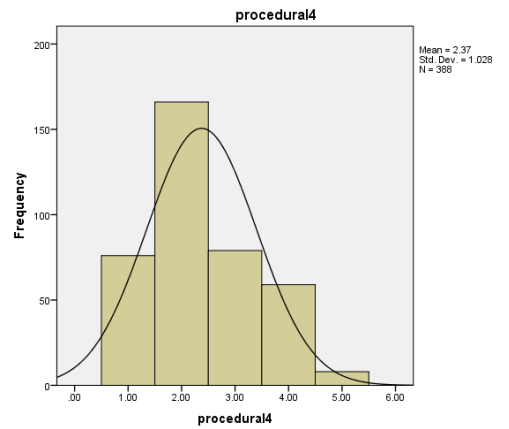
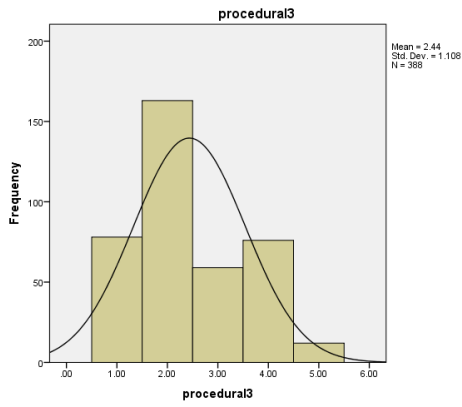
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk			Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Df	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Sig.	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
diss1	.255	388	.165	-1.165	.247	.000	.165	.124	-1.165	.247
diss2	.234	388	.173	-1.195	.247	.000	.173	.124	-1.195	.247
diss3	.224	388	.247	-1.407	.247	.000	.247	.124	-1.407	.247
diss4	.187	388	.176	-.918	.247	.000	.176	.124	-.918	.247
procedura l1	.270	388	.167	-1.263	.247	.000	.167	.124	-1.263	.247
procedura l2	.251	388	.449	-.423	.247	.000	.449	.124	-.423	.247
procedura l3	.274	388	.496	-.732	.247	.000	.496	.124	-.732	.247
procedura l4	.266	388	.508	-.485	.247	.000	.508	.124	-.485	.247
procedura l5	.255	388	.338	-.758	.247	.000	.338	.124	-.758	.247
procedura l6	.267	388	.514	-.668	.247	.000	.514	.124	-.668	.247
procedura l7	.191	388	.029	-.629	.247	.000	.029	.124	-.629	.247
IPI1	.285	388	.283	-1.142	.247	.000	.283	.124	-1.142	.247
IPI2	.267	388	.258	-1.132	.247	.000	.258	.124	-1.132	.247

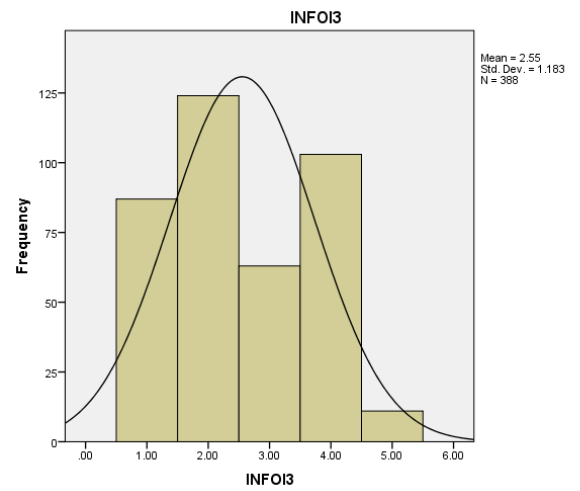
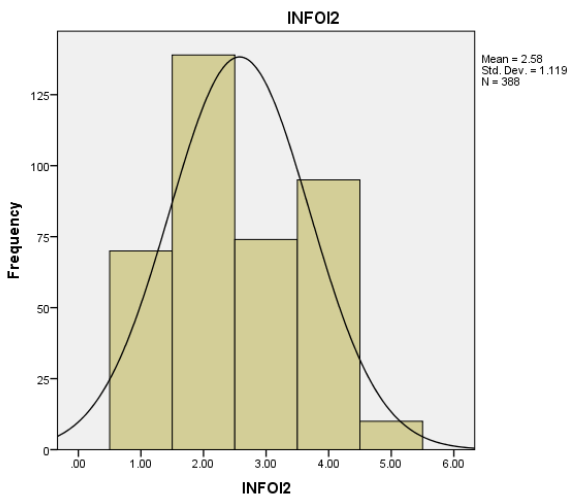
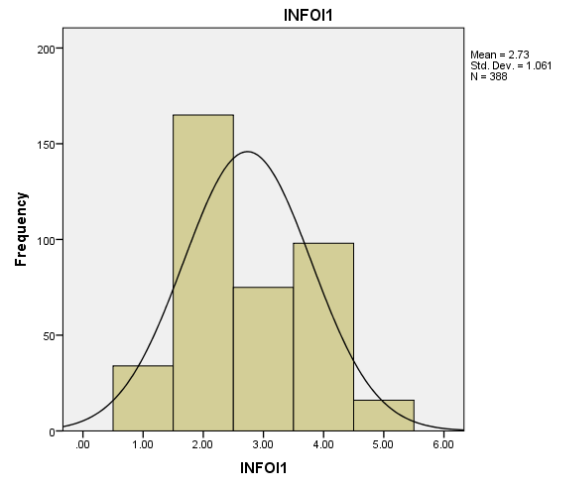
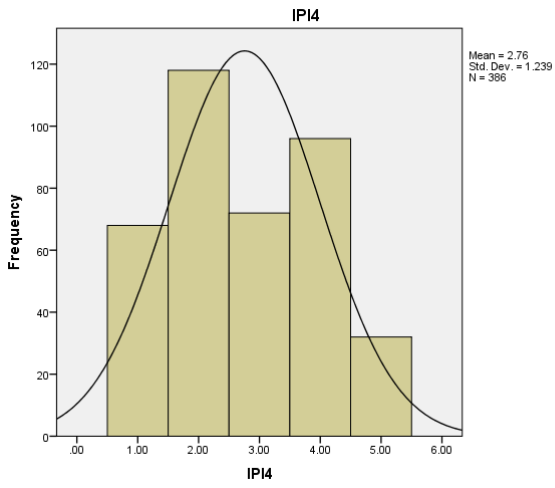
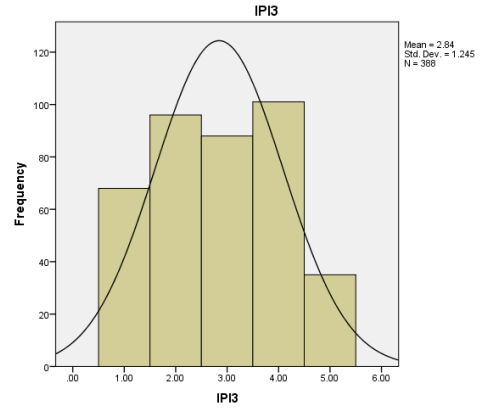
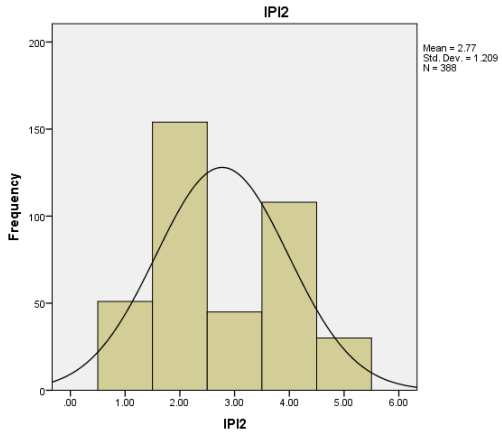
IPI3	.174	388	.034	-1.085	.247	.000	.034	.124	-1.085	.247
IPI4	.211	386	.175	-1.091	.248	.000	.175	.124	-1.091	.248
INFO11	.269	388	.311	-.893	.247	.000	.311	.124	-.893	.247
INFO12	.236	388	.222	-1.041	.247	.000	.222	.124	-1.041	.247
INFO13	.224	388	.204	-1.195	.247	.000	.204	.124	-1.195	.247
INFO14	.185	388	.123	-1.257	.247	.000	.123	.124	-1.257	.247
INFO15	.232	388	.150	-1.023	.247	.000	.150	.124	-1.023	.247
i2q1	.293	388	-.545	-.575	.247	.000	-.545	.124	-.575	.247
i2q2	.313	388	-.752	.085	.247	.000	-.752	.124	.085	.247
i2q3	.245	388	-.369	-.529	.247	.000	-.369	.124	-.529	.247
WD1	.319	388	.879	-.038	.247	.000	.879	.124	-.038	.247
WD2	.233	388	.377	-.745	.247	.000	.377	.124	-.745	.247
WD3	.242	388	.547	-.505	.247	.000	.547	.124	-.505	.247
WD4	.160	388	-.172	-.930	.247	.000	-.172	.124	-.930	.247
WD5	.269	388	1.019	.863	.247	.000	1.019	.124	.863	.247
WD6	.208	388	.789	.371	.247	.000	.789	.124	.371	.247
WD7	.217	388	.557	.369	.247	.000	.557	.124	.369	.247
WD8	.279	388	.021	-.635	.247	.000	.021	.124	-.635	.247
WD9	.266	388	-.090	-1.063	.247	.000	-.090	.124	-1.063	.247
WD10	.259	388	1.355	1.540	.247	.000	1.355	.124	1.540	.247
WD11	.224	386	.165	-.846	.248	.000	.165	.124	-.846	.248
WD12	.238	388	-.134	-1.431	.247	.000	-.134	.124	-1.431	.247
WD13	.237	388	.604	.206	.247	.000	.604	.124	.206	.247
WD14	.205	386	-.058	-1.344	.248	.000	-.058	.124	-1.344	.248
jlsy1	.249	388	-.650	-.918	.247	.000	-.650	.124	-.918	.247

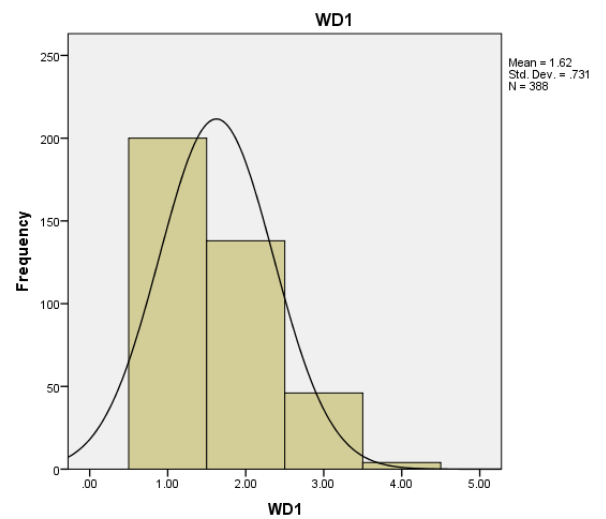
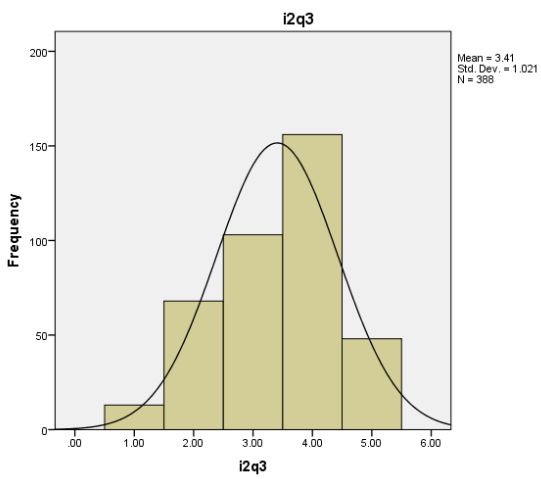
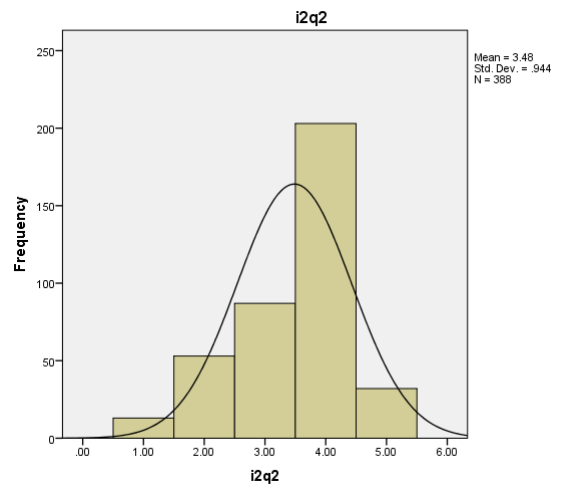
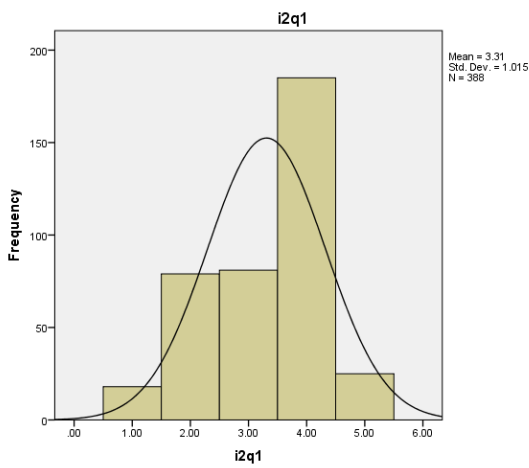
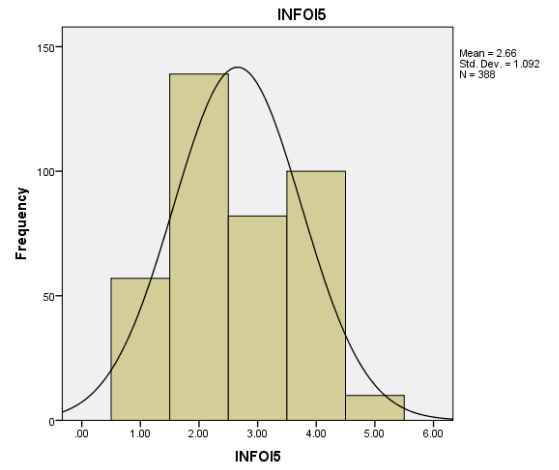
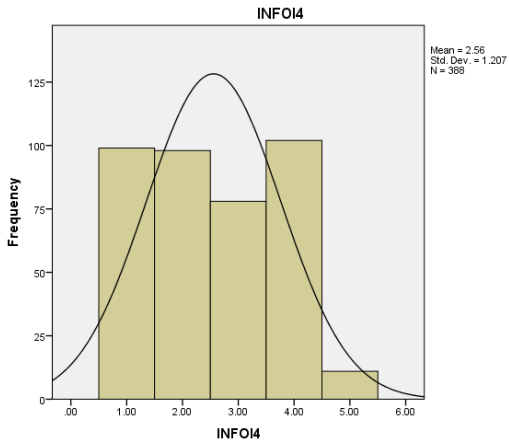
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jlsy4	.251	388	-.914	-.288	.247	.000	-.914	.124	-.288	.247
jlsy5	.302	388	-1.091	.062	.247	.000	-1.091	.124	.062	.247
SE1	.266	388	-.804	-.519	.247	.000	-.804	.124	-.519	.247
SE2	.220	388	-.366	-1.351	.247	.000	-.366	.124	-1.351	.247
SE3	.205	388	.045	-1.436	.247	.000	.045	.124	-1.436	.247
SE4	.295	388	-1.079	.117	.247	.000	-1.079	.124	.117	.247
SE5	.206	388	-.001	-1.609	.247	.000	-.001	.124	-1.609	.247
SE6	.202	388	-.012	-1.598	.247	.000	-.012	.124	-1.598	.247
JP1	.231	388	-.076	-1.125	.247	.000	-.076	.124	-1.125	.247
JP2	.190	388	-.060	-1.055	.247	.000	-.060	.124	-1.055	.247
JP3	.233	388	-.142	-1.091	.247	.000	-.142	.124	-1.091	.247
JP4	.228	388	-.085	-1.100	.247	.000	-.085	.124	-1.100	.247
JP5	.226	388	-.207	-.334	.247	.000	-.207	.124	-.334	.247
JP6	.311	388	-.254	-1.317	.247	.000	-.254	.124	-1.317	.247
JP7	.256	388	-.166	-1.235	.247	.000	-.166	.124	-1.235	.247

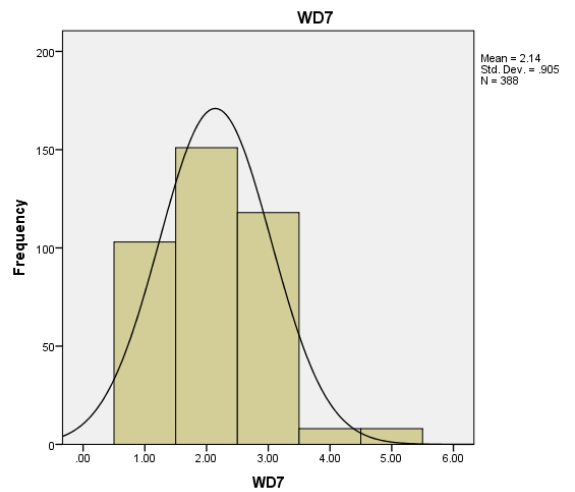
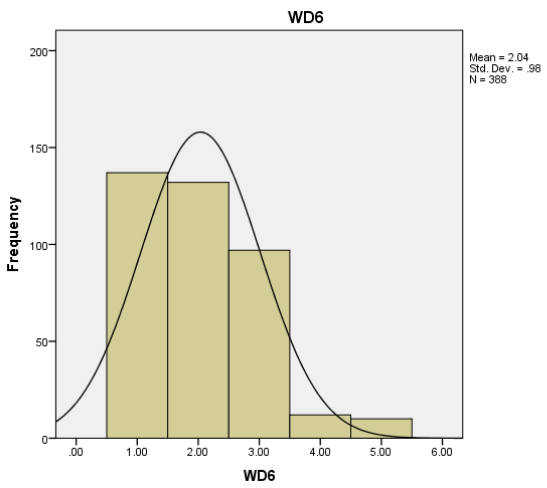
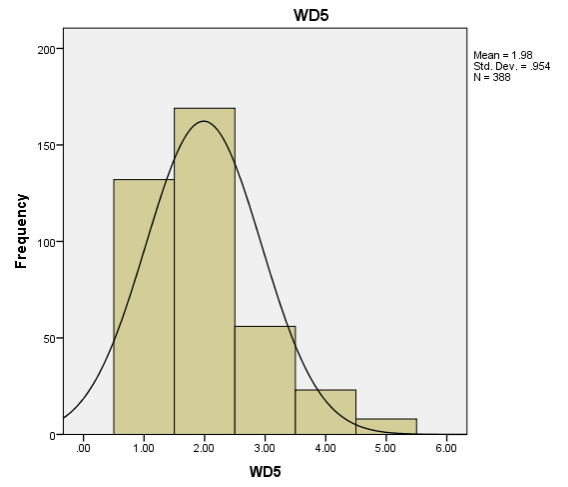
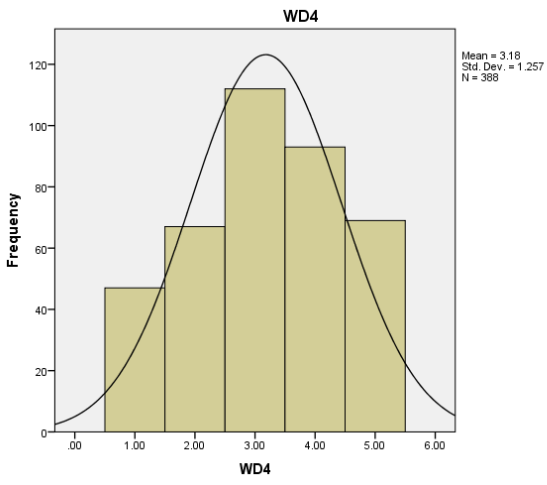
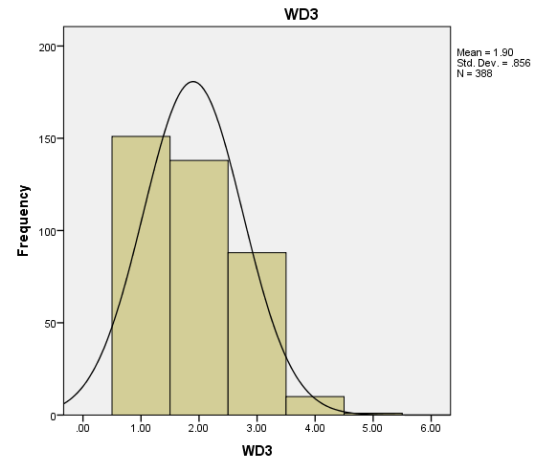
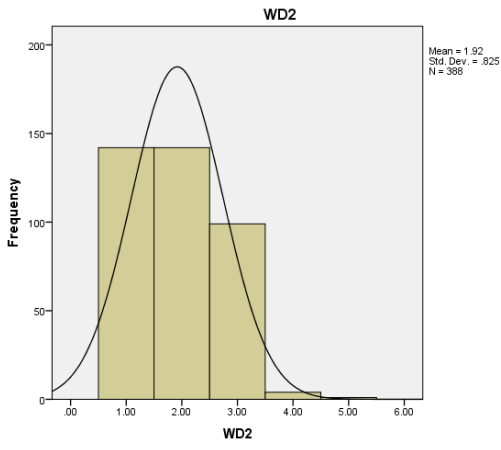
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

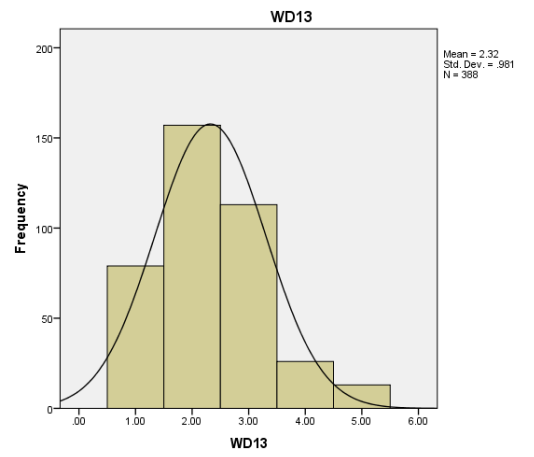
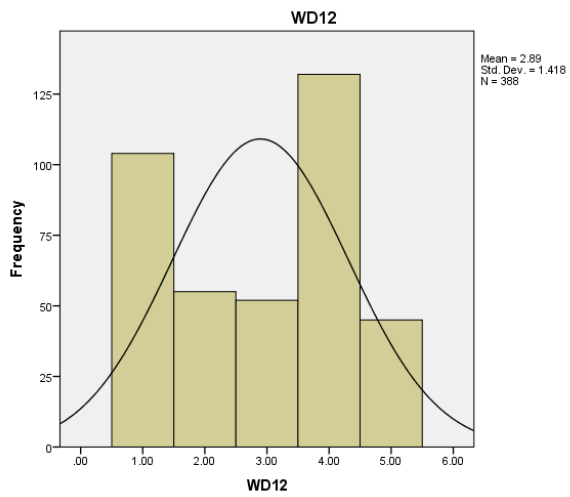
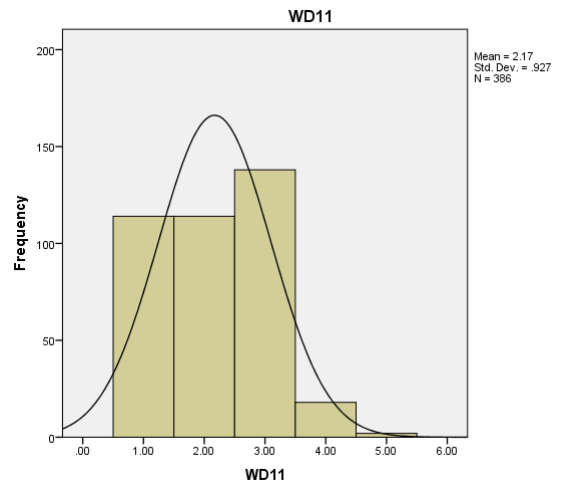
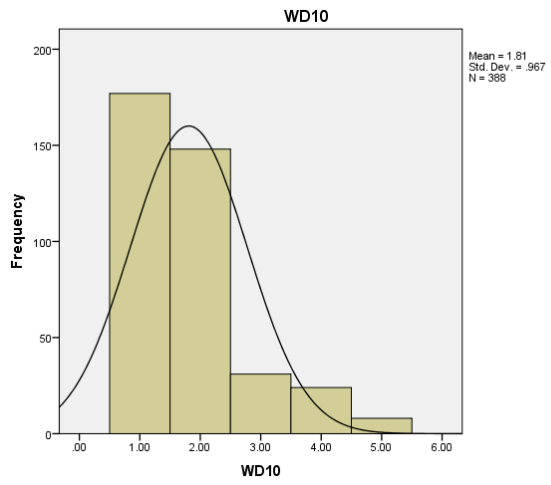
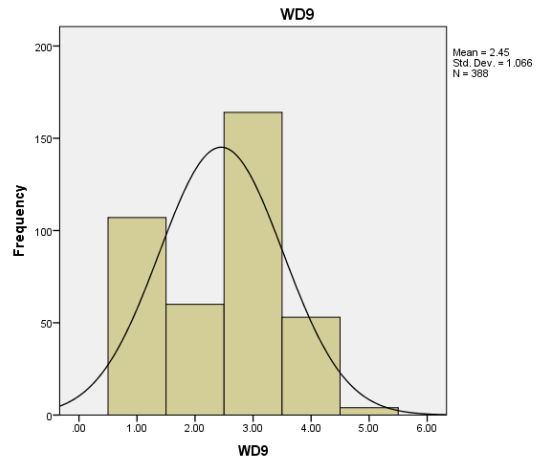
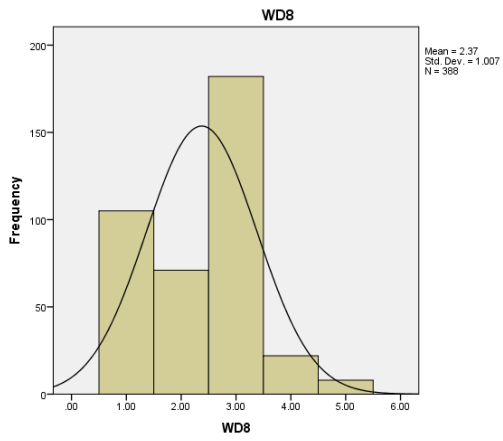


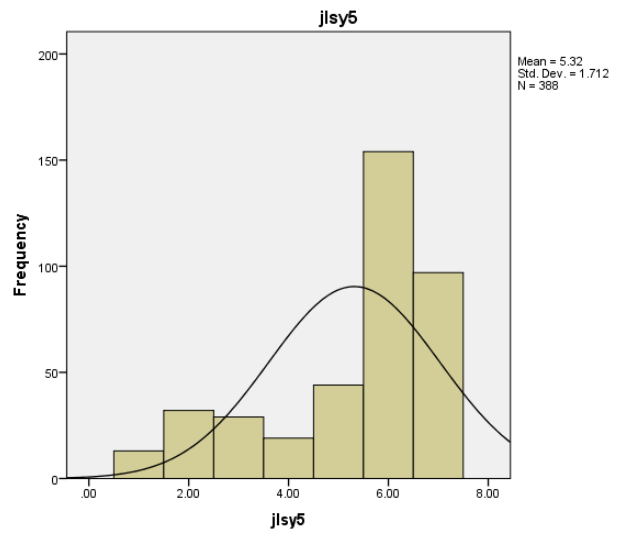
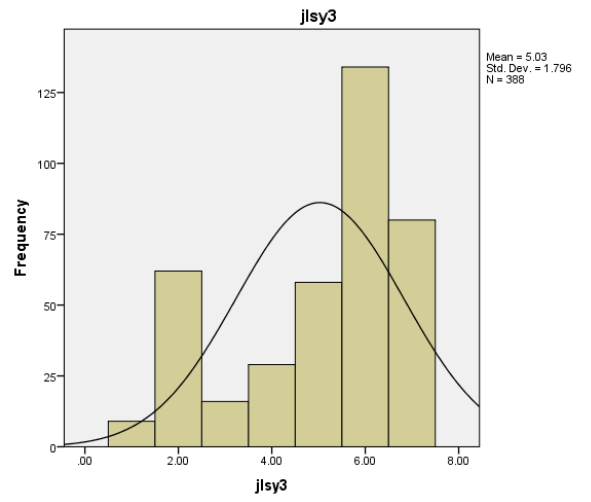
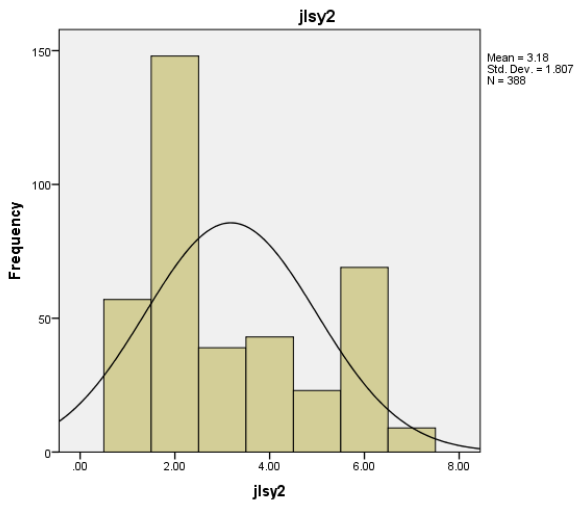
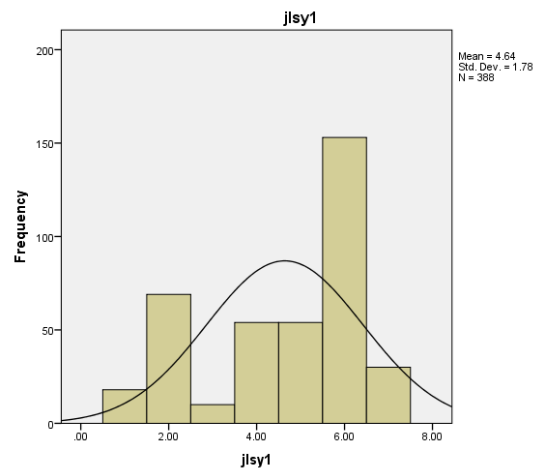
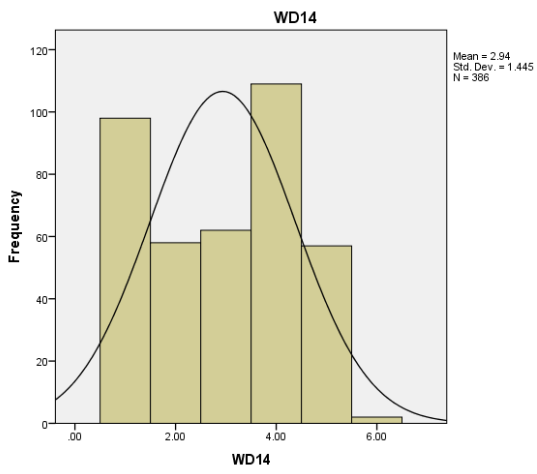


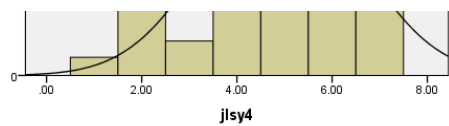
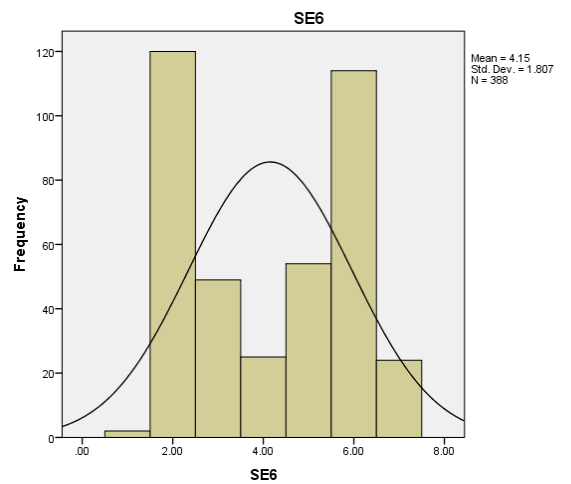
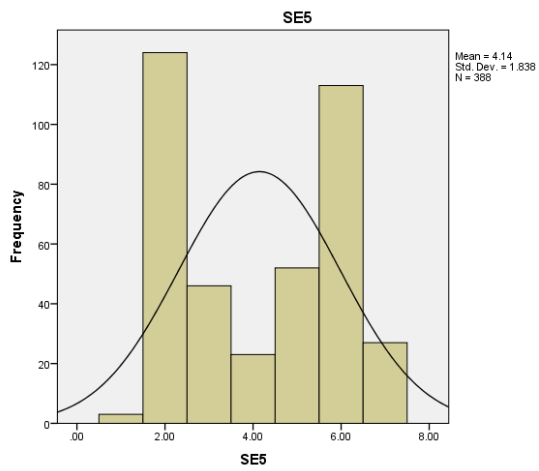
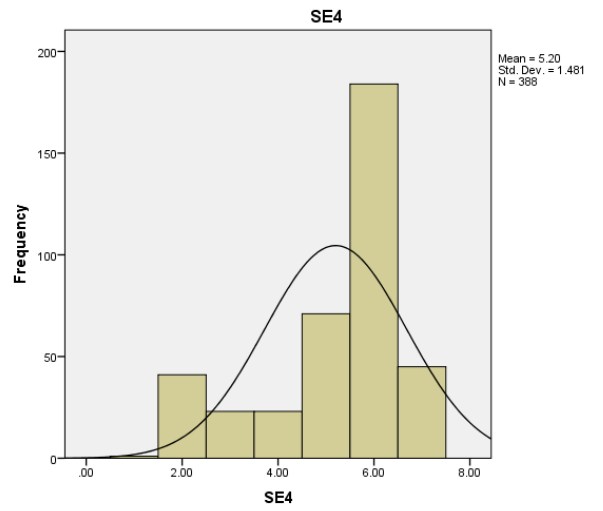
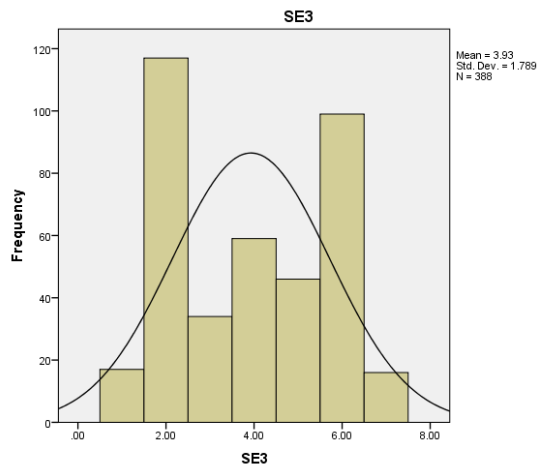
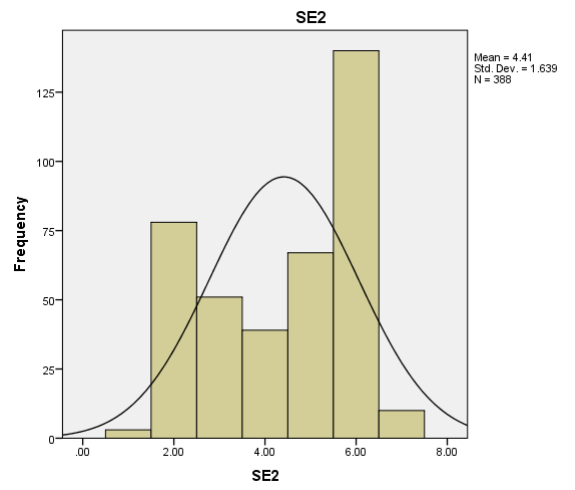
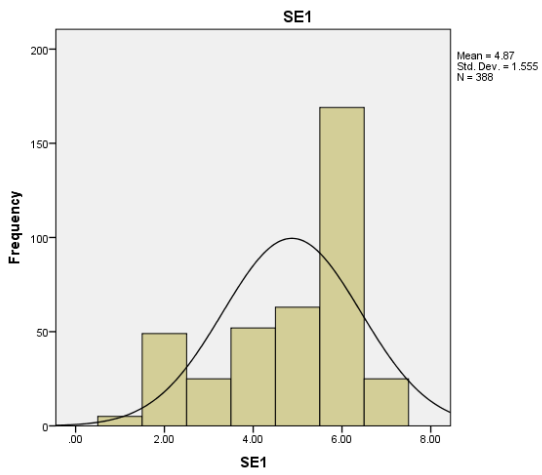




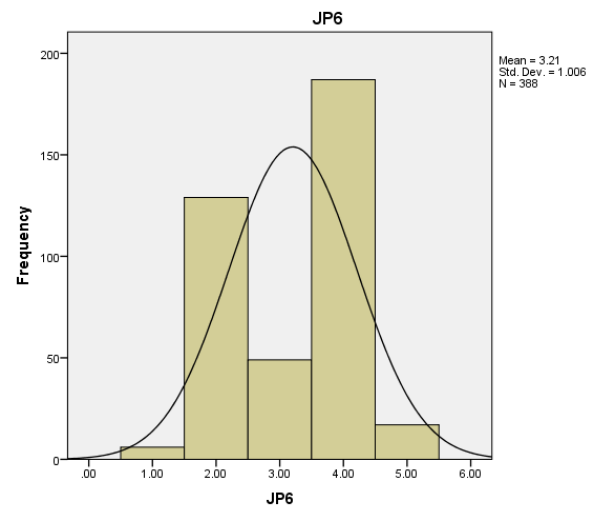
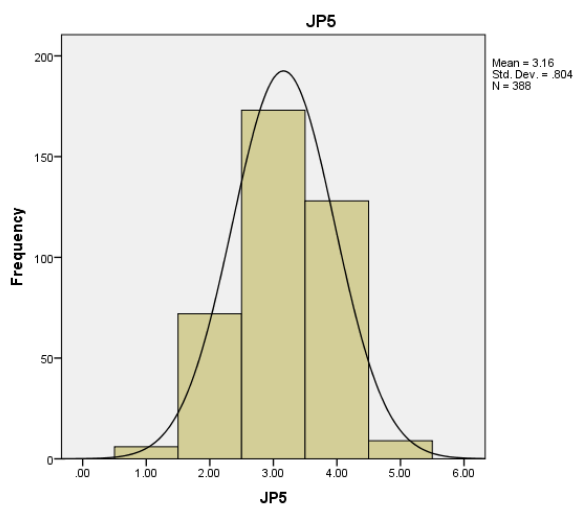
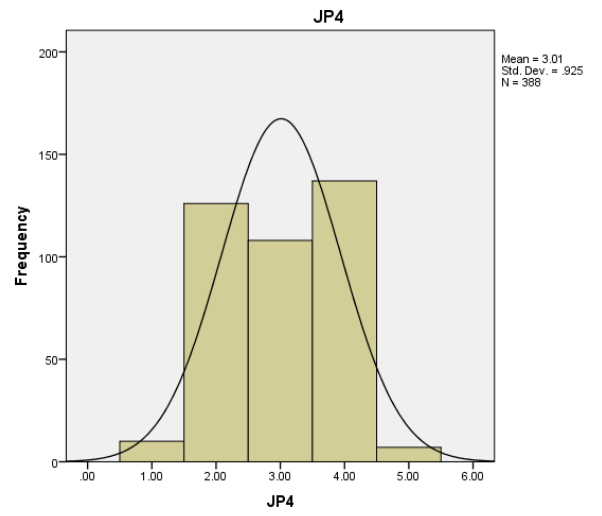
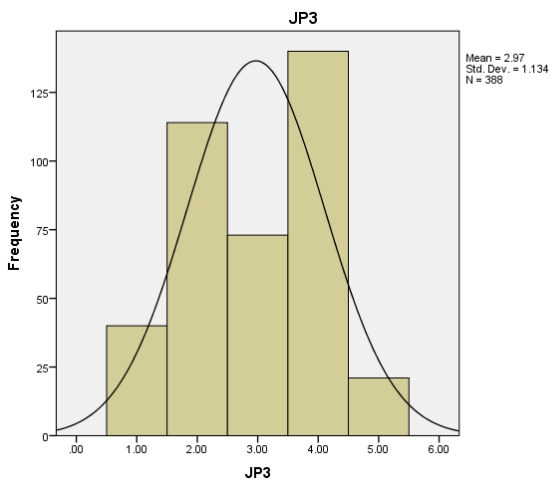
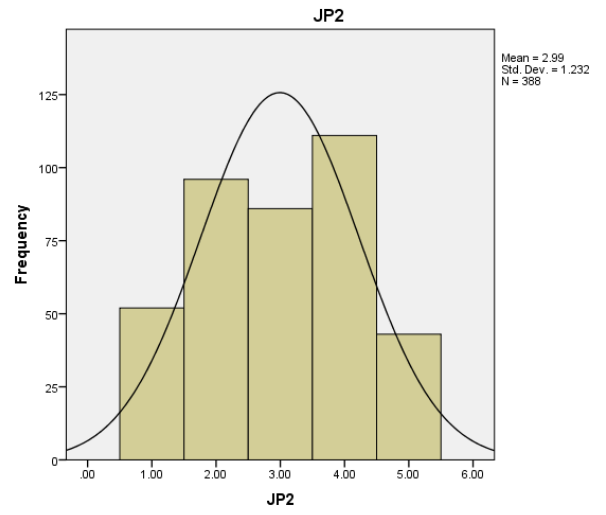
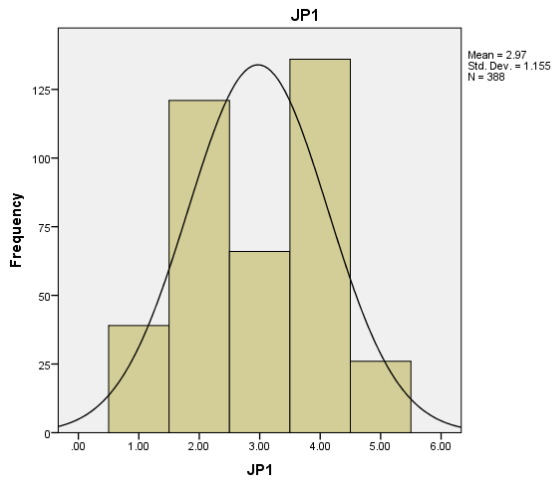


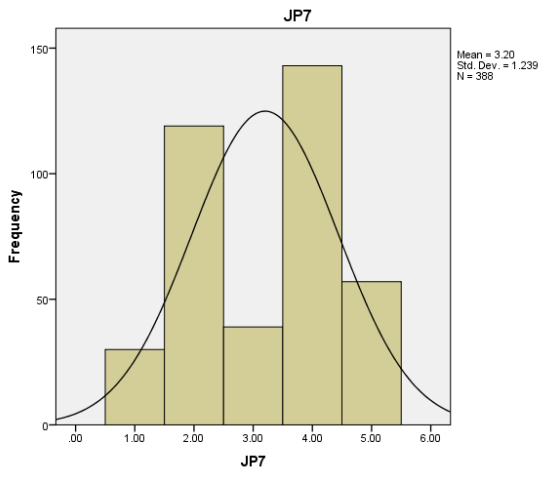






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1.622





Appendix F- Statistical results: Descriptive statistics, factor analysis and reliability analysis. N=388.

Factors/Variables	Descriptive Statistics		Components & Factor Loadings								Reliability	
	\bar{X}	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	IIC	α Cronbach's alpha
<i>Distributive Injustice</i>												.934
DJ - Q1	2.66	1.1						.632			.87	.905
DJ- Q2	2.56	1.1						.639			.86	.906
DJ- Q3	2.47	1.2						.594			.86	.908
DJ- Q4	2.44	1.1						.662			.79	.930
<i>Procedural Injustice</i>												.916
PJ - Q1	2.63	1.1		.723							.57	.913
PJ – Q2	2.29	.96		.697							.67	.905
PJ – Q3	2.58	1.3		.760							.38	.899
PJ – Q4	2.37	1.0		.713							.71	.897
PJ – Q5	2.47	1.0		.751							.73	.897
PJ – Q6	2.32	1.1		.646							.71	.901
PJ – Q7	2.75	.97		.734							.69	.902
<i>Interactional Injustice</i>												.936
IJ - Q1	2.79	1.2	.702								.80	.926
IJ – Q2	2.77	1.2	.742								.83	.923
IJ – Q3	2.84	1.2	.679								.75	.928
IJ – Q4	2.75	1.2	.617								.67	.934
IJ – Q5	2.73	1.0	.725								.75	.929

IJ - Q6	2.57	1.1	.738					.74	.929
IJ - Q7	2.55	1.2	.795					.81	.925
IJ - Q8	2.55	1.2	.717					.73	.930
IJ - Q9	2.65	1.1	.689					.71	.931
Turnover Intentions									.788
TI - Q1	3.3	1.0				.691		.54	.794
TI - Q2	3.4	.94				.731		.71	.615
TI - Q3	3.4	1.0				.594		.62	.715
Workplace Deviance									.887
WD - Q1	1.6	.73		.702				.53	.917
WD - Q2	1.9	.82		.644				.59	.914
WD - Q3	1.9	.97		.771				.45	.917
WD - Q4	3.1	1.2		.500				.66	.911
WD - Q5	2.0	.95		.733				.64	.914
WD - Q6	2.0	.97		.638				.57	.915
WD - Q8	2.4	1.0		.442				.70	.907
WD - Q9	2.5	1.0		.494				.73	.907
WD - Q11	2.2	.92		.575				.74	.909
Jealousy									.856
Jealousy - Q1	4.6	1.7					.541	.67	.843
Jealousy - Q 3	5.0	1.8					.517	.74	.777
Jealousy - Q 4	4.9	1.6					.551	.76	.766
Self-efficacy									.869
SE - Q1	4.87	1.5				.767		.53	.864
SE - Q2	4.41	1.6				.776		.68	.837
SE - Q3	3.93	1.7				.742		.75	.819

SE - Q4	5.20	1.4				.723			.50	.868
SE - Q5	4.29	1.4				.558			.40	.849
SE - Q6	4.15	1.8				.553			.61	.846
Job Performance										.921
JP - Q1	2.9	1.1			.721				.83	.889
JP - Q2	3.0	1.2			.722				.85	.884
JP - Q3	2.9	1.1			.725				.84	.885
JP - Q4	3.0	.92			.633				.75	.918

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.^a

a. Rotation converged in 10 iterations.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure Sampling Adequacy = .914, Bartlett test of sphericity = 1485, Bartlett test, significance = .000

\bar{x} = mean score, **Std** = Standard deviation, **IIC** = Inter-Item correlations, α = Cronbach Alpha Values r: reversed code

Appendix G – Non-response bias test

Independent Samples t Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Gender	Equal variances assumed	.292	.590	-.270	78	.788	-.02500	.09259	-.20934	.15934
	Equal variances not assumed			-.270	77.856	.788	-.02500	.09259	-.20935	.15935
Age	Equal variances assumed	.625	.432	1.120	78	.266	.22500	.20092	-.17500	.62500
	Equal variances not assumed			1.120	77.826	.266	.22500	.20092	-.17501	.62501
Race	Equal variances assumed	9.143	.003	-1.435	78	.155	-.45000	.31368	-1.07450	.17450
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.435	66.664	.156	-.45000	.31368	-1.07617	.17617
jobnature	Equal variances assumed	9.507	.003	1.874	78	.065	.52500	.28020	-.03283	1.08283

	Equal variances not assumed			1.874	73.987	.065	.52500	.28020	-.03330	1.08330
currentorg	Equal variances assumed	.292	.590	1.075	78	.286	.22500	.20936	-.19180	.64180
	Equal variances not assumed			1.075	76.093	.286	.22500	.20936	-.19196	.64196
totalexperie nce	Equal variances assumed	.839	.362	1.164	78	.248	1.35000	1.15955	-.95848	3.65848
	Equal variances not assumed			1.164	73.511	.248	1.35000	1.15955	-.96070	3.66070
totalorganiz ations	Equal variances assumed	.072	.789	1.102	78	.274	.25000	.22688	-.20168	.70168
	Equal variances not assumed			1.102	77.997	.274	.25000	.22688	-.20168	.70168
income	Equal variances assumed	.466	.497	.532	78	.596	.12500	.23503	-.34291	.59291

	Equal variances not assumed			.532	77.698	.596	.12500	.23503	-.34294	.59294
Qualification	Equal variances assumed	2.311	.132	.210	78	.834	.02500	.11923	-.21236	.26236
	Equal variances not assumed			.210	71.608	.835	.02500	.11923	-.21269	.26269

Appendix H - Cross loadings

	Jealousy	Job_perf	ProcedInj	Distri)INj	intention_to_quit	interactional-injustice	self-efficacy	work_place_deviance
INFOI1	-0.633	0.520	0.549	0.468	-0.408	0.816	0.458	-0.546
INFOI2	-0.596	0.576	0.519	0.480	-0.355	0.811	0.407	-0.481
INFOI3	-0.627	0.591	0.515	0.457	-0.456	0.861	0.496	-0.519
INFOI4	-0.574	0.556	0.492	0.415	-0.452	0.797	0.417	-0.441
INFOI5	-0.592	0.570	0.482	0.436	-0.416	0.781	0.548	-0.460
IPI1	-0.641	0.553	0.562	0.476	-0.433	0.847	0.446	-0.530
IPI2	-0.641	0.535	0.550	0.456	-0.482	0.870	0.443	-0.519
IPI3	-0.566	0.494	0.455	0.332	-0.514	0.808	0.424	-0.501
IPI4	-0.547	0.486	0.468	0.419	-0.413	0.735	0.360	-0.486
JP1	-0.550	0.901	0.520	0.411	-0.379	0.574	0.528	-0.504
JP2	-0.657	0.923	0.513	0.439	-0.452	0.637	0.556	-0.565
JP3	-0.598	0.913	0.545	0.468	-0.470	0.570	0.587	-0.502
JP4	-0.617	0.859	0.542	0.507	-0.325	0.612	0.494	-0.499
SE1	-0.209	0.277	0.212	0.107	-0.260	0.229	0.681	-0.340
SE2	-0.381	0.469	0.367	0.282	-0.380	0.456	0.828	-0.413
SE3	-0.505	0.618	0.475	0.383	-0.408	0.567	0.904	-0.511
SE4	-0.159	0.190	0.036	-0.034	-0.266	0.213	0.613	-0.126
SE5	-0.396	0.514	0.307	0.309	-0.366	0.445	0.796	-0.355
SE6	-0.440	0.561	0.328	0.372	-0.390	0.489	0.812	-0.396
WD1	0.227	-0.182	-0.057	-0.109	0.259	-0.225	-0.236	0.581
WD11	0.564	-0.457	-0.422	-0.536	0.415	-0.547	-0.391	0.841
WD2	0.404	-0.347	-0.314	-0.288	0.305	-0.269	-0.273	0.674
WD3	0.295	-0.201	-0.193	-0.253	0.177	-0.187	-0.198	0.607
WD4	0.533	-0.479	-0.394	-0.373	0.483	-0.554	-0.454	0.779
WD5	0.273	-0.263	-0.210	-0.230	0.298	-0.350	-0.177	0.664
WD6	0.234	-0.235	-0.190	-0.219	0.315	-0.234	-0.100	0.598
WD8	0.588	-0.556	-0.454	-0.491	0.471	-0.591	-0.423	0.827

WD9	0.670	-0.645	-0.541	-0.534	0.451	-0.635	-0.553	0.859
diss1	-0.477	0.416	0.604	0.928	-0.354	0.505	0.259	-0.495
diss2	-0.437	0.454	0.611	0.920	-0.306	0.467	0.307	-0.385
diss3	-0.512	0.533	0.667	0.930	-0.379	0.542	0.346	-0.514
diss4	-0.445	0.445	0.555	0.875	-0.330	0.445	0.365	-0.487
i2q1	0.368	-0.323	-0.262	-0.262	0.746	-0.390	-0.267	0.374
i2q2	0.484	-0.375	-0.280	-0.351	0.892	-0.444	-0.376	0.418
i2q3	0.492	-0.432	-0.366	-0.325	0.869	-0.502	-0.465	0.485
jlsy1	0.863	-0.603	-0.563	-0.457	0.522	-0.702	-0.455	0.582
jlsy3	0.888	-0.624	-0.449	-0.461	0.436	-0.631	-0.407	0.560
jlsy4	0.892	-0.553	-0.393	-0.438	0.466	-0.616	-0.399	0.551
procedural1	-0.311	0.402	0.710	0.437	-0.244	0.386	0.292	-0.317
procedural2	-0.435	0.475	0.788	0.579	-0.236	0.443	0.268	-0.405
procedural3	-0.442	0.458	0.840	0.585	-0.276	0.476	0.336	-0.429
procedural4	-0.477	0.491	0.861	0.553	-0.311	0.574	0.385	-0.368
procedural5	-0.420	0.484	0.850	0.497	-0.332	0.538	0.335	-0.394
procedural6	-0.533	0.561	0.844	0.593	-0.350	0.641	0.369	-0.457
procedural7	-0.387	0.468	0.808	0.549	-0.322	0.471	0.327	-0.364

