Organizational injustice, employees' anger and deviant behaviors: Moderating role of big-5 personality traits.

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management with specialization in Human Resource Management atthe
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بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

In the name of Allah, the most merciful and beneficent

Dedication

IN THE NAME OF
ALLAH, THE MOST MERCIFUL AND BENEFICENT

DEDICATED TO...

"To my beloved wife

Irum Noushin

And loving parents

Mother, Ms. Khushal Jana,

And

Father, Mr. Sharif Khan

For their un-conditional love,

Prayers and Support to Make my Dreams a Reality."

(Acceptance by the Viva Voice Committee)

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the mediating role of outward focused negative emotions (anger) in the direct relationships between perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and deviant workplace behaviors directed towards organization (DBO) and deviant workplace behaviors directed towards individuals (DBI). The study further theorized that dispositional variables (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, self-control, attitude towards revenge and big-5 traits) would moderate injustice perceptions-emotions-deviant behaviors relationships. Survey data were collected from employees of Employee Insurances Implementing Agency, Netherlands. Confirmatory factor analysis, moderation and mediation analyses were used for testing the hypothesized model of this study. It was found that there is an adequate fit between the data and the tested model. According to the expectations, a positive relationship was found between outward focused negative emotions (anger) and deviant workplace behaviors (DBO and DBI). The analysis further showed that anger fully mediated the positive relationships between perceived distributive and interactional injustice and deviant workplace behaviors (DBO and DBI). However, the direct positive relationship between procedural injustice and deviant workplace behaviors (DBO) was partially mediated by anger. In addition, the moderating effect of PA, NA and self-control on the relationship between perceived injustice and anger was found significant; and the moderating effect of big-5 personality traits and attitude towards revenge on the relationship between anger and deviant behaviors was also found significant. Study limitations, theoretical contributions and practical implications are discussed.

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APPRECIATION AND GRATITUDE

"And which of your Lord's Blessings would you deny?" (Al-Quran)

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Mohammad Nisar Khattak

FORWARDING SHEET

The thesis entitled "Organizational injustice, employees anger and deviant behaviors: Moderating role of big-5 personality traits"submitted by **Mr. Mohammad Nisar Khattak** as partial fulfillment of PhD degree in Management Sciences with specialization in Human Resource Management, has completed under my guidance and supervision. The changes advised by the external and the internal examiners hav also been incorporated. I am satisfied with the quality of student's research work and allow himto submit this thesis for further process as per IIU rules and regulations.

Date:_____ Signature:_____

Name : _____

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter provides a brief background of the study, capturing the importance of fairness enactment at workplace and its resultant impact on overall organizational performance. Secondly, a detailed problem statement is provided in this chapter which paves direction for the follow up research questions. Thirdly, after extensive literature review, potential gaps in literature are discussed. This section also provides an overview of potential contribution (theoretical and applied) to the existing body of knowledge. The final part of this chapter describes the research questions and ended up with the objectives of the study.

1.2 Background of study

Organizational success is dependent upon the productive efforts of employees, for which, there is need from organizations to establish positive and harmonious relationship with their employees (Berry, Ones, and Sackett, 2007. This relationship is generally bidirectional in nature because the interests of both parties are involved here. Employees' reciprocal behaviors depend upon the organizations' orientation towards their welfare and concerns. It is an established fact that employees exert their sincere efforts for the accomplishment of organizational goals if they perceive that their legitimate needs and demands are being fulfilled wholeheartedly by their employers (Aquino, Tripp, and Bies, 2006). However, empirical evidences have shown that the reciprocal behaviors of employees turn to be negative and in worst case counterproductive if they realize that organization does not fulfilltheir needs appropriately (Berry et al, 2007; Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupre, Inness, Sivanathan, 2007). This is an alarming situation for organizations which entails long-lasting effects and, if not addressed timely, results ultimately in total collapse of

the organizations. These counterproductive behaviors are volitional in nature and have devastating influence on the overall organizational functioning.

There are different shades of counter-productive work behaviors including vandalism, absenteeism, sabotage and theft; all these behaviors work against the legitimate interests of the organization (Harper, 1990; McGurn, 1988). Employees exhibit deviant behaviors in different ways, ranging from less damaging to highly intensive deviant behaviors. Extant literature provides detailed discussion on different forms of deviant behaviors. Depending upon their theoretical focus, researchers have used different terminologies to refer these deviant behaviors including, organizational delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), workplace aggression (Baron, Neuman, and Geddes, 1999),organizational motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Glew, 1996), work-place deviance (Bennett and Robinson, 2000; Robinson and Bennett, 1995), organizational retaliatory behaviors (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), antisocial behaviors organization (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1998), and revenge (Bies and Tripp, 1998).

Robinson and Bennett (1995) identified the two dimensional construct of workplace deviance: "*Interpersonal Deviance,* which is targeted at organizational members and include behaviors such as saying something hurtful or acting rudely to a co-worker" and "*Organizational Deviance,* which is targeted at organization itself including actions like stealing and withholding efforts".

There are different factors which induce individuals at workplace to exhibit deviant behaviors. Majority of the researchers to date focused either on the contextual factors of deviant behaviors (e.g. perceived organizational justice, perceived organizational politics, perceived organizational support) or the personality traits (e.g. conscientiousness, agreeableness and neuroticism) which may influence them to commit deviant workplace

behaviors, for example, Hershcovis, Turner, Barling, Arnold, Dupe, Inness, LeBlane and Sivanathan (2007) explored that supervisors' mistreatment towards their subordinates (interpersonal injustice, abusive supervision) is a strong predictor of deviant behaviors directed towards supervisor. A study found that work-related negative affect mediates the relationship between abusive supervision and workplace deviance (Michel, Newness and Duniewicz, 2016). This study further explored that higher levels of organization-based aggressive norms increase the magnitude of the indirect effect for supervisor-directed deviance. Using two theoretical concepts-situation strength and trait activation- Judge and Zapata (2015) found that many of the personality traits predict performance in job contexts that activated specific traits (e.g., extraversion better predicted performance in jobs requiring social skills, agreeableness was less positively related to performance in competitive contexts, openness was more strongly related to performance in jobs with strong innovation/ creativity requirements). Another study by Sheppard, Lewicki and Minton (1992) also confirmed that mistreatment by someone generate the desire for revenge and victim experience a need to punish the blame attributed party, this may enhance an individual's tendency to engage in deviant behaviors (Penney and Spector, 2005). Extant literature also provides empirical evidence about the impact of organizational injustice on employees' intention towards deviant behaviors. It is also confirmed by Jones (2009), that procedural injustice brings unique variance in deviant behaviors which are directed towards the organization. However, this study has taken into account the Agent system model (Bies and Moag, 1986), differential reactivity (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995) and cognitive social view of individuals (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993) to understand the reaction of employees towards perceived organizational injustice. Adams (1965) in his theory of inequity regarding distributive injustice proposed that individuals, dissatisfied with injustice, will not simply remain dissatisfied rather they tend to react in different ways in order to make the

score even. This shows that organizational injustice has an association with deviance behaviors, but how this relationship is actually established is lacking in literature which provide direction for the research questions for this study described below.

1.3 Problem Statement

It is an established fact in literature that good and harmonious relationship between employees at workplace always leads towards higher organizational performance; however, this is not always possible. Organizational justice scholars emphasized on the importance of workplace injustice and its detrimental effect on overall organizational performance. It has been established in organization behavior literature that when employees perceive that they are not being treated fairly, this generate their negative feelings (anger) which ultimately transform into deviant workplace behaviors (Khan, Quratulain and Crawshaw (2013). However, there is need to address the issue that to what extent individuals differ in their reactions towards perceived organizational injustice.

Using the broader framework of affective event theory, it was proposed that perceived injustice at workplace will generate negative emotions which will ultimately transform into deviant workplace behaviors directed either towards organization or individuals. It was also proposed that victim of injustice will reciprocate in terms of deviant behaviors towards the source of injustice for example, procedural and distributive injustice will be reciprocated by organizational deviance, while interactional injustice will be reciprocated by individual deviance. In addition, based upon cognitive social view and differential reactivity model, it was proposed that reaction of individuals, towards perceived injustice will not be similar, rather it will depend upon their personality traits. Therefore, this study has taken into account that self-control, positive affectivity, negative affectivity, big-5 personality traits, and attitude towards revenge will moderate the injustice-emotions-outcomes relationships.

1.4 Gap analysis

Organizational justice and deviant workplace behaviors has widely been studied in organizational literature. In addition to various individualized studies, two Meta analyses on organizational justice (Cohen-Charashand Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al, 2001) and two Meta analyses on deviant behaviors (Berry et al, 2007; Hershcovish et al, 2007) considerably increased the importance of perceived justice and deviant behaviors within the organizations. Hershcovis et al (2007) Meta analytic findings showed that individual and situational factors have main effect on deviant behaviors. However, the possible interaction between individual and situational factors was not answered by their Meta analyses. Following the interactionist perspective, this research tends to fill this gap by considering both the individual and situational factors.

Secondly, Khan, Quratulain and Crawshaw (2013) suggested for future researchers to consider some moderators in justice-emotions-behaviors model. In addition to this, these authors also suggested to focus on multi-foci model of justice in order to explore the differential impact of agent versus systemic justice. Hence, this study taken into account multi-foci model of justice and dispositional factors which may influence the relationship between perceived justice, anger and deviant workplace behaviors.

Thirdly, the framework of Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) has widely been used to explore the relationship among workplace events, emotions and discretionary behaviors. Using the broader framework of AET, the present study strives to explore the relationship between perceive organizational injustice and deviant workplace behaviors. This study not only intended to test injustice-deviant behaviors relationships, rather it also tends to explore the underlying mechanism between perceived organizational injustice and deviant workplace behaviors.

Fourthly, another important facet of Affective Event Theory (AET) is that the impact of workplace event on affective reactions is influenced by individual dispositions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). This specific feature of Affective Event Theory is very similar to the concept of differential reactivity (1995), which can be described as *"the extent to which a person is likely to show emotional or physical reactions to a stressful event"*. This indicates that those individuals who have higher score on some dispositional traits will react aggressively to some specific situations, for example, with stronger emotions, compare to those who are low on those specific personality traits. Keeping in view this particular notion of differential reactivity, this study strives to investigate the moderating impact of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and self-control on the direct positive relationship between perceived organizational injustice and employees' outward focused negative emotions (anger).

Fifth, self-control and attitude towards revenge has never been tested as moderators in justice-emotions-outcomes model. In light of differential reactivity (Bolger, and Zuckerman, 1995) and cognitive social view (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993), this study tend to explore the moderating impact of self-control and attitude towards revenge by using the broader framework of Affective Event Theory.

Lastly, taking into consideration the concept of Social Cognitive View of individuals (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993), which focuses on interaction of dispositional and contextual factor, this study also strive to explore that the response of all angry individuals will not be the same towards the injustice they receive at workplace, rather it depends upon the personality traits they have and their reactions take place accordingly.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions will be addressed by this study:

Q.1. To what extent perceive organizational injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) influence organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance?

Q.2. To what extent perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) influence employees' anger?

Q.3. Whether or not employees' negative emotions (anger) mediate the positive relationship between perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance?

Q.4. To what extent big-5 personality traits and attitude towards revenge influence the direct relationship between employees' anger and workplace deviance?

Q.5. To what extent positive affectivity, negative affectivity and self-control influence the direct relationship between perceived organizational injustice and employees' anger.

1.6 Significance of the study

Extant literature provides abundant of empirical evidence supporting the positive relationship between perceived organizational injustice and resultant employees' deviant workplace behaviors which negatively influence the overall organizational performance. Organizations always tend to refrain from the occurrence of those incidents which evoke negative emotions in employees, however at times, such incidents get happened and organization have to pay much to settle them. Keeping in view the sensitivity of the issue, organizations must know the worst reactions of the employees in response to incidents of organizational injustice in

order to avoid the deteriorated situation in organization in first instant, and manage the situation appropriately if it happens.

This study is an endeavor in this direction by taking into account the moderating effect of personality traits in adopting deviant workplace behaviors by employees, once they encountered with injustice at workplace. Deviant behaviors varies in its nature, some are worst in nature and highly sensitive for the organization because of which the organization suffer a lot, therefore, organizations must know the probability of adoption of these behaviors by employees in advance. This study will be helpful for organizations to judge the influence of organizational injustice in generating negative emotion and the reciprocal employees' deviant behaviors.

Promoting organizational justice might hamper the occurrence of deviant workplace behaviors, specifically, distributive and procedural fairness reduce the organization directed deviant behaviors and interpersonal deviant behaviors can be reduced if employees perceive that they are being treated with respect and dignity by their supervisors. In addition, this study tends to explore that dispositional characteristics of potential candidates must be kept in mind by personnel managers at the time of recruitment and selection, so that an organization might be successful in hiring the individuals having the dispositional traits which refrain them to commit deviant workplace behaviors.

1.6.1 Theoretical significance

The framework of Affective Event Theory best describes the relationship among workplace events, emotions and subsequent behaviors. Proponents of affective event theory demonstrate that organizational injustice works as a job stressor which evoke negative emotions and consequently deviant workplace behaviors (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Following the basic concept of AET, this study tends to investigate that perceived injustice and deviant

workplace behaviors have distal relationship. Anger, the most basic discrete negative emotion, works as an underlying mechanism between perceived injustice and workplace deviance relationship. Secondly, individual differences are considered important in organizational studies. Keeping in view the Social Cognitive View of individuals, another potential contribution of this study is that all angry individuals do not respond to perceived workplace injustice in a similar way. They react to the situations differently, depend upon their personality dispositions. Lastly, the concept of differential reactivity (Bolger, and Zuckerman, 1995) is taken into account to explore that those individuals who have higher score on some dispositional traits will react aggressively to some specific situations, for example, with stronger emotions, compare to those who are low on those specific personality traits. Keeping in view this particular notion of differential reactivity, this study strives to investigate the moderating impact of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and self-control on the direct positive relationship between perceived organizational injustice and employees' outward focused negative emotions (anger).

1.6.2 Applied significance

Equitable organizational environment plays a vital role in the smooth functioning of any organization. To understand the prevalence and implementation of fair procedures within the organization is the prime responsibility of top management. In addition, it is important to understand the benefits of fair procedures enactment and the deleterious outcomes of mistreatment employees receive either from their supervisors or the organization. Focusing on the relationship among injustice-emotion-outcomes, this study will help organizations in understanding the importance of fair treatment with employees and how to take precautionary measures to avoid mistreatment. The extent of damage in the form of deviant behaviors that employees can cause as a result of experiencing mistreatment also vary, depending upon their personality dispositions, ranging from absenteeism to sabotage. This study will also help

organizations to manage expected behaviors of the employees by focusing on recruitment and selection of appropriate individuals through various personality tests.

1.7 Objectives of the study

- To investigate that organizational injustice considered as job stressor generates negative feelings of anger.
- To investigate that these negative feelings (anger) results into employees' deviant behaviors directed towards organization or individuals depend upon the source of injustice.
- To investigate and understand the mediating role of negative emotions (anger) in the relationship between stressor (injustice) and discretionary behaviors (deviance behaviors).
- To investigate the moderating impact of positive affectivity, negative affectivity and self-control on the direct relationship between perceived organizational injustice and employees' anger.
- To investigate the moderating impact of big-5 personality traits and attitude towards revenge on the direct relationship between anger and deviant workplace behaviors (DBO, DBI).

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented a brief background of the study showing the importance of organizational justice enactment. Secondly, a detailed problem statement is provided which led to the follow up research questions. Thirdly, after a thorough literature review, potential gaps in literature were identified. Fourthly, this chapter also provided an

overview of potential contribution to the literature. Lastly, the chapter ends with research questions and objectives of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the extant literature that related to the current research. First, a definition of perceived organizational injustice and an overview of existing justice/injustice literature is provided, in particular, focusing on the development of organizational justice construct comprised of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Secondly, using the framework of affective event theory, consequences of perceived organizational injustice are discussed with particular emphasis on deviant behaviors (organizational and individual deviance). In the later phase of this chapter, all the potential hypothesized relationships are discussed in detail for example, injustice-deviant behaviors, anger-deviant behaviors, mediating role of anger, and moderating role of personality traits which led to the theoretical justification of the proposed model.

2.2 The development of injustice as a construct

Using the framework of organizational justice theory is helpful for understanding employees' attitudes towards work, workplace behaviors and task performance which are based upon their fairness perception at workplace (Colquitt, 2001; Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997).The construct of justice has witnessed a gradual development in the last few decades from a one-dimensional construct of distributive justice to two dimensional construct with the addition of procedural justice, to three dimensional construct with the introduction of interactional justice. Interactional justice was further split into two dimensions: interpersonal and informational justice which made the construct of justice four dimensional with distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice. This gradual development of the construct of justice over few decades and different dimensions comprising the construct has identified the frontiers of organizational justice research.

2.2.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice can be described as how fair and equitable is the distribution of rewards within the organization and is generally related with the individuals' outcomes i.e. salary, benefits, bonuses and pay increase. This specific dimension of organizational justice took around three decades, from the1950s through the 1970s. *Relative deprivation* was the first concept related to distributive justice which was introduced in 1949 by Stouffer, Suchman, DeVinney, Star and Williams Jr (1949), which was cited in Colquitt, Greenberg and Zapata-Phelan (2005), focusing on the lack of fairness in the promotional system of United States Army. Stouffer et al. (1949) further described that individuals' reactions are not only dependent upon the outcomes they receive from the organizational system, rather they go for input/output ratio and compare their own outcomes with referent individuals. This process became the building block of the concept of distributive justice which was theoretically advanced by Homans (1964), and was conceptualized in the following words: *"(a) the action of one person may influenced at least one other person activities, (b) the exchange partners were more concerned and sensitive about the possibility that the other party may get more in the exchange and (c) perceptions of distributive justice were subjective rather than objective".*

These concepts were incorporated by Blau (1964) in his seminal *social exchange theory*, which was further divided into two different types of exchange relationships: social exchange and economic exchange. Extending the norm of reciprocity, he proposed that relationships between individuals are developed by mutual exchanges which always call for reciprocation but are not necessarily simultaneous. The concept of trust exists here which has an enduring influence on organizational justice literature. Likewise, Adams' equity theory (1965) introduced the concept of equity or input/outcomes ratio for the evaluation of social exchanges for example, if a person perceive that his or her input/outcomes ratio is not similar

with that of the referent other's, does not matter whether it is overcompensation or undercompensation, he will perceive distributive injustice. Adams not only described inequity, rather he elaborated this concept by focusing on the outcomes of perceived inequity at workplace. The theory of inequity predict that individuals would tend to restore the balance of equity to even the score by making either behavioral adjustment, for example, changing their performance levels, disengagement from the current relationship or cognitive adjustments, for example, modifying the evaluation of the equity ratio, changing referent others etc. This concept was severely criticized by the early proponents of equity theory on the basis of following methodological grounds: (a) high degree of ambiguity in the definitions of inputs and outcomes, (b) there is no clear and defined criterion for the selection of referent others (c) testability (Colquitt et al., 2005). In addition, several studies have raised questions upon the predictive power of equity theory (Byrne and Cropanzano, 2001), however, despite all this criticism, equity theory has received much attention in organizational justice literature and has a remarkable contribution towards the concept of justice at workplace. The scope of distributive justice literature was limited in the sense that it focused only on the social exchange relationships among employees. This started the journey of development of another kind of social exchange relationship within the organization which is called *"the social exchange relationship between employees and organization"*. With the advent of this concept, the second important dimension of organization was started which later on emerged as another dimension of justice know as procedural justice.

2.2.2 Procedural Justice

Procedural justice can be described as *the fairness in the formal organizational procedures and policies which are used for determining the outcomes of organizations"* (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, and Ng, 2001). Development of procedural justice as a construct started from 1975 to 1995, which is comprised of approximately 20 years in total (Colquitt et

al., 2005), was first introduced by Thibault and Walker (1975) in publishing their seminal work. In their study, they compared the adversarial legal system with inquisitorial system. While elaborating their work, Thibault and Walker further found that people have more trust in adversarial system and were more satisfied with this system as compare to inquisitorial system even when the decision was against their wishes. It was evident in comparison between adversarial and inquisitorial system that procedural justice is dependent on the effect of outcomes. While concluding their results, these authors mentioned that individuals' control over the procedures (having a voice) enacted within the organization influence their evaluation of fairness of procedures. This specific justice model is known as self-interest or instrumental model of justice. Thibault and Walker (1978) described the difference between the decision control and process control in their subsequent research paper referring that in process control the disputant has a firm control over the selection and development of all relevant information which are needed to settle the dispute. On the other hand, in decision control, no consultation takes place; in this situation the disputant makes a unilateral decision upon the outcomes from the dispute. It was suggested by these authors that optimum level of dispute resolution can be achieved when the process control is in the hand of disputant and the control of outcomes' decision is in the hand of a neutral third party. Contrary to decision control, process control is highly required for the implementation of procedural fairness, which provides a solid foundation for, how to develop a specific criterion for fair procedures enactment.

Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) described six important rules for the enactment of fair procedures: (1) *consistency:* describes the application of uniform policies and procedures across the board for all employees(2) *bias suppression:* there should be no personal bias of decision maker towards any person and should be considered as irrelevant (3) *accuracy:* proper outcomes should be kept in mind while devising policies and procedures (4)

correctability: flexibility should be there in order to amend the possible mistakes and make corrections to policies and procedures (5) *representativeness:* there should be a clear reflection of the basic concerns in policies and procedures of those groups which are influenced by the decision made by organization and (6) *ethicality:* outcomes of the policies and procedures must be in congruence with the acceptable ethical standards of the organization.

Greenberg and Folger (1983) introduced the concept of *voice* for process control by integrating the concept of process control introduced by Thibault and Walker's (1975,1978) and Leventhal's six rules for the fair enactment of process. Together with distributive justice, procedural justice formed the organizational justice model comprised of two dimensions which was later on transform into three dimensions and ultimately into four dimensions which emerged as a standard model for upcoming studies in organizational justice literature. A field study was conducted by Greenberg (1986) to validate the Leventhal's (1980) six rules; the results confirmed a conceptual difference between procedural justice and distributive justice.

Afterwards, a study by Alexander and Ruderman (1987) found a correlation of distributive and procedural justice with several attitudinal outcomes, for example, trust, job satisfaction, stress, and turnover intentions. Working upon this two dimensional justice model, few later research studies explored that distributive justice also has relationship with personal-level evaluation which lead towards personal-outcomes for example, pay satisfaction; contrary to that, procedural justice is related to organizational level evaluations which lead towards organization related outcome, for example, organizational commitment (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992). With the passage of time, organizational justice researchers discern the fact that two factor model take into account the procedures and outcomes and have neglected an important aspect of exchange relationship within the

organization which is called interpersonal treatment. It was argued by organizational justice scholars (Bies and Moag, 1986) that the treatment employees receive at workplace may influence the appraisal of fairness adoption in organizations which is directed towards the development of the concept of interactional justice and three dimensional justice model.

2.2.3 Interactional Justice

Interactional justice can be described as *"the interpersonal treatment employees receive from their supervisors while implementing the organizational policies and procedures"* (Colquitt et al., 2005). The concept of interactional justice was first introduced in 1986 and was developed to its fullest at 2004 (Colquitt et al., 2005). Organizational justice researchers are of the view that there is conceptual difference between the enactment of procedures and interpersonal treatment (Bies and Moag, 1986). This indicates the conceptual difference between the concepts of procedural justice and interactional justice. Elaborating further, the difference between the two concepts, these authors were of the view that procedural justice primarily have impact on the organizational-level outcomes, while interactional justice have influence on personal-level outcome. As the concept of fair interpersonal treatment develops, four different communication criteria were identified: *"(1) truthfulness, (2) justification, (3) respect, and (4) propriety"*. After that, organizational justice scholars found relationship between interactional justice and both attitudinal as well as behavioral outcomes (Bies and Shapiro, 1987; Moorman, 1991).

Organizational justice scholars focused on the validity of interactional justice and the debate was continued until late 1990s (Colquitt et al., 2005). However, many organizational justice researchers explored in their empirical studies that there is an integration between procedural and interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Interactional justice can further be divided into two distinct dimensions (Greenberg, 1993), for example, Interpersonal justice and Informational justice. *"Interpersonal justice is related with the social aspect of distributive*

justice and embodied the rules of respect and dignity from supervisor" (Bies and Moag, 1986); on the other hand, *"Informational justice is related with the social aspect of procedural justice and embodied the rules of truthfulness and justification"*. In addition, Bies (2001) contend that there is conceptual difference between procedural and interactional justice.

Organizational justice literature witnessed two important meta-analytical reviews in the same year. The first meta-analysis reinforce the conceptual difference between procedural justice and interactional justice (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001), and the second meta-analysis supported the further division of interactional justice into two dimensions such as interpersonal justice and informational justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). In addition, a new framework for the construct of justice was proposed by Colquitt (2001), which is comprised of four distinct dimensions: *"distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice"*. This four dimensional model of justice has been validated both in the context of laboratory and filed studies, and results found support for four dimensional organizational construct.

In a nutshell, it is argued that distributive justice can be described as the perception of fairness in the outcomes of decision which are based upon equity, need and equality (Adams, 1965). Procedural justice, on the other hand, is the employees' perception of fairness in organizational policies and procedures which are implemented for the determination of outcomes. So the Leventhal's rules for fairness and voice, control of procedures all comes under the umbrella of procedural justice perception (Leventhal et al., 1980; Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Social aspect of fairness was introduced with the advent of interpersonal justice which is considered as the perceived fairness of social relationships embodied with reverence and dignity from supervisors towards their subordinates (Bies and Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1993). Another aspect of social relationship is covered by informational justice

which *is "the perceived fairness of social relationships embodied with honest, adequate and truthful explanations for all information from supervisors"* (Greenberg, 1993). Altogether, the above described four dimensional model of organizational justice present a perfect measure for perceived employees' fairness at workplace and predict that how perceived fairness and unfairness influence organizational outcomes.

Recently, few organizational justice researchers have started comparison between the procedural and interactional justice specifically focusing on the mixing up of the content of justice with the source of justice. Out of these two, one particular group of researchers focused on how to examine the organization-originating and supervisor-originating procedural and interactional justice which was named as multifoci model. The other group focused on the two-dimensional model of organizational justice in order to explore it's formal and informal versions (Colquitt et al., 2005). This study have adopted the three-dimensional justice construct, which was proposed by Moorman (1991), to explore that how perceived stressor (anger) mediates the positive relationship between perceived organizational injustice and outcomes (deviant workplace behaviors).

2.2.4 Consequences of injustice in Organizations

Organization justice has received much attention in organizational research and there are several reasons of its importance for employees as well as organizations. At individual level, fair and equitable treatment helps in satisfying different individuals' needs for example, self-esteem, need for control, ethical obligation and sense of belonging. On the contrary, at the organizational level, fairness and equity legitimize the authority of management which obviously discourage the deviant behaviors at workplace and improves the employees' trust in their management by reducing the fear of exploitation (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Focusing on the multi-dimensional model of justice, several studies have found that various dimensions of organizational justice have a significant relationship with different

organizational outcomes, for example, trust, satisfaction and commitment (Alexander and Ruderman, 1987; Folger and Konovsky, 1989), organization citizenship behaviors (Moorman, 1991), Leader-member-exchange and perceived organizational support (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor, 2000), job performance, favorable assessment of supervisor, and trust (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Contrary to that, unfair treatment at workplace generate negative emotions which may lead towards deviant behaviors such as antisocial behaviors, sabotage, theft, absenteeism and intention to quit the organization (Anderson and Bushman, 2002; Lind, Greenberg, Scott, and Welchans, 2000).

It is observed in recent studies on organizational justice that a shift occurred from studying the individual attitudinal and behavioral outcomes described above towards the individuals' psychological responses and physical health which are known as perceived stress and the resultant strain response. Organizational justice scholars argued that workplace injustice act as a stressor which elicit negative emotions (Judge and Colquitt, 2004).Focusing on perceived organizational justice as the central construct, this study start with a comprehensive literature review for the development of the justice construct and after that it will discuss the important theoretical development of the construct of justice.

2.3 Deviant workplace behaviors

Deviant workplace behaviors are persuasive in today's organizations which are considered costly and always tempered organizational development (Bennett and Robinson, 2003). According to one estimation, 1.5 million American workers are being victimized by robberies and violent behaviors annually and the associated cost is astounding (Warchol, 1998). The annual costs estimate range from $200b for theft (Buss, 1993), $4.2b for violence (Bensimon, 1997), to $7.1b for the corporate security against cyber-attacks (Mendoza, 1999). It is apparent from the above statistics that workplace deviance is a serious threat for

organizations in today's competitive environment. Researchers rely upon the broader conceptualization of workplace deviant behaviors incorporating a multitude of constructs (Bennett and Robinson, 2003). Robinson and Greenberg (1998) identified six terms representing the same domain of behaviors having their own distinct definition: work place aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1996; Folger and Baron, 1996), organizationally-motivated aggression (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996), antisocial behaviors (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1998),workplace deviance (Robinson andBennett, 1995), organizational misbehaviors (Vardi and Wiener, 1996), and workplace retaliatory behaviors (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997).

Burroughs (1999) described the same set of behaviors which come under the domain of deviant behaviors: negative citizenship behaviors (Fisher and Locke, 1992), anti-citizenship (Youngblood, Trevino, and Favia, 1992), anti-role behavior (Parks and Kidder, 1994), negative creativity (Clark and James, 1999), counterproductive workplace behaviors(Fox and Spector, 1999), delinquency (Hogan and Hogan, 1989), harassment (Bjorkqvist, Osterman, and Lagerspetz, 1994), incivility (Pearson, Andersson, and Wegner, 2001), maladaptation (Perlow and Latham, 1993), attitude towards revenge (Bies, Tripp, and Kramer, 1997), non-compliant behavior (Puffer, 1987) tyranny (Ashforth, 1994) and violence (Kinney, 1995). All these behaviors under one conceptual umbrella share some features with one another. First, majority of the constructs express behaviors which are perpetrated by organizational members and are directed either towards organization or the employees (Baron and Neuman, 1996; Folger and Baron, 1996; Fox and Spector, 1999). Secondly, these kind of behaviors have the propensity to cause harm either directly to the individuals or organization (Vardi and Wiener, 1996). Third, these behaviors are intentional rather than accidental (Andersson and Pearson, 1999; Bies and Tripp, 1998; Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt, 1993; Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Vardi and Wiener, 1996). Three trends are generally incorporated by most of the previous research on deviance behavior: *"studies that treat deviance as a reaction to*

experience; those that examines deviance as a reflection of one's personality and those that explore deviance as adaptation to the society context" (Bennett and Robinson, 2003).

Workplace deviance (Bennett and Robinson, 2000), organizational directed retaliatory behaviors (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997), antisocial behaviors (Aquino and Douglas, 2003) and many more are overlapping behaviors of various constructs related with counterproductive work behaviors. Spector and Fox (2005) described that apart from some conceptual differences, all these behaviors are measured largely by the same way. So this study will be using the term deviant behaviors.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) in their seminal article explored that there are two primary kinds of deviant workplace behaviors: "*Interpersonal Deviance* is targeted at organizational members and include behaviors such as saying something hurtful or acting rudely to a co-worker" and "*Organizational Deviance* is targeted at organization itself including actions like stealing and withholding efforts". This distinction between these two kinds of deviant behaviors was also confirmed by further studies which explored their different predictors (Giacalone, Riordan, and Rosenfeld, 1997). It was found that deviant behaviors are triggered by a perceived specific event, like financial pressures, organizational changes, unfair treatment, poor working conditions, social pressures and some other stressors, which provoke employees to take a negative action (Robinson and Bennett, 1997). Workplace deviance is considered as a reciprocal response towards a job stressors and any other conditions which evoke negative emotions (Spector and Fox, 2005). A significant relationship has been found between job stressors and deviance behaviors; perceived injustice is found to be related with negative emotions and deviant behaviors (Fox, Spector, and Miles, 2001).

It has been established in literature that perceived organizational injustice works as a predictor of workplace deviance (Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield, 1999; Folger, 1987; Folger

and Baron, 1996; Fox and Spector, 1999; Greenberg, 1990; Sheppard et al., 1992; Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk, 1999). This prevalence of evidence stipulates that mistreated employees at workplace are disgruntled and full of negative emotions which induce them towards counterproductive behaviors as compare to fairly treated employees. Presumably, negative feelings like anger and resentments evoke as a result of unfair treatment at workplace which elicit desire for revenge in order to even the score and encourage deviant workplace activities (Aquino et al., 1999; Brown and Herrnstein, 1975; Folger and Baron, 1996; Robinson and Bennett, 1997; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Skarlicki et al., 1999). Studies on injustice-deviant behaviors brought in individual difference variables, for example negative affectivity and agreeableness in order to further explore these relationships (see Aquino et al., 1999). These studies explored that high negative affectivity and low agreeable individuals frame the world in negative way and are more likely to perceive injustice and go for deviant workplace behaviors compare to those who look at the world in positive way. Another study on individual differences, injustice and deviant behaviors confirmed that individuals having a higher score on aggressiveness have a higher tendency towards workplace deviance and this relationship was partially mediated by all the three dimensions of injustice (Burroughs, 2001).

Extant research demonstrates that organizational injustice trigger deviant workplace behaviors, however, it has largely been ignored in literature to investigate the underlying mechanism between organizational injustice and workplace deviance? In addition, what types of individuals are more likely to perceive injustice within organization which ultimately induces them to engage in counterproductive workplace behaviors? These are the questions to be answered by this research.

2.4 Hypotheses Development

A framework is given by Affective Event Theory Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), which shows a relationship between workplace events, emotions and resultant behaviors. Perceived injustice works as stressor which elicits negative emotions (anger) and resultantly transform into deviant behaviors. Organizational injustice can be defined as the employees' perception of inequality and unfairness at workplace (Greenberg, 1987). Several studies have operationalized it as a subjective variable for example perception of injustice, rather than an objective variable such as the event occurrence, pay cut or layoff (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997; Greenberg, 1993). It has been established by organizational injustice researchers that organizational injustice is shaped by situational variables and how individuals cognize these events is the building block of these situational events (Burroughs, 2001). Cognitive appraisal can be described as what people think, however, what they think about is known as specific workplace situations (Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow, and Grandey, 2000). This is not the situation itself which direct individuals' behaviors rather it depends upon how they appraise these situations which are based upon their understanding and interpretations (Burroughs, 2001). It seems evident that most of the investigations about organizational injustice focused on the nature of the events which induce people to appraise these events as unfair, for example antecedents to injustice perceptions and reactions to inequitable allocations, for example raising/lowering effort (Adams, 1965). Hence the following question remains unanswered:

What types of people engage in deviant workplace behavior following a perceived injustice and why and how are they doing so?

Integration of organizational injustice theories (Greenberg, 1990) with conditional reasoning theories (James, 1998) somehow provides answer to this question. These theories have different emphases, for example, the former focuses on the workplace events and their

consequences, while the later focusing on how dispositional differences influence judgments about the fairness and ethicality of events (Burroughs, 2001). Injustice theories can specify the events but lacking in articulation of the appraisal process, on the other hand, conditional reasoning theories can specify appraisals but lacking in articulation of the events. All this necessitates integrating these two kinds of theories in order to account for the events that caused injustice perception and the consequences of injustice perception. ***Hence, it is proposed for this study that perceived organizational injustice is based upon a person's negative appraisals of workplace events, which is influenced by the perceiver's personality and cognitive processes that determine their behavioral adjustments to these events.***

2.5 Organizational injustice and workplace deviance

Workplace deviance can be defined as *"voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threaten the well-being of an organization, its members or both"* (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). This is considered as the most comprehensive definition of workplace deviance and three important principles can be inferred from this definition. First, any negative comportment at workplace which is likely to vandalize systematically the overall organizational system (Andersson and Pearson, 1999; Bennett and Robinson, 2000). Second, these comportments are neither accidental nor unintentional rather produced consciously. In other words, individuals violate the ethical rules and act voluntarily and consciously against the organization. Third, these comportments harms the organization either directly (sabotage) or indirectly (sexual harassment, verbal, physical or moral violence) (Andersson and Pearson, 1999; Bennett and Robinson, 2000).

Workplace deviance is deemed as expensive and common problem for organizations, example include; withholding efforts, acting rudely to co-workers and stealing (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick, 2004). Positive relationship between unfairness and counterproductive work behaviors has been established by the previous researchers (Bennett

and Robinson, 2003). One other study (Sheppard et al., 1992) also confirmed that mistreatment by someone or by organization generate the desire for revenge and victim experience a need to punish the blame attributed party. Correlation between workplace situation and deviant workplace behaviors is not surprising. Keeping in view the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) and social exchange theory (Gould, 1979; Levinson, 1965), this study tend to explore that individuals who encountered with unfavorable workplace situations will respond negatively by violating organizational rules.

It has been explored extensively in organizational justice research that employees' perceptions of unfair treatment at workplace have a substantial effect on various employees' attitudes and behaviors. In the last three decades, organizational justice researchers explored that the judgment of fairness may influence individuals' attitudes for example, job satisfaction, intention to leave the organization, organizational commitment (Folger and Konovsky, 1989; Korsgaard, Schweiger, and Sapienza, 1995), and also influence the judgment of the legitimate power of authority figures in organization and their policies (Huo, Smith, Tyler, and Lind, 1996). On the other hand researchers focusing on the behavioral outcomes of organizational justice explored that employees' performance deteriorate (Lind, Kanfer, and Earley, 1990), prone to steal more the organization's property (Greenberg, 1993), unwilling to go for organizational citizenship behaviors (Moorman, Niehoff, and Organ, 1993), do not abide by the decisions of authority figures (Huo et al., 1996), are likely to involve in protesting behaviors (Vermunt, Wit, van den Bos, and Lind, 1996), and have a higher inclination to take legal actions against their employers (Bies and Tyler, 1993; Lind et al., 2000) if they perceive that organizational outcomes and procedures are not based on equity.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) described the two dimensional model of deviant workplace behaviors with respect to its strength and target which has capture a complete domain of

workplace deviance: ***Severity and Target***. *Severity "refers to the extent to which the deviant behavior violates important organizational norms and is thus perceived as more harmful for organization or its members"* (Robinson and Bennett, 1995). Comparatively minor types of deviant behaviors are unjustified absenteeism and social loafing; and bigger kinds include theft, vandalism and physical aggression. *Target*, refers, *"whether deviance is directed towards organization or its members. Organization-directed deviance includes, for example, vandalism, theft or sabotage. On the other hand, individual-directed might include gossip, scapegoating or physical assault"* (Robinson and Bennett, 1995).

Organizational justice scholars have consensus upon the fact that interpersonal justice is considered as more important in shaping employee attitudes and behaviors (Judge, Scott, and Ilies, 2006; Neuman and Baron, 1997; Skarlicki and Folger, 2004). Interactional justice capture the extent to which individuals at workplace are treated with dignity, respect and politeness (Colquitt, 2001). There are very frequent interpersonal encounter in the organization which make interpersonal justice more concerned and psychologically meaningful for the employees compare to other type of justice dimensions (Fassina, Jones, and Uggerslev, 2008). Various theoretical frameworks have been used for understanding the concept that why perceived interpersonal injustice induces employees' deviant workplace behaviors. For example, social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and the reciprocity norm (Gouldner, 1960) depicted that individuals react to the treatment they receive at workplace accordingly; i.e. good for good and bad for bad.

Similarly, social learning theory Bandura (1977) described that individuals adopt their behaviors as a result of what they observe in their surroundings. Organizational justice scholars explored that those employees who receive unfair treatment either from their supervisors or from their organizations have higher tendency to engage in harmful organizational behaviors (Dalal, 2005; Mitchell and Ambrose, 2007; O'Leary-Kelly et al.,

1996). Three important meta-analysis on organizational justice and counterproductive behaviors also authenticated the positive relationship between interpersonal injustice and individual directed workplace deviance (Berry, Ones, and Sackett, 2007; Colquitt et al., 2001; Hershcovis et al., 2007).

Adams (1963) in his seminal equity theory regarding distributive injustice proposed that people dissatisfied with injustice will not simply remain dissatisfied, rather they strive to respond to inequitable treatment in various ways. Hence, it is evident that perceived distributive injustice may escalate individuals' desire to even the score with wrongdoers. From above theoretical and experimental evidence it is evident that injustice is an event which is triggered either by an organizational member (Supervisor, Manager and Co-Worker) or by an organization itself. Serious and threatening events (e.g., unfair procedures enactment, unfair supervisory treatment) generate outward-focused negative emotions like anger (Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, and Pope, 1993). Classic proposition of Homans (1974) states that those individuals who are treated fairly by the organization or supervisors may experience positive emotions, however, those who are under-rewarded always feel angry.

Previous research has established an association between perceived fairness within the organizations and outcomes they receive from the organizations. Agent-system model presume that most of the time supervisors or managers are considered as the primary source of interactional justice/injustice; contrarily, organization itself is held responsible for the enactment of procedural justice/injustice (Bies and Moag, 1986). As a result, employees tend to respond interactional injustice with deviant behaviors directed towards supervisor and to procedural injustice through deviant behaviors directed towards the organization (Jones, 2009). Organizational deviance theory and Agent-system model are highly congruent with each other, which suggest that discontented employees strive to direct their workplace deviance towards those entities which they held responsible for mistreatment they received

(O'Leary-Kelly et al., 1996; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). In a meta-analytic review, Hershcovis et al (2007) confirmed that interpersonal mistreatment from supervisors (i.e. interpersonal injustice, abusive supervision) is the strongest predictor of supervisor directed deviant behaviors. It is also confirmed by (Jones, 2009) that procedural justice brings unique variance to the organization directed deviant behaviors. Following the Agent-system model, it seems logical to say that interactional injustice triggers interpersonal deviance which will be directed towards an individual; on the other hand, decision making and outcome distribution is mostly considered as the responsibility of organization, so procedural and distributive justice will trigger organizational deviance behaviors. In light of the above literature following hypotheses are derived.

H1. Distributive injustice has positive relationship with organizational deviance.

H2. Procedural injustice has positive relationship with organizational deviance.

H3. Interactional injustice has positive relationship with interpersonal deviance.

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2.6 Organizational injustice and Anger

A framework is given by Affective Event Theory Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) which shows a relationship between workplace events, emotions and resultant behaviors. Perceived injustice works as stressor which elicits negative emotions (anger) and resultantly transform into deviant behaviors. Anger can be defined as *"a negative emotion that occurs when a threat is appraised as a demeaning offense to me and mine"* (Lazarus, 1999; p. 96). Anger refers to the outward focused negative emotions (Carver and Harmon-Jones, 2009) which has the attribute of varying from the feelings of minor irritation to outrage (Glomb, 2002). Comparing anger with other basic emotions, previous researchers explored that anger brings a higher degree of distress both physical and psychological as compare to other emotions

lasting for a longer period of time (Cooper and Faragher, 1993). Focusing on the approach and avoidant behaviors, Carver and Harmon-Jones (2009) identified that anger is more related with approach behaviors compare to avoidant behaviors. Organizational injustice work as a job stressor which generate negative emotions which results into strain responses (Zohar, 1995). Employees respond to unfair treatment at workplace by negative emotions such outrage, resentment and anger (Folger, 1993) by direct or indirect behavioral response like theft (Greenberg, 1990) and sabotage, vandalism, resistance, withdrawal and reduced citizenship behaviors (Jermier, Knights, and Nord, 1994).

A study by O'Neill, Lewis, and Carswell (2011) explored that many characteristics of a high neurotic individual, such as anxiety, depression, self-consciousness and vulnerability, have no relation with deviance; however anger appeared to be a strong predictor of deviant behaviors. Anger work as a predictor for workplace aggression which is considered as a kind of deviant behaviors (e.g. Lazarus, Cohen-Charash, Payne, and Cooper, 2001). A study on employees' layoff reported that hostility and anger are the significant predictors of retaliatory behaviors after the layoff (Barclay, Skarlicki, and Pugh, 2005). Likewise, Douglas and Martinko (2001) also confirmed that trait anger has a strong relationship with attitude towards revenge and workplace aggression. Few other researchers also validated the relationship of anger with counterproductive workplace behaviors such as, aggression, legal claiming and workplace deviance (Fox et al., 2001; Judge et al., 2006; Lee and Allen, 2002).

On the other hand Anxiety can be define as *" negative emotions that can be described as apprehension, concern, or worry"* (Lazarus and Lazarus, 1996). Like anger, anxiety also comes under the umbrella of basic negative emotions however, it is more prone towards avoidant behaviors rather than approach related behaviors (Carver and Harmon-Jones, 2009). Role conflict and workplace ambiguity are important organizational examples of anxiety

producing conditions (Öhman, 1992). These particular situations produce doubt and worry in employees' mind which negatively influences employees' task performance.

Seminal equity theory, Adams (1963) proposed that *"inequity (injustice) aggravate individuals to make adaptive response in both cognitive and behavioral ways"*. Another study by Skarlicki and Folger (1997) also confirmed a link between perceptions of injustice and negative emotions. Serious and threatening events for example, unfair procedures, low outcome, or unfair supervisory treatment generate outward-focused negative emotions like anger (Smith et al., 1993). Classic proposition of Homans (1974) described that *"individuals treated fairly experience positive emotions, whereas those under-rewarded are likely to feel anger and those over-rewarded feel guilty"*. Hence, it is argued that employees' perceptions of unfairness at workplace lead them to experience anger, resentment and hostility because of the feeling that they are not receiving the things what they deserve or entitled (Clayton, 1992). In light of the above described literature, following hypothesis is derived.

H4. Distributive injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

As described above, a framework is given by Affective Event Theory Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) which shows a relationship between workplace events, emotions and resultant behaviors. Perceived injustice work as stressor which elicits negative emotions (anger) and resultantly transform into deviant behaviors. Procedural and interactional injustice are associated with anger and hostility, irrespective of the outcome favorability (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998, 2001). Discrete negative emotions (anger) generate when an external source seems to be the cause of stressor which has control over the stressor (Perrewé and Zellars, 1999). Perceived injustice at workplace can be a potential predictor of deviance; the studies found that procedural and distributive justice increases theft, which comes under the umbrella of deviant behaviors (Greenberg, 1990, 1993). External sources of stressors can be

organizational as well as individual including co-workers, supervisors and organization as a whole. Organizational examples of stressors include task difficulty, unreasonable task demands, and procedural unfairness which are perceived as controllable for example, organizational policy for promotion based upon year of experience instead of task performance can generate negative feelings in some employees. When a due promotion of an employee is missed, he or she may appraise this encounter as stressful which elicit negative emotions. After that employees go for the attributional search of causality for this assessment. If an employee perceives that his/her performance was weaker than other co-workers at workplace, he/she will not blame himself for his lower performance; rather, he/she will hold responsible the organization for adopting the unfair promotional policy. It is evident from the above described discussion that fair enactment of procedures is essential to run the organizational system with a smooth pace. On the other hand, unfair procedures enactment may generate negative feeling in employees which is counter to the organizational objective. Hence, the following hypothesis is derived.

H5. Procedural injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

Several organizational justice scholars found that unfair treatment is responded by deviant workplace behaviors for example, desire for retribution (Folger, 1993), sabotage, resistance, vandalism, withdrawal from work, reduced OCB (Jermier et al., 1994) and many direct and indirect behavioral responses like theft (Greenberg, 1990). Focusing on the relationship between unfairness and behaviors, researchers postulate that emotions can be the underlying mechanism between this relationship and they further described that the most basic discrete negative emotion (anger) is specifically more appropriate for the studies of unfairness perception (Frijda, Kuipers, and Ter Schure, 1989). Negative emotions (anger) are generated as a result of unfair treatment employees receive at workplace and resultantly the victims blame an external party for this perceived transgression (Weiss, Suckow, and Cropanzano,

1999). Managers/supervisors who are considered as the agents of organization are supposed to treat employees/subordinates on equity basis which may generate positive feelings in employees towards the organization. On the other hand, if individuals perceive that they are not being treated with respectful and in a dignified way by their immediate supervisors, this generates negative feelings (anger) in them. In light of the above discussion, following hypothesis is derived.

H6. Interactional injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

2.7 Link between anger and deviant behaviors

A framework is given by Affective Event Theory Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) which shows a relationship between workplace events, emotions and resultant behaviors. *"Emotions are response to meaning"* (Lazarus, 1991). Challenge and hindrance stressors can be taken as events, because they progress and hinder the valued outcomes respectively (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, and Boudreau, 2000). Hindrance stressors strive to activate negative emotions which hamper personal growth and accomplishment of organizational goals (Cavanaugh et al., 2000). It is argued that negative emotions are aroused when harms and threats comes to one's valued outcomes (Lazarus, 1991). Spector and his colleagues (Chen and Spector, 1992; Fox and Spector, 1999; Storms and Spector, 1987) described that workplace deviance is the emotional response towards the stressful conditions of the organization. Job stress, emotions and deviant behaviors framework was developed by Spector (1998), suggesting that these workplace behaviors is a response to job stressors(Fox et al., 2001). Events taking place in the environment are monitored and appraised by individuals (Lazarus, 1991), and those events which posit threats for goal attainment are considered as workplace stressors, and trigger negative emotions such as anxiety and anger (Spector, 1998). The concept of strain also got attention in organizational justice literature

which is considered as the consequence of job stressors and can be physical, psychological and behavioral; deviant behaviors come under the umbrella of behavioral strain (Fox and Spector, 2001). Emotions are the immediate response to the stressful situations (Lazarus, 1991) and in turn energize the subsequent behaviors (Cartwright and Cooper, 1997; Spector, 1998). Employees' perceptions of fair treatment on the job are called organizational justice; on the other hand, when situations elicit negative emotional reactions and adaptive responses, then it becomes job stressors (Jex and Beehr, 1991; Spector, 1998).

Organizational researchers demonstrate that affect has relationship with deviant workplace behaviors. One theoretical reason in support of this notion is that pain is the prime motivation for individuals to aggress against the transgressors (Berkovvitz, 1993). While explaining this point of view further, Berkowitz proposed that workplace stressors evoke severe negative emotions which results into aggressive reactions. Negative affect and deviant behaviors are related and many deviant behaviors are considered as aggressive (Berkovvitz, 1993). Focusing on the stressor-emotion relationship, Spector and Fox (2005) model delineate that how negative emotions results into deviant workplace behaviors. It is described in this model that first, environmental stressors lead towards the perceived stressors. After that, perceptions of stressors lead towards negative emotions which results into deviant workplace behaviors. The psychological rationale for this stressor-emotions model is that employees are motivated to give up the negative feelings after they encounter with unfair treatment. For doing this, they go for devastating behaviors directed either towards organization or individual to even the score and make them feel better. This makes employees better only on temporary basis which does not solve the organizational problem permanently and this was labeled as emotion-focused coping by Spector and Fox (2002).

Agent-system model of justice described that individuals' respond to perceived fair/unfair treatment which is always directed towards the origin of fair or unfair treatment (Bies and

Moag, 1986). Employees develop exchange relationship with their immediate supervisors and organization (Rupp and Cropanzano, 2002). Employees engage in deviant behaviors-S or deviant behaviors-O, while responding to perceived unfairness depending upon the source of injustice (Jones, 2009). Blame attribution has a significant relationship with revenge (Aquino, Tripp, and Bies, 2001, 2006), which make it confirm that an individual being mistreated will attribute it either to an organization or its members. In light of the above discussion it is argued that individuals who are mistreated at workplace will first attribute the blame and later they will target the blame attributed party. Following hypotheses are derived from the above literature.

H7. Anger is positively related with interpersonal deviance.

H8. Anger is positively related with organizational deviance.

2.8 Mediating role of Anger

Spector and colleagues (Chen and Spector, 1992; Fox and Spector, 1999; Storms and Spector, 1987) proposed that deviant behavior is an emotion-based response towards the stressful organizational conditions. Job stress, emotions and deviant behaviors' framework was developed by Spector (1998), suggesting that deviant behavior is the reciprocal reaction to the workplace stressors. Events taking place in the environment are monitored and appraised by individuals (Lazarus, 1991). These specific events are threats for goal attainment and are considered as stressors, which generate negative emotions, such as anger and anxiety (Spector, 1998). Job stress process results into strain reactions which can be psychological, physical and behavioral; counterproductive work behaviors come under the umbrella of behavioral strain (Fox et al., 2001). In light of the Affective Event Theory and literature reviewed so far, it is argued that perceived injustice and deviant behaviors (Interpersonal/Organizational) has a distal relationship. Anger which is considered as a

negative emotional reaction will mediate the relationship between perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and deviant behaviors. Hence, the following hypotheses are derived.

H9. Anger mediates the positive relationship between perceived distributive injustice and organizational directed deviant behaviors.

H10. Anger mediates the positive relationship between perceived procedural injustice and organizational directed deviant behaviors.

H11. Anger mediates the positive relationship between perceived interactional injustice and individual directed deviant behaviors.

2.9 Personality and the injustice-deviance relationship

Very few studies could be located that investigated whether personality constructs have an impact upon the relationship between perceived organizational injustice and deviant workplace behaviors. Aquino et al (1999) proposed a model in which these authors investigated the hypothesized relationships between the three dimensions of organizational justice and negative affectivity with both kind of deviant workplace behaviors. Negative affectivity is a dispositional variable which describes *"the extent to which an individual is likely to experience distressing emotions such as anger, hostility, fear, and anxiety"* (Watson and Clark, 1984). Data were collected on site and email with surveys containing self-report measures of injustice (using 16 items adapted from previous research), negative affectivity was measured with 10 items taken from positive and negative affectivity scale (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, and Tellegen, 1988), and interpersonal and organizational workplace deviance was measured by using 15 items developed by the authors themselves, based upon

the Robinson and Bennett (1995) measure. Findings showed that negative affectivity was the single best predictor among the independent variables of both forms of workplace deviance. When entered first in a hierarchical regression, negative affectivity brought significant variation in the dependent variables (R^2 =.05, $p < .01$ for organizational deviance; $R^2 = .10$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal deviance). When entering the three injustice perceptions first, the explanatory power of negative affectivity was reduced, but remained significant ($\Delta R^2 = .03$, $p < .01$ for organizational deviance; $\Delta R^2 = .06$, $p < .01$ for interpersonal deviance).

In the second study, Skarlicki et al. (1999) which was a follow up and extension of Skarlicki and Folger (1997), found a significant interaction of agreeableness and negative affectivity with perceived injustice which explained variance in workplace retaliation beyond what could be attributed to injustice perceptions alone. Workplace retaliation was defined as *"the behavioral responses of disgruntled employees to perceived unfair treatment"* (1997). Data were collected during company time, with injustice being assessed via a self-report measure (utilizing 21 items from prior research), and respondent's retaliation being measured by one peer evaluation (using 17 items) similar to those comprising the Bennett and Robinson measure for workplace deviance, however the retaliation measure was not divided into the two factors of interpersonal and organizational deviance. One year later, measures of negative affectivity were collected with five self-report adjectives (e.g., anxious, tense, moody) and agreeableness with seven self-report adjectives (e.g., cold, kind, respectful). Results revealed a significant three-way interaction among distributive justice, interactional justice, and negative affectivity (reported $\beta = -3.26$, $p < .05$). These results indicated that interaction between distributive and interactional justice did not predict retaliation when individuals were low at negative affectivity. Contrary to this, the combination of both low interactional and low distributive justice significantly predicted retaliation for those who were high at negative affectivity. An additional three-way interaction among distributive justice,

interactional justice, and agreeableness was significant (reported $\beta = -3.98$, $p < .05$). These results showed that the interaction between distributive and interactional justice did not significantly predict retaliation for high agreeable individuals. On the other hand, for low agreeable individuals, the combination of low interactional and low distributive justice significantly predicted retaliation.

In addition to these studies on injustice and deviant behaviors relationships discussed above, two meta-analyses were conducted on the aforementioned relationship. Finding of Hershcovis et al (2007) suggested that both situational and dispositional factors can be predictors of workplace aggression. Findings of this study showed that trait anger and sex has significantly predicted workplace aggression, with women being less aggressive than men. In second meta-analysis Berry et al. (2007) confirmed that interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance both are highly correlated (r=.62) but they were differently correlated with big-5 personality traits which corroborates the two separate dimensions of workplace deviance (DBO and DBI).

2.10 Moderating effect of self-control, positive and negative affectivity

An important facet of Affective Event Theory (AET) is that the impact of work place events on affective reactions is influenced by individuals' dispositions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). This feature of affective event theory is quite congruent with the notion of differential reactivity. Differential reactivity can be described as *"the extent to which a person is likely to show emotional or physical reactions to a stressful event"* (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995, p. 980). This shows that dispositional traits influence the emotional reactions of individuals. Some people will react more severely while others are reluctant to do so. Various organizational studies have investigated this differential reactivity effect for some dispositional traits like neuroticism and extraversion (Bolger and Schilling, 1991; Bolger and

Zuckerman, 1995; Larsen and Ketelaar, 1991). As shown in Figure 1, this study investigates the reactivity effect of personality traits like Self-control, Positive and Negative Affectivity.

2.10.1 *Self-control*

Several studies on self-control investigated that individuals having a lower control on their emotions are more likely to go for deviant workplace behaviors (Block, 1977; Buss, 1961; Geen and Donnerstein, 1990; Sarchione, Cuttler, Muchinsky, and Nelson-Gray, 1998).One other study by Bush(1961) described that self-control is the capability of individuals to manage frustrations. He further argued in his study that those individuals who have lower score on self-control have higher tendency to engage in aggressive behaviors compare to high self-control individuals. Another study by Geen and Donnerstein, (1990) proposed that high self-control individuals tend to remain calm in provocative situations; contrary to this, low self-control individuals lose their control on emotions and adopt aggressive behaviors in such situations. Similarly, a study found that individuals having low self-control exhibit stable tendency and respond more offensively towards smaller provocations (Baron and Richardson, 1994). Keeping in view the importance of self-control and its relationship with contextual performance a study found that stop-stop control and start-control are differentially related with contextual performance (Benjamin, Edwin and Arnold, 2015).

Describing the influence of self-control, personality researchers are of the view that self-control exerts the influence in three different ways. First, it works as cognitive reappraisal where the earlier hostile interpretations are usually replaced with comparatively less hostile interpretations (Anderson and Bushman, 2002). Secondly, it may divert individuals from contemplations over antagonistic information (Mischel and Ayduk, 2004). Thirdly, it suppress the utterance of thoughts which induce anger, including the non-verbal demonstrations of anger (DeWall, Baumeister, Stillman, and Gailliot, 2007). Unlike this, the

general theory of crime by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) posits that individuals having a lower score on self-control have a higher inclination to respond with offending and criminal behaviors to situational triggers particularly when they get an opportunity for doing this. Likewise, the *integrative cognitive model of trait* anger also provide support for the fact that self-control has buffering effect against negative emotions (Wilkowski and Robinson, 2008). On the basis of theory and research discussed above the following hypotheses are derived:

H12. Relationship between perceived distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is stronger for low self-control individuals.

H13. Relationship between perceived procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is stronger for low self-control individuals.

H14. Relationship between perceived interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is stronger for low self-control individuals.

2.10.2 *Positive and Negativity Affectivity*

Negativity Affectivity (NA) includes affective states like *"anger, scorn, revulsion, guilt, self-dissatisfaction, a sense of rejection and sadness"* (Watson and Clark, 1984, p. 465). Individuals having a higher scores on negative affectivity experience higher distress, higher discomfort and dissatisfaction when they are encountered with different situations at different times (Watson and Clark, 1984). These individuals ruminate on their mistakes and dwell with their shortcoming which make them more chronic and resultantly they always look at the dark side of life (Watson, Wiese, Vaidya, and Tellegen, 1999). Focusing on the potential

association between negative affectivity and aggressive workplace behaviors, Geen and Donnerstein (1990) explored that negative affectivity works as a predictor for workplace aggression. Berkowitz (1993) also confirmed that negative affectivity has a significant direct relationship with aggression. Furthermore, he describes that individuals having a higher score on negative affectivity are more sensitive towards aversive outcomes and have a higher tendency to respond more aggressively towards negative stimulation compare to those who have lower score on negative affectivity. Another study by Bouckenooghe, Raja and Butt (2013) in the context of Pakistan found that positive and negative affectivity both have relationship with job performance and turnover intention. These authors further explored that this relationship is moderated by job satisfaction.

Watson and Clark (1984) defined negative affectivity as *"a stable tendency to experience negative emotions across situations and time"*. These authors further argued that negative affectivity include a characteristic to experience job dissatisfaction (Watson and Slack, 1993). In a subsequent study, Watson et al. (1988) described that high negative affectivity individuals are more susceptible to experience negative emotions and reported higher distress.

High negative affectivity individuals are depressed and most of the time they are full of negative emotions which induce them to exhibit hostile attribution style; resultantly they are more prone towards aggressive behaviors at workplace (Martinko and Zellars, 1998). Another study by Larsen and Katelaar (1991) argued that negative affectivity strive to enhance the individuals' susceptibility towards those stimuli which generate outward focused negative emotions like distress, anger and anxiety. Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) asked participants to complete a 14-day diary recording their reactions to daily interpersonal conflicts. Results showed that high-negative-affectivity individuals have higher exposure and negative reactivity towards the conflicts than those who have a lower score on negative

affectivity. As described above, given their heightened responsiveness towards stimuli inducing negative emotions, higher negative affectivity individuals may respond negatively to such situations. Keeping in view the above described theory and research, following hypotheses are proposed.

H15. Negative affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived distributive injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is stronger for high negative affectivity individuals.

H16. Negative affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived procedural injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is stronger for high negative affectivity individuals.

H17. Negative affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived interactional injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is strong for high negative affectivity individuals.

H18. Positive affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived distributive injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is weaker for high positive affectivity individuals.

H19. Positive affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived procedural injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is weaker for high positive affectivity individuals.

H20. Positive affectivity moderates the positive relationship between perceived interactional injustice and employees' anger such that the relationship is weaker for high positive affectivity individuals.

2.11 Restraints in response to perceived injustice

It is an established fact that perceptions of injustice at workplace lead to counterproductive workplace behaviors; however, several studies on organizational justice confirmed that it is not necessary that individuals who perceive injustice always seek for revenge or punishment against the transgressor (Aquino et al., 2006; Okimoto and Wenzel, 2008; Wenzel, Okimoto, Feather, and Platow, 2010). Organizational justice researchers have consensus upon the fact that punishment for wrong doing cannot guarantee the restoration of balance of workplace justice (Karremans, Van Lange, and Holland, 2005; Wenzel et al., 2010). To suppress their retributive desire for not acting against the transgressor shows that victims of injustice do not want to go down to the level of transgressor (Heider, 1958). In addition, the victims of injustice who refrain from revenge indicate that they have a high moral status compare to those who commit injustice at workplace (Bies and Tripp, 1996; Wenzel, Okimoto, Feather, and Platow, 2008). This avoidance strategy, like the striking back against the offender, can also play an important role in restoring the balance of justice (Wenzel et al., 2010).

Bies, Tripp, and Krammer (1997) proposed a theoretical framework on the thermodynamics of revenge where they emphasized upon these points. Their framework, as against the conventional wisdom, proposed that it is not necessary that negative psychological reactions will always lead towards devastating behaviors; rather employees after perceiving justice, most of the time find some constructive means to cool themselves down. For example, an employee may pour out his anger to family or friends, pardon the transgressor, follow a formal grievance procedure, or can simply do nothing in response to the injustice. Hence, it is evident from the above discussed theory and research that retaliation is not the only option for human beings to deal with feelings or emotions, rather, they have lot of other options available to avoid retaliation. However, this is not very much clear in justice literature that why some individuals are unwilling to go for retaliatory behaviors in response to unjust

treatment they receive. One potential reason which is suggested by many organizational justice scholars is that individual dispositional differences can have influence on the variability of individuals' behavioral reactions to mistreatment they receive at workplace (Bradfield and Aquino, 1999; Okimoto, Wenzel, and Feather, 2009).

2.12 Big-5 personality dimensions

Personality researchers agreed upon the fact that almost all the measures of personality can be categorized on the basis of highly validated model of personality (five-factor model) which is most of the time referred as the *"big five"* dimensions of personality in literature. (Goldberg, 1990; Hogan, Hogan, and Roberts, 1996). This five dimensional model of personality seems pertinent to different cultures (McCrae and Costa, 1997). Digman (1989) argued that five dimensions of personality have genetic basis and that these traits are mostly inherited (Jang, Livesley, and Vernon, 1996). In the following section a detailed view of big-5 personality traits are presented.

2.12.1 *Neuroticism*

This particular dimension of personality indicates the general propensity of individuals experiencing negative feelings like anger, sadness, embarrassment, fear, guilt and disgust. There is a higher degree of risk of some kinds of psychiatric problems for high neurotic individuals. High score on neuroticism indicate the individuals' susceptibility of having illogical ideas, lack of ability to control their impulses and are less likely to manage with the stress. In contrast, individuals low in neuroticism indicates emotional stability. They are usually even-tempered, calm, relaxed and have a high capability to face the stressful situations without losing their temperament (Hough, Eaton, Dunnette, Kamp, and McCloy, 1990). One other study investigated and found that neuroticism is a stronger predictor of job performance in several occupations (Hormann and Maschke, 1996). Dunn, Mount, Barrick and Ones (1995) also investigated that emotional stability is considered as one of the most

important personality characteristics which have a higher influence on the employability of individuals. One other study also found an inverse relationship between neuroticism and job performance (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, and Barrick, 1999), however, Salgado (1997) found that neuroticism predicts the task performance only in specific circumstances.

2.12.2 *Extraversion*

This particular dimension of personality represents characteristics like assertiveness, sociability and talkativeness. High scorers on extraversion are optimistic and full of energy; on the other hand, introverts are self-restrained rather than unfriendly, like to be independent rather than to be followers, tend to be even-paced rather than apathetic (Digman, 1990). Extraversion has similarity with positive affect because high extroverts individuals always have positive feelings and experiences (Clark and Watson, 1991). Several personality researchers explored that extraversion has relationship with job performance in such conditions where social interaction is considered as important for example, jobs of sales managers and personnel department (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Lowery and Krilowicz, 1994; Vinchur, Schippmann, Switzer, and Roth, 1998). In addition, Johnson (1997) explored a high positive relationship between extraversion and task performance of police personnel. He further explained that higher level of interaction in police service enhance the relationship explored.

2.12.3 *Openness to Experience*

This personality dimension is characterized with attributes like active imagination, attentiveness to inner feelings, aesthetic sensitivity and independence for judgments. Individuals having a lower score on openness to experience are conservative in outlook and they usually tend to be conventional in behaviors. They generally have muted emotional response and prefer familiar things compare to novel. Those individuals, who have a higher score on openness, tend to be unorthodox, raise questions on higher authorities and always

welcome new political, social and ethical ideas. These individuals are highly sensitive and curious about the outer and inner world and their lives are full of experiences. They are willing to take into account the unconventional values and novel ideas and they keenly experience the negative and positive emotions both compared to closed individuals. Many a studies found that openness to experience has a high correlation with consulting (Hamilton, 1988), adapting to change (Raudsepp, 1990) and success in training (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Vinchur et al., 1998). On the other hand, two other studies found that successful employees have lower score on openness (Hayes, Roehm, and Castellano, 1994; Johnson, 1997). However, one other study found that openness to experience has no significant relationship with job performance (Tett, Jackson, and Rothstein, 1991). One possible reason for the above described contradictory results about the relationship between openness and task performance can be job requirements which are not always the same.

2.12.4 *Agreeableness*

Agreeable people are highly cooperative, altruistic in nature, sympathetic, eager to help others and are highly optimistic and believe that other party will respond equally positive in return. Contrary to this, low agreeable individuals are highly self-centered, doubtful about the intentions of others and have a firm belief in competition rather than cooperation. It was explored in personality literature that agreeableness significantly predict task performance (Tett et al., 1991). Salgado (1997) also found that agreeableness has relationship with success in training. Agreeable individuals have a highly co-operative nature which may lead them towards the success of organization especially in those occupations where customer service and teamwork are highly relevant (Judge et al., 1999).

2.12.5 *Conscientiousness*

Conscientiousness refers to *"high self-control and vigorous process of planning, organizing and carrying out the job responsibilities"* (Barrick and Mount, 1993). High conscientiousness

individuals are purposeful, achievement oriented and highly determined. On its darker side, high conscientiousness individuals exhibit unnecessary scrupulousness, immense tidiness and workaholic behavior. Low conscientious individuals are necessarily lacking with moral principles, however, they are less capable of applying these principles in appropriate way (Costa and McCrae, 1988). A strong correlation (r=0.80) was found between reliability, which is considered as an important aspect of conscientiousness, and employees' task performance (Borman, White, Pulakos, and Oppler, 1991). Several other personality researchers also reported a significant relationship between conscientiousness and employees' task performance (Barrick and Mount, 1993; Frink and Ferris, 1999; Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, and Laczo, 2006). Sackett and Wannek (1996) described that a correlation between conscientiousness and job performance can be attributed to the conceptual similarity between conscientiousness and integrity. In addition, goal setting and autonomy also have a moderating impact on the positive relationship between conscientiousness and employees' job performance (Barrick and Mount, 1993; Barrick, Mount, and Strauss, 1993). It is evident from the above described literature that personality factors have a strong influence on job performance. A meta-analytic findings showed a moderate coefficient of validity for personality measure (r = 0.21). However, Barrick and Mount (1991) mentioned that standard personality tests can be used to predict employees' performance.

2.13 Moderating effect of Big-5 personality traits and attitude towards revenge

In addition to the Affective Event Theory, this study have taken into account the concept of social cognitive view of individuals which focuses on the person-situation interactions (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993). In terms of dispositional factors, five-factor model is taken into account because this model is widely used, and is an established fact in the personality literature. Cognitive social view of individuals suggests that individuals' interpretation of the situation may influence its psychological effect; differences in

interpretations occur due to significant individual differences. This research explores that all angry individuals will not respond to injustice in the same way, rather they react differently depending upon their personality dispositions.

Five-Factor Model (FFM) propose that personality can be described in terms of five higher order factors: Emotional Stability, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1992). There is high correlation between personality and employees' behaviors when personality traits are linked with theoretically relevant outcomes variables (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997). Therefore, selecting employees on the basis of personality traits like conscientiousness, emotional stability and agreeableness are likely to reduce the frequency and severity of deviant behaviors that occur in organization (Ones et al., 1993); and the impact of situational perception on workplace deviance is lessen by employees personality (Colbert et al., 2004). It seems logical to suggest that different people may have different preferences and react most positively when exposed to an advertisement stream that matches their personality (Myers, Sen, and Alexandrov, 2010). Robinson and Bennett (1997) also noted that *"whether a given provocation leads to deviant action depends on the presence of constraints and controls that inhibit behavior"*.

Prior research suggests that when people make external and stable attributions for negative events in the workplace, such as to an abusive boss or coworker, they are more likely to experience upsetting emotions like anger and respond aggressively (Martinko and Zellars, 1998). As discussed earlier, organizational injustice is positively related with deviant behaviors both interpersonal and organizational, however, individuals' reactions to unfavorable situational perceptions might be affected by personality variables (Cullen and Sackett, 2003), because person-situation interaction is considered as important by the proponents of social cognitive model (e.g., Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993). This

point of view suggests that same situation can be interpreted differently and the difference in interpretation is because of the significant individual differences. Thus the relationship between perceptions of workplace injustice and deviant behaviors may be constrained by relevant personality traits such that injustice perceptions are only related to deviant behaviors when this behavior is consistent with the employees' personality traits.

2.13.1 *Conscientiousness*

Employees exhibit counterproductive workplace behaviors while reacting to perceived negative situation at workplace if there is high degree of congruence of these behaviors with dispositional traits (Colbert et al., 2004). Thus employees engage in deviant behaviors when workplace situation is unfavorable and their dispositional traits do not restrain them from deviant workplace behaviors. Various personality researchers have found the relationship between different personality traits and employees' workplace behaviors (e.g. Judge and Ilies, 2002; Mount, Barrick, and Strauss, 1999). Conscientious individuals are highly committed, hardworking, punctual, achievement oriented, careful and dependable. This personality trait has widely been explored and is considered as the most consistent predictor of task performance (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Hurtz and Donovan, 2000; Salgado, 1997). Self-control and achievement orientation are regarded as the key components of conscientiousness, so high conscientious people exert their higher level of effort in order to perform well on the job (Costa and McCrae, 1992). Another research by Murphy and Lee (1994) confirmed that conscientiousness has a strong correlation with integrity and honesty. Individuals' dispositional factors, for example, conscientiousness, emotional stability have a significant impact on the positive relationship between perceived negative workplace environment and deviant behaviors (Colbert et al., 2004). High conscientious individuals are reluctant to go for deviant workplace behaviors because of their committed nature and inclination towards rules abiding. From the above empirical evidences, it is argued that it is

more likely that deviant behaviors either interactional or organizational would hinder effective job performance, which is unbearable for a high conscientious individual, hence the following hypotheses are put forth.

H21. Conscientiousness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high conscientious individuals.

H22. Conscientiousness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high conscientious individuals.

2.13.2 *Neuroticism*

Neuroticism generally refers to scarcity of emotional stability and positive psychological adjustment. Individuals having a higher score on neuroticism are often time characterized with negative attributes like anxiousness, fearfulness and depressed (Judge and Cable, 1997). Individual high on emotional stability can be described as calm, relax, secure, patient and at ease (McCrae and Costa, 1987). In contrast neurotic people can be described as emotional, anxious, angry, impatient, insecure and worrisome. Thus neurotic individuals are more frequently engaged with managing their negative emotions in order to avoid the potential failure, rather than utilizing the organizational resources to accomplish organizational goals (Penney, Hunter, and Perry, 2011). Several studies found that individual traits like trait anger (Douglas and Martinko, 2001; Fox and Spector, 1999) and big-5 personality dimensions such as agreeableness and neuroticism (Berry et al., 2007) are highly correlated with deviant workplace behaviors. These researchers conducted a Meta-analysis and the findings indicated that neuroticism, agreeableness and conscientiousness are significantly correlated with deviant workplace behaviors. Another study by Judge and Ilies (2002) also found a correlation of (r=-0.31) between neuroticism and expectancy motivation, goal-setting

motivation and self-efficacy motivation. There is high degree of inconsistency in mood of neurotic individuals which may induce them towards deviant workplace behaviors (Berry et al., 2007). Keeping in view the above discussed theory and research, the following hypotheses are put forth.

H23. Neuroticism moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance such that the relationship is stronger for high neurotic individuals.

H24. Neuroticism moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance such that the relationship is stronger for high neurotic individuals.

2.13.3 *Agreeableness*

Describing the attributes of agreeable people, Colbert et al (2004) mentioned that agreeable people are highly considerate, forgiving, nurturing and tolerant enough; on the other hand, individuals low on agreeableness scale are frequently argumentative, uncooperative, inconsiderate and vengeful. All of the big-5 dispositional factors predicts deviant workplace behaviors however, conscientious is the strongest among all the factors (Smithikrai, 2008). A meta-analytic review explored that neuroticism and agreeableness are strong correlates of deviant workplace behaviors (Berry et al., 2007). Results of this meta-analysis further revealed that neuroticism, conscientiousness and agreeableness have a stronger correlation with interpersonal and organizational deviance (-0.23 to -0.46) as compare to extraversion and openness to experience (-0.09 to 0.02) (Berry et al., 2007). High agreeable individuals tend to build good relationship with their colleagues at workplace whereas, disagreeable individuals have higher tendency to go for interpersonally deviant workplace behaviors (Mount, Barrick, and Stewart, 1998). Keeping in view the above described theoretical and empirical evidences it is argued that high agreeable individuals are more committed with their job responsibilities and are less likely to engage in deviance workplace behaviors either

directed towards individuals or towards the organization. Hence, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H25. Agreeableness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high agreeable individuals.

H26. Agreeableness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high agreeable individuals.

2.13.4 *Extraversion*

Extraverts are more talkative, active, assertive, sociable, expressive, ambitious and energetic than their introvert counterparts. They are highly social and are mostly attributed with gregariousness and excitement-seeking behaviors (Judge and Cable, 1997). Extraverts frequently longing for novel situations and activities (Costa and McCrae, 1992), they consider work as dull and routine because of its repetitive nature(Judge, Martocchio, and Thoresen, 1997). They are highly expressive and always look at the bright side of a situation. It seems likely that extraverts will not be able to control upon their feelings of anger and are likely to go for deviant behaviors. Extraverts positively predict absence which comes under the domain of deviance behaviors (Judge et al., 1997). Meta-analysis by Berry et al (2007) also found that extraversion has positive relationship with deviance. One other study also found positive relationship between extraversion and absenteeism (Cooper and Payne, 1967). On the basis of above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H27. Extraversion moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance such that the relationship is stronger for high extraverts.

H28. Extraversion moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance such that the relationship is stronger for high extraverts.

2.13.5 *Openness to Experience*

This personality dimension reflecting the degree to which a person is curious, intelligent, imaginative and independent. It is the least understood, rarely researched and the most controversial dimension of the big five personality traits (McCrae, 1987). One potential study by Mount, Ilies and Johnson (2006) found that individuals low on openness are inclined towards interpersonal and organizational deviant behaviors. Aggregate deviance behaviors have modest and negative relationship with openness, whereas openness individually is unrelated with both dimensions (Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance) (Sackett et al., 2006). It seems logical from openness attributes like, intelligence and independence, that people having such attributes will be more likely to accept challenging jobs within the organizations. More challenging jobs require dedication and commitment and inhibit deviant behaviors; hence the following hypotheses are put forth.

H29. Openness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high openness individuals.

H30. Openness moderates the positive relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance such that the relationship is weaker for high openness individuals.

2.13.6 *Attitude towards revenge*

Revenge can be defined as *"an individual's attempt to harm a person or party blamed for an offense"* (Stuckless and Goranson, 1992). Previous research has explored that revenge is often time preceded by cognitive appraisal of an offense; first, the victim must perceive that the offence is harmful for him (abusive attitude) or wrong (violation of norms) (Bies and

Tripp, 1996). Second, blame attribution play a crucial role in motivating a person towards revenge seeking behaviors (Bradfield and Aquino, 1999; Sheppard et al., 1992). Blame attribution takes place when a person perceive that he/she has been wronged and believe to do something in response to the injustice to make the score even (Felstiner, Abel, and Sarat, 1980). If the blame attributed party is held responsible for the injustice committed, this may generate a set of negative emotions in the victim for example, anger, anxiety, hostility, sadness and rage which increase the probability of revengeful behaviors (Allred, 1999; Martinko and Zellars, 1998).

Tripp, Bies and Aquino (2007) in their Vigilante Model of Justice described that motivation for revenge is dependent upon the magnitude of blame, for example, high motivation for revenge is preceded by higher offence. Those people, who believe that aggressive behaviors are acceptable, have a higher tendency to engage in aggressive workplace behaviors as compare to those who think that aggressive behaviors are not acceptable (Bulatao and VandenBos, 1996). Attribution style, specifically hostile attribution style, also have influence on individuals' reactions towards negative work outcomes (e.g., psychological contract breach) (Douglas and Martinko, 2001). In a desire to obtain cognitive balance for self-defense or self-protection, individuals with higher level of hostile attribution style will strive to demonstrate negative emotional and behavioral reactions, for example frustration, anger and deviant workplace behaviors (Weiner, 1985). Therefore, people having a high attitude towards revenge are more likely to exhibit negative feelings like anger, hostility and resentment compare to those having a lower attitude towards revenge. In light of the above discussed theory and research and the arguments mentioned here, the following hypotheses are proposed.

H31. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is stronger for high attitude towards revenge individuals.

H32. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is stronger for high attitude towards revenge individuals.

2.14 Theoretical justification of the Model

The framework of Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) has widely been used to explore the relationships among workplace events, emotions and discretionary behaviors. Using the broader framework of AET, the present study tends to investigate the relationship between perceived organizational injustice and deviant workplace behaviors. The study is not only intended to test injustice-deviant behaviors relationships rather, it also answers the how's and why's of these relationships by explaining the real mechanism/process i.e. anger, which transform individuals' perception of injustice into deviant workplace behaviors.

Another important facet of Affective Event Theory (AET) is that the impact of workplace events on affective reactions is influenced by individual dispositions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). This specific feature of Affective Event Theory is very similar to the concept of differential reactivity (1995), which can be described as *"the extent to which a person is likely to show emotional or physical reactions to a stressful event"*. This indicates that those individuals, who have higher score on some dispositional traits, will react aggressively to some specific situations, for example, with stronger emotions, compare to those who are low on those specific personality traits. Keeping in view this particular notion of differential reactivity, this study strives to investigate the moderating impact of positive affectivity,

negative affectivity and self-control on the direct positive relationship between perceived organizational injustice and employees' outward focused negative emotions(anger). Additionally, taking into consideration the concept of social cognitive view of individuals (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993), which focuses on interaction of dispositional and contextual factor, this study also strive to explore that the response of all angry individuals will not be the same towards the injustice they receive at workplace rather, it depends upon the personality traits they have and their reactions take place accordingly.

2.15 Proposed Research Model

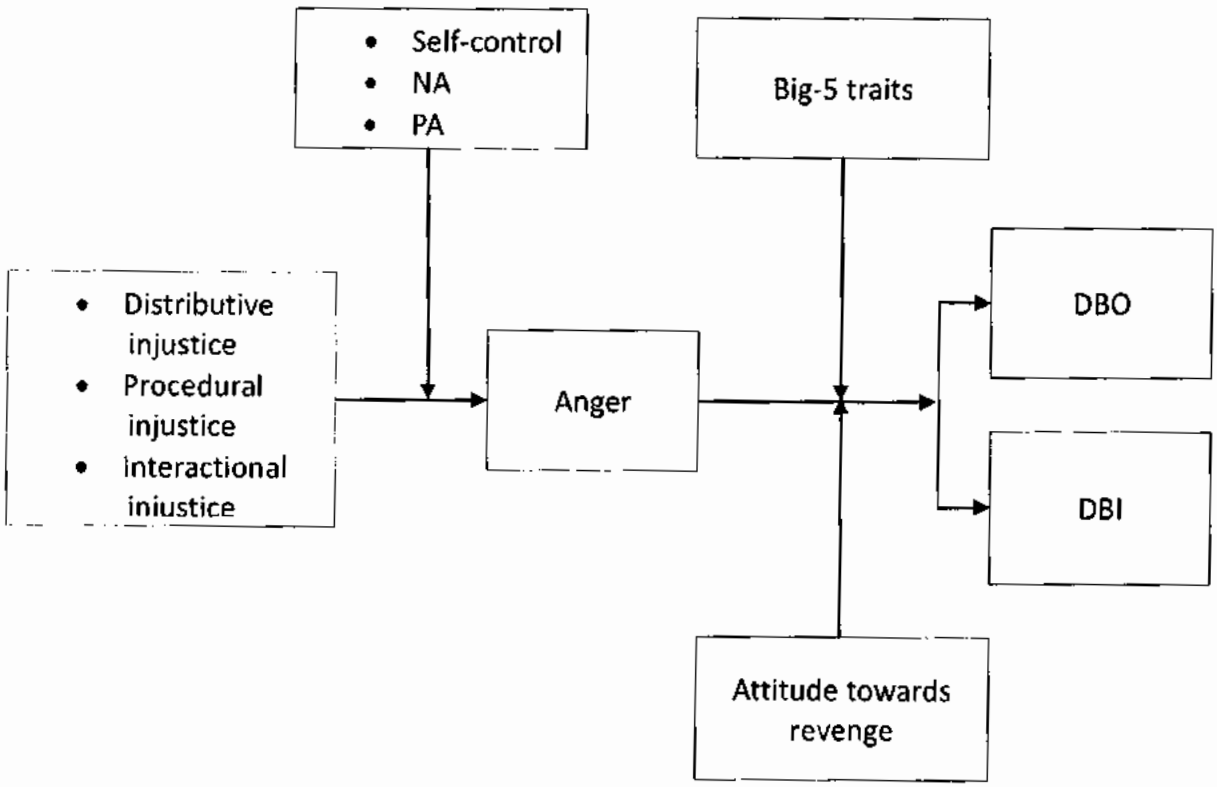

Figure 1, proposed research model

2.16 Hypotheses of the study

H1. Distributive injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

H2. Procedural injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

H3. Interactional injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.

H4. Anger has positive relationship with interpersonal deviance.

H5. Anger has positive relationship with organizational deviance.

H6. Distributive injustice has positive association with organizational deviance.

H7. Procedural injustice has positive association with organizational deviance.

H8. Interactional injustice has positive association with interpersonal deviance.

H9. Anger mediates the relationship between distributive injustice and organizational deviance.

H10. Anger mediates the relationship between procedural injustice and organizational deviance.

H11. Anger mediates the relationship between interactional injustice and interpersonal deviance.

H12. Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals.

H13. Relationship between Procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals.

H14. Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals.

H15. Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals.

H16. Relationship between Procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals.

H17. Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals.

H18. Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

H19. Relationship between Procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

H20. Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

H21. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by conscientiousness such that the relationship is weakening for high conscientious individuals.

H22. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by conscientiousness such that the relationship is weakening for high conscientious individuals.

H23. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by neuroticism such that the relationship is strong for high neurotic individuals.

H24. Relationship of employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by neuroticism such that the relationship is strong for high neurotic individuals.

H25. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by agreeableness such that the relationship is weakening for high agreeable individuals.

H26. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by agreeableness such that the relationship is weakening for high agreeable individuals.

H27. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by extraversion such that the relationship is strong for extraverts.

H28. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by extraversion such that the relationship is strong for extraverts.

H29. Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by openness such that the relationship is weakening for high openness individuals.

H30. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by openness such that the relationship is weakening for high openness individuals.

H31. Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by Attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is strong for high Attitude towards revenge individuals.

H32. Relationship between employees' anger and Interpersonal deviance is moderated by Attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is strong for high Attitude towards revenge individuals.

2.17 Conclusion

This chapter has covered all the relevant literature on organizational justice/injustice and deviant behaviors. Three forms of organizational injustice and two forms of deviant behaviors are discussion with the mediating lens of anger. In the last part of the chapter all the potential hypotheses are presented which led to the theoretical justification of the proposed model.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview of chapter

Within this chapter the start of the empirical part of this study is represented. The chapter begins with philosophical foundation, research design and population of the study. Afterwards, a detailed overview of participants and procedure is presented. In addition, this section provides the detailed analysis of measurement tools and their reliability, which are used for data collection. The last section of this chapter provides the sources of validated measures used in this study and control variables. For the complete questionnaire, please refer to the appendices.

3.2 Philosophical perspective

The purpose that drives research determines the most appropriate research design (Lincoln and Guba, 2000). There are two aspects to research design: the philosophical and the practical. On the one hand, researchers are bound to take a paradigmatic stance. On the other hand, selecting an appropriate methodology is a practical issue. Researchers make choices regarding these both aspects when designing a research project (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, and Hanson, 2003). A paradigm comprises three basic elements: ontology, epistemology and methodology. Ontology refers to the nature of reality. Epistemology refers to the nature of knowing and the construction of knowledge, which raises questions about the relationship between the researcher and the nature of reality. Methodology refers to how we gain knowledge about the world we are investigating (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Parkhe, 1993).

This research takes a post-positivist perspective to test the underlying theory adopted in this research. Traditionally, management and marketing researchers adopt a positivist or post-positivist perspective when they test theory using quantitative analysis (Lee and Lings, 2008;

Lincoln and Guba, 2000). Lincoln and Guba (2000) suggest that positivism is founded on the existence of a reality that can be realized. They noted that this reality is governed by unchangeable natural laws and mechanisms. The investigator and the investigated objects are assumed to be independent entities (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Parkhe, 1993), but various strategies are employed to eliminate the chances of influence in either direction. Hypotheses are presented in propositional form. These propositions are then subjected to empirical examination for verification. The investigator often carefully controls the research conditions to guard against possible influences.

Conversely, post-positivism assumes that reality exists but it can only be imperfectly apprehended. The rationale behind this assumption is that human nature and the intractable nature of phenomena are flawed and operate within a bounded rationality (Clark, 1998). Post-positivism challenges the conventional notion of absolute truth of knowledge (Zammito, 2004). It recognizes that it is not possible to be certain about claims of knowledge when studying human attitudes and behaviors. Special emphasis is placed on externalities of objectivity, such as critical traditions (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Zammito, 2004). Externalities include things such as the critical community (i.e. editors, referees or professional peers) (Lincoln and Guba, 2000; Parkhe, 1993).

In the context of this research, relationships between individuals' negative emotions (anger) and its antecedent and consequences are expected to emerge. As long as these relationships remain untested, the relationships remain imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible by the researcher. The deterministic philosophy of post-positivism implies that causes probably determine effects or outcomes (Creswell, 2008). In the current study, perceived organizational injustice is proposed to be one of the causes that generate individuals' outward focused negative emotions (anger). Organizational directed deviant behaviors and individual directed deviant behaviors are conceptualized as consequences of anger.

3.3 Research design

Quantitative research emphasizes on testing objective theories by examining the relationships among the constructs. These constructs can be measured by using different quantitative methods. These methods help in obtaining data that can be analyzed using statistical techniques and procedures (Creswell, 2008). Nachmias and Nachmias (1987) proposed three categories of quantitative methods: surveys, observational methods and experimental design. A survey-based method was deemed appropriate to examine the naturally-occurring relationships between the constructs in the events-emotions-outcomes model. In addition, other potential advantages by using surveys in this research include their cost effectiveness, flexibility, and efficiency in collecting large amounts of data for statistical analyses, and quick turnaround in the data collection phase (Babbie, 1990; Jessen and Jessen, 1978).

3.4 Sampling technique and unit of analysis

Time and cost considerations affect sampling decisions in most of the research projects (Bryman and Bell, 2007. Several other researchers are of the view that theoretical framework is another important consideration while making decisions about sample size and collection (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Schatzman and Strauss (1973, p. 39) state that purposive sampling is a practical necessity that is "shaped by the time the researcher has available to him, by his framework, by his starting and developing interests, and by any restrictions placed upon the observations by his hosts".

The main study adopted a purposive sampling strategy, not only because of time and cost constraints, but also because the purposive selection of respondents to answer the basic research question. Participants of this sample were purposefully selected in order to address the issue in hand. Therefore, those individuals were contacted who had encountered injustice in their workplace in the last one year. Individual respondents were used as the unit of

analysis in the present study and were asked to respond to the survey based on their perceptions about injustice, anger and deviant workplace behaviors.

3.5 Participants, population and data collection method

Participants for this study were 327 employees (173 males and 154 female) from HR-department of the Employee Insurances Implementing Agency (UWV), Netherlands. What is UWV? The merger of a number of institutions (Cadans, Gak, GUO, SFB, USZO and Lisv) in 2002 resulted to the formation of UWV. On January 1, 2009, UWV joined forces with CWI (Centrum voor Werken Inkomen or Centre for Work and Income). That merge contributed to UWV's growth and led to it evolving into a key player in its area of expertise. UWV is an autonomous administrative authority commissioned to implement employee insurance and provide labor market and data services. UWV comes under the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment. Decision-making regarding UWV's operations are done by its Executive Board, which consists of three members appointed by the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment.

In March, 2015 they organized the *'week of the trade union'*, so this was probably an extra reason for them to co-operate with us in undertaking this research project. Data for the dispositional variables (big-5 personality traits and attitudes towards revenge) were collected at time one. After that respondents received survey instruments for organizational injustice, anger and deviant workplace behaviors at time two. And lastly, data for self-control, negative affectivity and positive affectivity were collected at time three. The data were collected by using the online survey software Qualtrics. The surveys were translated into Dutch as otherwise employees could possibly experience difficulties with the English expressions and difficult words. Initially the surveys were in English, to be able to get a response as large as possible, and possibly for future research to also be able to reach non-Dutch respondents. Before the data collection started, a registration survey was sent to all employees of the HR

department of the UWV, by an employee of the UWV. To keep the data collection completely anonymous, the registration survey participants were asked to come up with a unique personal code. This code had to exist of 1-the first letter of your mothers' first name, 2-the last letter of your mothers' last name, 3-the first letter of your fathers' first name, 4-the last letter of your fathers' last name. With this, the responses at time one surveys could be matched to time two and time three surveys, but the responses were not traceable to a person. The registration survey was completed by 387 employees, the general dispositional variables (big-5 and attitude towards revenge) surveys were sent to all the registered employees on Thursday next week which were completed by 374 employees. Survey instruments for organizational injustice, anger and deviant workplace behaviors were sent to the respondents after one month of the registration and 364 completed surveys were returned. And lastly, surveys for self-control, negative affectivity and positive affectivity were sent to the respondents after one month. Only the data from respondents who took part in the whole process were used in the final analysis of this study. Some respondents did not fill all questions of the second survey, so they were excluded from the analysis and in the end 327 respondents were used for the final analysis. Of these respondents, 52.9% were male and 47.1% were female.

3.6 Instruments

3.6.1 *Big five dimensions*

Big-5 personality traits were measured by using the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (John, Donahue and Kentle, 1991), with five dimensions as follows: neuroticism (eight items, e.g., "I can be moody," Alpha Reliability = .90), extraversion (eight items, e.g., "I have an assertive personality," Alpha Reliability = .92), openness to experience (10 items, e.g., "I am curious about many things," Alpha Reliability = .69), agreeableness (nine items, e.g., "I have a

forgiving nature," Alpha Reliability = .50), and conscientiousness (nine items, e.g., "I do a thorough job," Alpha Reliability = .67).

BFI is the frequently used self-report measure of the Big-5 Model (e.g. Colquitt, Scott, Judge, and Shaw, 2006; John et al., 1991; John and Srivastava, 1999; Vaidya, Gray, Haig, and Watson, 2002). BFI has also been used in Pakistani context for measuring Big Five by Raja and Johns (2010) with Alpha Reliability of 0.70 for agreeableness and neuroticism, 0.72 for conscientiousness and openness to experience, and 0.69 for extraversion. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they are agree or disagree with each description on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

3.6.2 *Self-Control*

The self-control subscale of Personal Value Scale of Scot (1965) was used to measure the participants' level of self-control. The 13-items subscale consists of Likert-type items that measure the extent people value self-control (Alpha Reliability=.85). Example items include, "I swear when I am angry" and "I show my feelings readily". Higher score indicates less self-control. Scott (1965) reported the internal consistency coefficient for the self-control subscale that exceeded .80.

3.6.3 *Positive and Negative Affectivity*

20-items Positive and Negative Affect subscales of the Positive Affect and Negative Affect Scale (Watson et al., 1988) were used to measure Positive and Negative Affectivity (Alpha Reliabilities; PA=.60 and NA=.70). Using mood descriptors (e.g., afraid, upset, hostile, active attentive etc.), participants were asked on a scale of 1 to 5 to indicate the degree to which they generally feel the way being described. Higher scores indicate higher level of Positive or Negative Affectivity. Watson and Clark (1984) reported internal reliability coefficients exceeding .82 across four samples for the 20-items subscale.

3.6.4 *Attitude towards revenge*

Stuckless and Goranson (1992) 20-items Vengeance Scale was used to measure a person attitude towards revenge (Alpha Reliability=.96). The 20- items-scale consists of 5-point Likert-type items that measures the extent a person possesses a positive attitude towards revenge. Example items include "I don't just get mad, I get even," "I believe in the motto an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth," and "revenge is sweet". High scores indicate more positive attitude towards revenge. Stuckless and Goranson reported an internal reliability coefficient of .92.

3.6.5 *Workplace Deviance*

Employees' workplace deviant behaviors were measured by using 19-items workplace deviance scale developed by Bennet and Robinson (2000). Out of the total 19 items, 12-items are that of organizational deviance (deviant behaviors directly harmful to the organization) and 7-items are to measure interpersonal deviance (deviant behaviors directly harmful to other individuals within the organization). These scales have internal reliabilities of .83 and .78, respectively and are frequently used for measuring organizational deviant behaviors. Sample items include "said something hurtful to someone at work" and "taken property from work without permission". O'Neill et al (2011) used this scale with Alpha Reliabilities of 0.82 for 12-items OD scale and 0.88 for 7-items ID scale. 5-point Likert type response scale was used to measure the extent to which participants are intended to engage in workplace deviant behaviors. Items response ranged from 1=never to 5=often.

3.6.6 *Anger*

Anger was assessed with six adjectives from PANAS-X (Watson and Clark, 1994), Anger, Hostile, Irritable, Scornful, Disgusted and Loathing (Alpha Reliability=.85). Following the instructions of PANAS, participants will be asked *"indicate to what extent you experience the following right now"* on a five-point scale ranging from 1=very slightly to 5=very much. Two

adjectives of this scale were used by Rodell and Judge (2009) for measuring anger with Alpha Reliability of 0.85.

3.6.7 *Organizational Justice*

Organizational Justice Scale developed by Neihoff and Moorman (1993) was used to measure organizational justice. This scale consists of three dimensions; Distributive, Procedural and Interactional justice. Reported reliabilities for all the three dimensions were above 0.60. Distributive justice was measured by using five items scale assessing the fairness of different work outcomes, pay level, work schedule, work load and job responsibilities. Sample items include "My work schedule is fair". Procedural justice was measured by six items scale and Interactional justice (nine items) scale was used to measure the degree to which employees felt that their needs are considered in, respected inside the organization and adequate explanations are made for job decisions. Sample items include "Job decisions made by the GM in an unbiased manner" and "When decisions are made about my job, the GM treats me with kindness and considerations". All items used five-point response format. As this study focuses on injustice rather than justice perception, therefore after getting data for justice perception, the scores for perceived justice were reverse coded in order to get injustice scores.

3.7 Instruments with sources and reliabilities

Table 1.

Variable	Source	No.of Items	Reliability
Distributive injustice	Neihoff and Morrman (1993)	4	0.60
Procedural injustice	Neihoff and Morrman (1993)	6	0.67
Interactional injustice	Neihoff and Morrman (1993)	4	0.75
Anger	PANAS-X (Watson and Clark, 1994)	6	0.85
Organizational Deviance	Bennet and Robinson (2000)	12	0.83
Interpersonal Deviance	Bennet and Robinson (2000)	7	0.78
Big-5 Personality Traits	Big Five Inventory (BFI; John, Donahue, andKentle, 1991)	44	O=.69, C=.69, E=.92, A=.5, N=.90.
Self-control	Scot (1965)	13	0.85
Positive and Negative Affectivity	Watson et al (1988)	20	PA=.60, NA=.70
Attitude towards revenge	Stuckless and Goranson (1992)	20	0.96

3.8 Control variables

There were few control variables used in this study that may affect the relationship among the variables of this study but were not of direct theoretical interest. Therefore the impact of few demographic variables such as employees age, gender and hierarchical position in the organization was controlled as previous research Aquino and Douglas (2003) suggest that these status variables affect employees' responses to interpersonal mistreatment.

3.9 Data analysis techniques and softwares

Appropriate statistical techniques were applied to address the proposed research question and identify relationships between perceived organizational injustice, employees' anger and deviant workplace behaviors. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the psychometric properties of the constructs included in this study. Model fit was evaluated by using two absolute fit indices, chi-square and Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and two incremental fit indices including Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). SPSS version 21 was used for descriptive statistics and hierarchical moderation analyses. AMOS, version 21, was used to test the mediating paths from perceived organizational injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) to deviant workplace behaviors.

3.10 Conclusion

This chapter has provided the philosophical perspective, research design, sampling technique and population of the study. A detailed overview of the study participants and procedure of data collection is also presented. In addition, this chapter has presented the detailed description of measurement tools and their reliabilities which were used in this study. Lastly, this chapter provided the sources of validated measures used, data analysis techniques and softwares, and the control variables.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

4.1 Overview of chapter

Chapter four presents a discussion about how the data were analyzed. It explains the structure, and the specific analytical techniques applied for data analysis. The first phase outlines the descriptive statistics, Cronbach Alpha and correlation among the study variables. The second phase of this chapter provides the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for the constructs of the study, followed by mediation and moderation analysis.

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

There are three demographic variables included in this study which are Age, Gender and Position within the organization. After cleaning the data, the total number of respondents included in the study analysis was 327, with the frequency of 52.9% (173) male and 47.1 % (154) female. Age of the respondents ranged from 26-65 years (1=18-25, 2=26-30, 3 =31-35, 4 = 36-40, 5=41-45, 6=46-50, 7=51-55, 8=56-60, 9=61-65 and 10=66-70). The age group 41-45 years was highest in number with (26.6%) followed by the age group 46-50 with number of (24.5 %) and the least percentage (2.4%) came from the respondents of age group 61-65. Analyses revealed that there was no significant impact of these demographic variables on the main variables of the study.

Table 2 depicts the Mean, Standard Deviation, Cronbach's Alpha and correlations among the study variables. Distributive Injustice (M= 3.6101, S.D = .426), Procedural Injustice (M= 3.5510, S.D = .404), Interactional Injustice (M = 3.8647, S.D = .613), Anger (M = 4.0902, S.D = .549), DBI (M = 3.9934, S.D = .501), DBO (M = 3.8955, S.D = .465), PA (M = 2.8566, S.D = .403), NA (M = 3.5143, S.D = .500), Self-control (M = 2.5559, S.D = .626), Openness to experience (M = 2.6355, S.D = .495), Conscientiousness (M = 2.8552, S.D = .445), Extraverts (M = 2.4580, S.D =1 .012), Agreeableness (M = 2.7778, S.D = .376), Neurotics (M = 3.8119, S.D = .683) and Attitude towards revenge (M = 3.8141, S.D = .673).

Cronbach Alpha reliability analyses were used to test the internal consistency among the study variables.

4.3 Multicollinearity

It was assumed that the data was not strongly correlated. Multicollinearity was tested using the Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) statistics produced in each of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis. Each of the Tolerance statistics were > 0.1 and the VIF statistics were all < 10, hence the assumption that the data is not strongly correlated was supported. Therefore, the variables were not multicollinear. See table 2 for a correlations matrix and Appendix B for details.

4.4 Assessment of normality

It is observed that non-normal data may influence the underlying factor structure and results to the data analysis, the examination of data normality are required (Hair et al., 2006). In order to check the normality of data distribution, skewness and kurtosis were examined by using SPSS 21. Field (2005) suggests that one way of determining whether the data distribution is significantly non-normal, is to compare its statistical values of skewness and kurtosis with twice the standard error (SE) of that value. If skewness and kurtosis fall within the range of ± 2SE, a statistically normal distribution can be assumed (Field, 2005). Skewness and kurtosis values for all variables in this thesis are presented in Appendix C. Although, some variables exceed the ± 2SE recommendation suggested by Field (2005), the data indicates that none of skewness and kurtosis values were greater than 3.00 except few; therefore, this did not seriously violate the normality assumption (Kline, 1998).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics, Cronbach's alpha and Correlations for variables in this study

	Means	SD	AVE	Alpha	DJ	PJ	IJ	ANG	DBI	DBO	PA	NA	SC	O	C	E	A	N
DJ	3.6101	.426	.621	.600														
PJ	3.5510	.404	.645	.669	.538**													
IJ	3.8647	.613	.732	.749	.372**	.412**												
ANG	4.0902	.549	.792	.856	.509**	.566**	.589**											
DBI	3.9934	.501	.756	.788	.465**	.526**	.552**	.728**										
DBO	3.8955	.465	.786	.836	.438**	.555**	.579**	.699**	.695**									
PA	2.8566	.403	.574	.599	-.243**	-.275**	-.116*	-.321**	-.251**	-.289**								
NA	3.5143	.500	.652	.707	.262**	.414**	.487**	.495**	.378**	.433**	-.004							
SC	2.5559	.626	.792	.853	-.338**	-.229**	-.336**	-.474**	-.274**	-.306**	.278**	-.301**						
O	2.6355	.495	.663	.693	.206**	.396**	.402**	.428**	.342**	.388**	.026	.910**	-.225**					
C	2.8552	.445	.635	.668	-.295**	-320**	-.226**	-.423**	-.326**	-.357**	.936**	-.107	.379**	-.060				
E	2.4580	1.012	.873	.929	.011	.156*	.055	.201**	.275**	.123*	-.072	.114*	-.157**	.102	-.083			
A	2.7778	.376	.473	.49	-.052	-.180**	-.111*	-.222**	-.175**	-231**	.684**	-.037	.166**	-.022	.643**	-.040		
N	3.8119	.683	.863	.901	.340**	.518**	.599**	.679**	.524**	.551**	-.077	.680**	-.352**	.562**	-.247**	.236**	-.094	
ATR	3.8141	.673	.923	.963	.348**	.516**	.608**	.681**	.533**	.549**	-.081	.676**	-.359**	.554**	-.255**	.233**	-.096	.997*

Note: DJ= Distributive Justice; PJ=Procedural Justice; IJ = Interactional Justice; ANG = Anger; DBI =Deviant Behaviors directed towards individuals; DBO= Deviant Behaviors directed towards organization; PA=Positive Affectivity; NA=Negative Affectivity; SC= Self-control; O=Openness; C= Conscientiousness; E=Extraverts; A=Agreeableness; N=Neuroticism; ATR= Attitude towards.

*p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

4.5 Reliability and validity

Reliability of a scale can be described as the extent to which the measure is free from random error and offers consistent measurement across different times and various items in the instrument. The most frequently used method for testing reliability is the internal consistency score method (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), sometimes referred to as the Cronbach Alpha (Cronbach, 1951). If the Cronbach Alpha is greater than .60, the consistency of the scale is considered as acceptable and reliability is assured (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Preliminary reliability analyses (see Table 2) revealed that the internal consistency of all scales was above the minimum threshold.

Another more rigorous approach to examine the reliability of a scale is to look at the values of average variance extracted for each measure. Average variance extracted can be calculated by summing the values of squared standardized factor loadings and then dividing by the number of items. An average variance extracted that exceeds a threshold of .50 confirms the scale reliability. Table 2 shows that the value of average variance extracted for each measure exceeds this threshold, indicating that each measure is reliable.

Validity refers to the accuracy of the measurement of a construct. It examines the extent to which the items measure what they are supposed to measure (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987). There are several ways to measure validity. The measures used in this study passed four validity checks: face validity, content validity, convergent validity and discriminant validity (Currall & Towler, 2003).

Face validity refers to the extent to which an item reflects the construct it is intended to measure (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Establishing face validity requires a comparison between construct definition and the items that represent the construct. Face validity can be achieved by

using published measures (Lynn, 1986). In order to establish that face validity exists for the measures used in this study, existing measures from the literature were used to improve nomological validity.

Content validity refers to the adequacy of indicators to measure the concepts. The better the scale items measure the domain of content, the greater the validity. An assessment of content validity requires a panel of experts to attest to the content validity of each instrument (Sekaran, 2000). Therefore, a panel of experts judged the survey items and deemed all adopted items suitable for tapping into the conceptual domain. Minor modifications to the wording and format of the questionnaire were made.

Fornell and Larcker (1981) suggested that variance extracted is an appropriate test for the internal stability of a scale and the convergent validity of its items. If the average variance extracted is less than .50, then the variance due to measurement error is greater than the variance due to the construct. In this case, the convergent validity of the scale is questionable. Average variance extracted for all the constructs is above .50, hence confirm the convergent validity (see table 2 for details).

Inspections of the correlation matrix (see Table 2) revealed low correlations among all the constructs of the study except attitude towards revenge and neuroticism. One additional assessment was undertaken to establish discriminant validity. This test was suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981) and Bagozzi et al. (1991). According to this assessment average variance explained and the inter-factor correlations between all pairs of constructs are compared. If the average variance of each construct was greater than its shared variance with any other construct, then discriminant validity is achieved. Table 2 shows that the values of squared multiple

correlations were below the average variance extracted for all constructs. This demonstrates that the constructs achieved discriminant validity.

4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Psychometric properties of the study constructs were evaluated by conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis by using AMOS version 21 on the dataset. As discussed above, data on big-5 personality traits and attitude towards revenge were collected at time one, therefore there was a need to conduct Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to compare six factor model with two factor model in order to establish that five factors of big-5 model and attitude towards revenge discriminate from each other. CFA results revealed that six factors structure provided a better fit ($\chi2$ = 747.240, df = 152, CFI = .899, GFI = .883, IFI = .90, and RMSEA = .07) as compared to a two factor structure with big-5 traits on a single factor ($\chi2$ = 747.240, df = 152, CFI = .779, GFI = .782, IFI = .781, and RMSEA = .11). See table 3 for details.

Table 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Time 1

Model	$\chi2$	*df*	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Six-factor model	747.240	152	.883	.899	.07
Two-factor model: big-5 traits combined	747.240	152	.782	.779	.11

Six Factors (Attitude towards revenge, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Extroverts, Openness and Neuroticism). Conscientiousness loading range from .66 to .76; Agreeableness loading range from .60 to .81; Extraversion loading range from .51 to .69; Openness loading range from .73 to .76; Neuroticism loading range from .51 to .61 and Attitude Towards Revenge loading range from .61 to .75.

Data on perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional), anger and deviant behaviors (DBO and DBI) were collected at time two, therefore it was necessary to conduct Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to compare six factor model with three factor model in order to establish that three factors of injustice, anger and two factors of deviant behaviors

discriminate from each other. CFA results revealed that six factors structure provided a better fit ($\chi2$ = 465.066, df = 215, CFI = .901, GFI = .888, IFI = .902, and RMSEA = .06) as compared to a three factor structure with perceived injustice and deviant behaviors combined on two distinct factors ($\chi2$ = 1712.568, df = 699, CFI = .774, GFI = .786, IFI = .776, and RMSEA = .067). See table 4 for details.

Table 4: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Time 2

Model	$\chi2$	*df*	**GFI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
Six-factor model	465.066	215	.888	.90	.06
Three-factor model: perceived injustice and deviant behaviors combined	1712.568	699	.786	.774	.067

Six Factors (Distributive injustice, procedural injustice, interactional injustice, anger, organizational deviance and individual deviance). DJ loading range from .54 to .69; PJ loading range from .61 to .68; IJ loading range from .65 to .72; ANG loading range from .66 to .76; DBI loading range from .59 to .65 and DBO loading range from .54 to 64.

Data on self-control, negative affectivity and positive affectivity were collected at time three; therefore, it was necessary to conduct Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to compare three factors model with two factors model in order to establish that self-control, negative affectivity and positive affectivity discriminate from each other. CFA results revealed that three factors structure provided a better fit ($\chi2$ = 243.192, df = 116, CFI = .91, GFI = .92, IFI = .91, and RMSEA = .058) as compared to a two factor structure with negative affectivity and positive affectivity combined ($\chi2$ = 325.004, df =118, CFI = .853, GFI = .893, IFI = .855, and RMSEA = .073). See table 5 for details.

Table 5: Confirmatory Factor Analysis Time 3

Model	$\chi 2$	*df*	GFI	CFI	RMSEA
Three-factor model	243.192	116	.92	.91	.058
Two-factor model: positive and negative affectivity combined	325.004	118	.893	.853	.073

Three Factors (Self-control, Positive affectivity and Negative affectivity). Self-control loading range from .55 to .63; PA loading range from .46 to .67 and NA loading range from .53 to .64.

4.7 Path Analysis

In order to test the hypotheses, relationships were modeled and tested using Amos 21. Although chi-square difference test returns a significant value, the other fit indices indicate that the fit of the structural model is acceptable, with Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.895, Incremental Fit Index (IFI) =0.897, and Standard Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = 0.0538 and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.063.

Figure 2 demonstrates the direct positive impact of distributive injustice (β=0.447*, P<.01), procedural injustice (β=0.510*, P<.01 and interactional injustice (β=0.542*, P<.01) on anger which were found significant. In addition, anger has a positively significant impact on Deviant Behaviors directed towards Individuals (BDI) (β=0.654*, P<.01) and Deviant Behaviors directed towards Organization (DBO) (β=0.593*, P<.01). Overall variance explained ranged from 71.4% (Anger) to 92.6% (DBI).

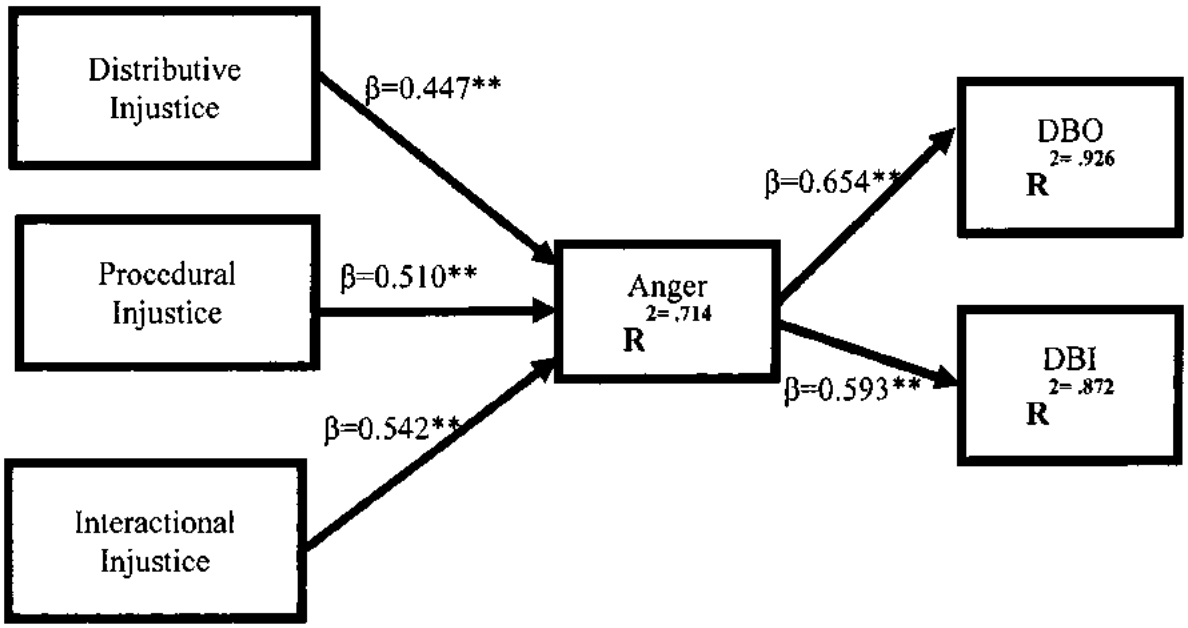

Figure 2, Path analysis model

Table 6: Effect of Perceived injustice (distributive, procedural and interactional) on deviant behaviors (DBO and DBI).

Paths	Indirect effect	Direct Effect	Total effect
Distributive injustice and DBO relationship			
Distributive injustice-DBO		.44**	
Distributive injustice-Anger-DBO	.28*		
Total effect			.72**
Procedural injustice and DBO relationship			
Procedural injustice-DBO		.37**	
Procedural injustice-Anger-DBO	.19*		
Total effect			.56**
Interactional injustice and DBI relationship			
Interactional injustice-DBI		.35**	
Interactional injustice-Anger-DBI	.18*		
Total effect			.53**

* p<.05; ** p<.01. Standardized direct and indirect effects reported.

4.8 Mediation Analysis

Based on approach employed by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Vaske and Kobrin (2001), the direct and indirect effects for a mediation effect were tested: (1) The relationship between the independent variable (IV) and dependent variable (DV) is represented by relationship 'c' in Table 7, 8 and 9; (2) the relationship between IV and mediator variable (MV) is represented by relationship 'a' in Table 7, 8 and 9; (3) the relationship between mediator and the DV is represented by relationship 'b' in Table 7, 8 and 9; and (4) the original relationship between the IV and the DV, when the mediator is added, is represented by relationship c* in Table 7, 8 and 9.

If the direct effect between the IV and the DV is non-significant, there is full mediation. If all effects remain significant, there is partial mediation.

In line with the recommendation of Shrout and Bolger, (2002) and Delcourt, Gremler, Allard and Marcel (2013), once mediation is detected, the results can be confirmed by Sobel tests. By applying a non-parametric procedure, the mediating role of anger was tested on the relationships between distributive injustice, procedural injustice and employees' deviant behaviors directed towards organization (DBO). In addition, the mediating role of anger for the effect of interactional injustice on employees' deviant behaviors directed towards individuals (DBI) was also tested.

Results (Table 7 and 8) show that anger fully mediates the relationship between distributive injustice and deviant behaviors directed towards organization and partially mediates the relationship between procedural injustice and deviant behaviors directed towards organization. Further, Table 9 shows that the mediating effect of anger on interactional injustice-deviant behaviors directed towards individuals is partial. Sobel test statistics support all of the mediation results.

Table 7: Mediating role of anger between DJ and DBO

Hypotheses	Dependent variable (DV)	a DJ→ANGER	b ANGER →DV	C DJ→DV	c* DJ→DV (Mediator Controlled)	Sobel's Z-value	Type of Mediation
Anger mediates the relationship between DJ and DBO	DBO	.756**	.880**	.641**	-.071	9.530 **	Full Mediation

Table 8: Mediating role of anger between PJ and DBO

Hypotheses	Dependent variable (DV)	a PJ→ANGER	b ANGER →DV	C PJ→DV	c* PJ→DV (Mediator Controlled)	Sobel's Z-value	Type of Mediation
Anger mediates the relationship between PJ and DBO	DBO	46**	880**	647**	.305**	9 146 **	Partial Mediation

Table 9: Mediating role of anger between IJ and DBI

Hypotheses	Dependent variable (DV)	a IJ→ANGER	b ANGER →DV	C IJ→DV	c* IJ→DV (Mediator Controlled)	Sobel's Z-value	Type of Mediation
Anger mediates the relationship between IJ and DBI	DBI	.691**	.920**	.699**	.118	11.151 **	Full Mediation

4.9 MODERATION ANALYSES

In order to test moderation hypotheses, two-way moderated regression was selected because it can test how a variable moderate the relationship between an independent variable (IV) and a dependent variable (DV) (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham, 2006). Before running the moderation, the independent variables (IVs) and moderating variable (MVs) were mean centered in order to avoid multi-collinearity(Aiken and West, 1991) and an interaction terms were created for IVs and Moderating Variables (MVs) in the hypothesized relationships.

Moderation

4.9.1Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA).

Controlling for age, gender, and position within the organization, two-way moderated regression analysis was conducted for the mean-centered composite variables of distributive injustice and negative affectivity on anger and the results were tabulated (See Table 10). For these regression analyses, control variables (gender, age, and position) were entered on Step 1. To test for main effects, the distributive injustice and negative affectivity were entered on Step 2 and the interaction term of the distributive injustice and negative affectivity was entered on Step 3. Analysis revealed that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by distributive injustice and negative affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV R^2 *Ch.* =.391 F (2,321) = 104.622 $p<0.001$. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for distributive injustice

and negative affectivity. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.053 F (1,320) = 30.939 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 10: Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
DJ	.407***	
NA	.386**	
		.391**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
DJ x NA	-.248**	
		.053**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Moderation

4.9.2 Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Positive Affectivity (PA).

Analysis revealed (see table 11) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by distributive injustice and positive affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.300 F (2.321) = 69.561 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for distributive injustice and positive affectivity. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.062 F (1,320) = 31.690 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 11: Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Positive Affectivity (PA).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
DJ	.453***	
PA	-.218**	
		.300**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
DJ x PA	.273***	
		.062**

*p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Moderation

4.9.3 Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Analysis revealed (see table 12) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by distributive injustice and self-control which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.356 F (2,321) = 90.042 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for distributive injustice and self-control. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.074 F (1,320) = 42.391 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 12: Distributive Injustice (DJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
DJ	.393***	
SC	-.339***	
		.356**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
DJ x SC	.285***	
		.074**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.4 Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA).

Analysis revealed (see table 13) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by procedural injustice and negative affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.397 F (2,321) = 107.245 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for procedural injustice and negative affectivity. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.012 F (1,320) = 6.720 p<0.01. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 13, Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA)

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
PJ	.443***	
NA	.305***	
		.397**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
PJ x NA	-.122**	
		.012**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.5 Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Positive Affectivity (PA).

Analysis revealed (see table 14) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by procedural injustice and positive affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.353 F (2,321) = 88.596 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for procedural injustice and positive affectivity. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.058 F (1,320) = 31.683 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 14: Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Positive Affectivity (PA).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
PJ	.519***	
PA	-.183**	
		.353**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
PJ x PA	-.273***	
		.058**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.6 Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Analysis revealed (see table 15) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by procedural injustice and self-control which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.442 F (2,321) = 128.836 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for procedural injustice and self-control. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.050 F (1,320) = 31.742 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 15: Procedural Injustice (PJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
PJ	.487***	
SC	-.357***	
		.442**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
PJ x SC	.234**	
		.050**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.7 Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA).

Analysis revealed (see table 16) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by interactional injustice and negative affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch. = .396$ F (2,321) = 106.760 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for interactional injustice and negative affectivity. This interaction term did not explain any significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch. = .005$ F (1,320) = 2.784 p>0.05 (ns). This analysis produced a significant main effect and insignificant interaction effect.

Table 16: Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (NA).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
IJ	.458***	
NA	.274***	
		.396**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
IJ x NA	-.073	
		.005 *ns*

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.8 Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Positive Affectivity (PA). Analysis revealed (see table 17) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by interactional injustice and positive affectivity which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch. = .405$ $F(2,321) = 110.580$ $p<0.001$. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for interactional injustice and positive affectivity. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch. = .071$ $F(1,320) = 43.939$ $p<0.001$. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 17: Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Negative Affectivity (PA).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
IJ	.555***	
PA	-.259***	
		.405**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
IJ x PA	.272***	
		.071**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.9 Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Analysis revealed (see table 18) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (anger). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (anger) by interactional injustice and self-control which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.425 F (2,321) = 120.408 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for interactional injustice and self-control. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.087 F (1,320) = 57.717 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 18: Interactional Injustice (IJ) and Anger (ANG) moderated by Self-control (SC).

Predictors	Anger	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.067	
Gender	-.060	
Position	-.023	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
IJ	.485***	
SC	-.312***	
		.425**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
IJ x SC	.296***	
		.087**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.10 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Openness (O).

Analysis revealed (see table 19) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and openness to experience which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.494 F (2,321) = 160.866 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and openness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch.$ =.010 F (1,320) = 6.795 p<0.01. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 19: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Openness (O).

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.015	
Gender	-.059	
Position	-.098	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.651***	
O	.112**	
		.494**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x O	-.112**	
		.010**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.11 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Conscientiousness (C).

Analysis revealed (see table 20) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and conscientiousness which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.487 F (2,321) = 156.759 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and conscientiousness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch.$ =.017 F (1,320) = 11.322 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 20: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Conscientiousness (C).

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 - Covariates		
Age	.015	
Gender	-.059	
Position	-.098	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.669***	
C	-.069	
		.487**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x C	.159**	
		.017**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.12 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Extroverts (E).

Analysis revealed (see table 21) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and extraverts which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch. = .484$ F (2,321) = 154.642 $p<0.001$. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and extraverts. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch. = .007$ F (1,320) = 4.433 $p<0.05$. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 21: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Extroverts (E)

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.015	
Gender	-.059	
Position	-.098	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.703***	
E	-.022	
		.484**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x E	-.086*	
		.007*

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.13 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Agreeableness (A).

Analysis revealed (see table 22) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and Agreeableness which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.489 F (2,321) = 157.631 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Agreeableness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch.$ =.016 F (1,320) = 10.449 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 22: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Agreeableness (A).

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.015	
Gender	-.059	
Position	-.098	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.682***	
A	-.074	
		.489**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x A	.139**	
		.016**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.14 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Neuroticism (N).

Analysis revealed (see table 23) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and Neuroticism which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.495 F (2,321) = 161.512 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Neuroticism. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch.$ =.018 F (1,320) = 12.048 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 23: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Neuroticism (N).

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	.015	
Gender	-.059	
Position	-.098	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.601***	
N	.145**	
		.495**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x N	-.168**	
		.018**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.15 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Openness (O). Analysis revealed (see table 24) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and openness to experience which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.535 F (2,321) = 186.328 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Openness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch.$ =.029 F (1,320) = 21.306 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 24: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Openness (O).

Predictors	DBI	
	B	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.714***	
O	.045	
		.535**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x O	-.188**	
		.029**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.16 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Conscientiousness (C).

Analysis revealed (see table 25) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and Conscientiousness which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.534 F (2,321) = 185.351 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Conscientiousness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch.$ =.052 F (1,320) = 40.274 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 25: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Conscientiousness (C).

Predictors	DBI	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.724***	
C	-.021	
		.534**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x C	.277***	
		.052**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.17. Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Extroverts (E).

Analysis revealed (see table 26) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and Extraverts which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch. = .551$ F (2,321) = 198.573 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Extraverts. This interaction term did not explain any significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch. = .005$ F (1,320) = 3.500 p>.05. This analysis produced a significant main effect and no significant interaction effect.

Table 26: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Extroverts (E).

Predictors	DBI	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.707***	
E	.135**	
		.551**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x E	-.072	
		.005 *ns*

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.18 Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Agreeableness (A).

Analysis revealed (see table 27) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and Agreeableness which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.533 F (2,321) = 185.202 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the result of adding the interaction term for anger and Agreeableness. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch.$ =.033 F (1,320) = 24.611 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 27: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Agreeableness (A).

Predictors	DBI	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.731***	
A	-.013	
		.533**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x A		
.201**		
		.033**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.19. Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Neuroticism (N).

Analysis revealed (see table 28) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and Neuroticism which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.536 F (2,321) = 186.980 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the results of adding the interaction term for anger and Neuroticism. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch.$ =.045 F (1,320) = 35.069 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 28: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individuals (DBI) moderated by Neuroticism (N).

Predictors	DBI	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.687***	
N	.069	
		.536**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x N	-.269***	
		.045**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.20. Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Attitude towards Revenge (ATR).

Analysis revealed (see table 29) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBO). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBO) by anger and ATR which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch.$ =.493 F (2,321) = 160.748 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the results of adding the interaction term for anger and ATR. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBO), $R^2Ch.$ =.018 F (1,320) = 12.123 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 29: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Organizational (DBO) moderated by Attitude towards Revenge (ATR).

Predictors	DBO	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.605***	
ATR	.137**	
		.493**
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x ATR	-.169**	
		.018**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

Moderation

4.9.21. Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individual (DBI) moderated by Attitude towards Revenge (ATR).

Analysis revealed (see table 30) that control variables did not explained any significant amount of variance in the DV (DBI). Step 2 shows the amount of variance in DV (DBI) by anger and ATR which predicted a significant change in the DV, $R^2Ch. = .537$ F (2,321) = 187.900 p<0.001. Step 3 shows the results of adding the interaction term for anger and ATR. This interaction term explained significant variance in DV (DBI), $R^2Ch. = .046$ F (1,320) = 35.446 p<0.001. This analysis produced a significant main effect and a significant interaction effect.

Table 30: Anger (ANG) and Deviant Behaviors Individual (DBI) moderated by Attitude towards Revenge (ATR).

Predictors	DBI	
	β	ΔR^2
Step 1 – Covariates		
Age	-.027	
Gender	-.049	
Position	.038	
Step 2 – Main Effects		
ANG	.677***	
ATR	.084*	
.537**		
Step 3 – Interaction Term		
ANG x ATR	-.270***	
		.046**

*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$; ***$p < .001$.

4.10 Graphical representation of the moderating effects

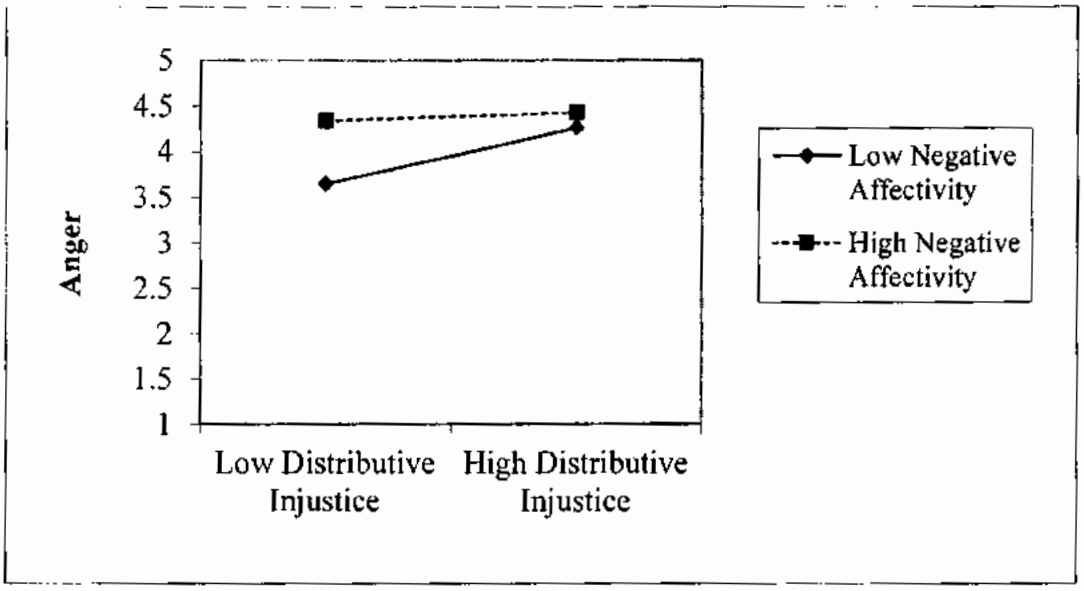

Figure A (1): Moderating impact of NA on distributive injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Negative Affectivity on the relationship between distributive injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when distributive injustice is low for low Negative Affectivity individuals.

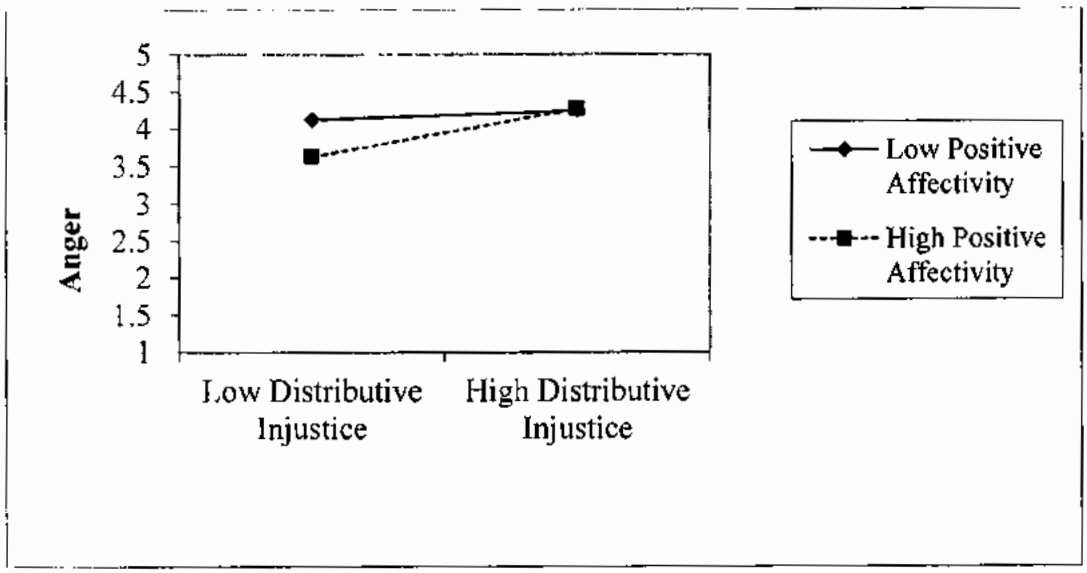

Figure A (2): Moderating impact of PA on distributive injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Positive Affectivity on the relationship between distributive injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when distributive injustice is low for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

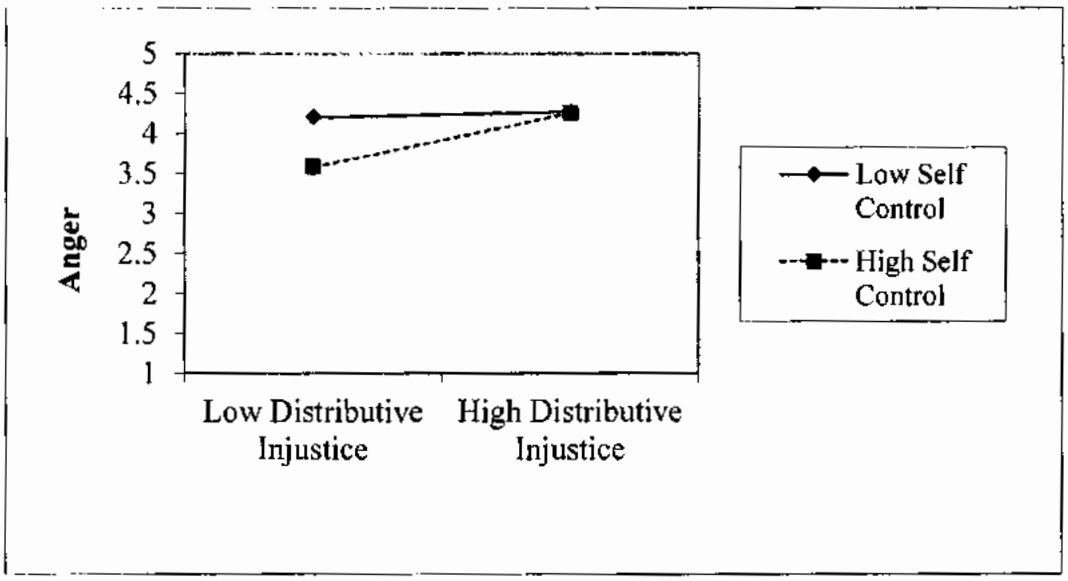

Figure A (3): Moderating impact of SC on distributive injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Self-control on the relationship between distributive injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when distributive injustice is low for high Self-control individuals.

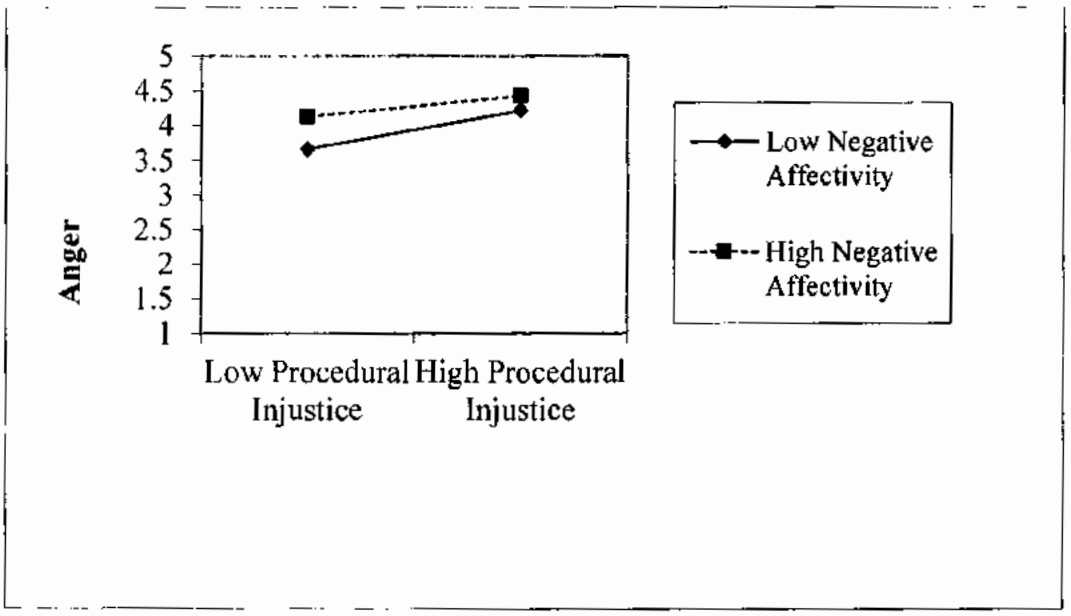

Figure B (1): Moderating impact of NA on procedural injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Negative Affectivity on the relationship between procedural injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when procedural injustice is low for low Negative Affectivity individuals.

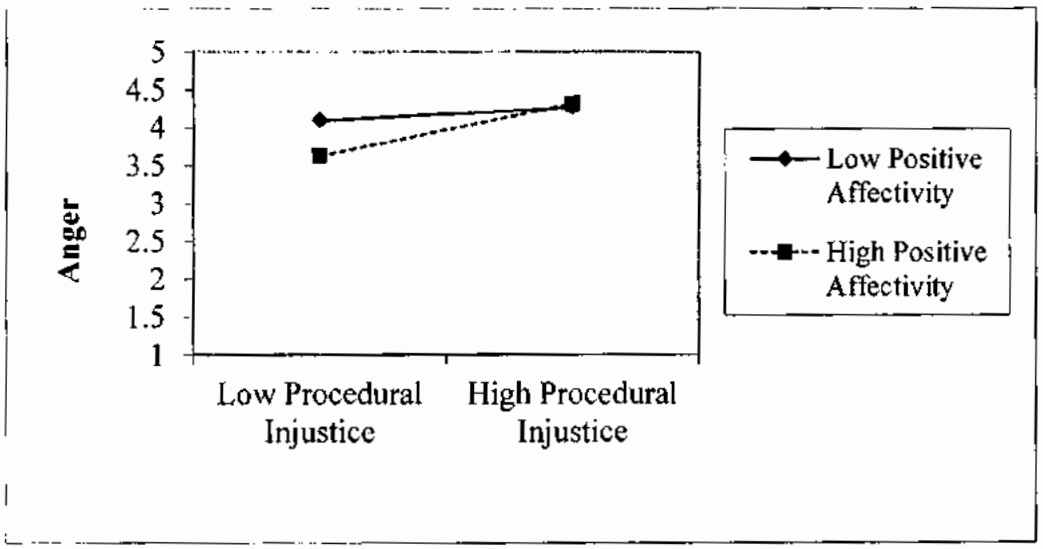

Figure B (2): Moderating impact of PA on procedural injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Positive Affectivity on the relationship between procedural injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when procedural injustice is low for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

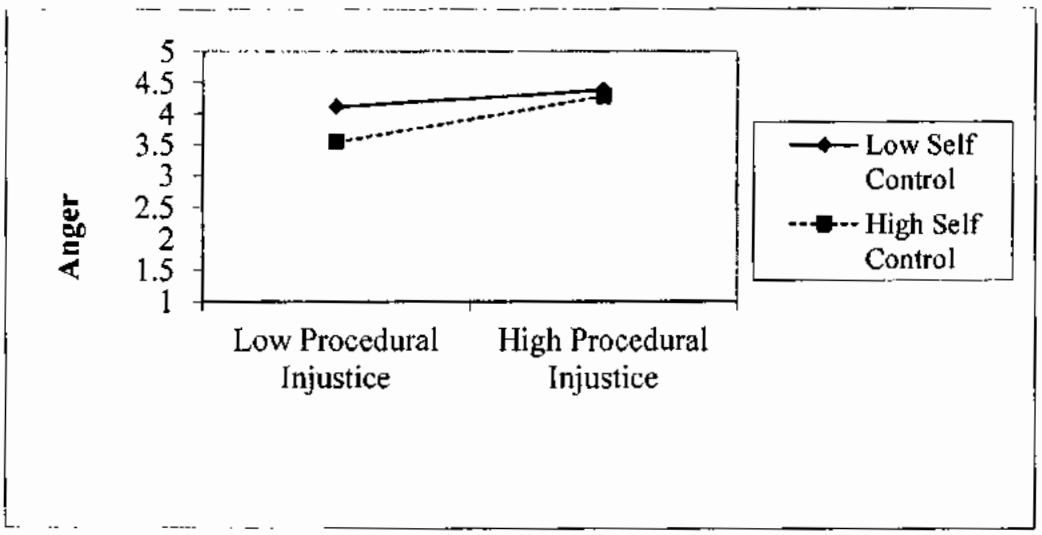

Figure B (3): Moderating impact of SC on procedural injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Self-control on the relationship between procedural injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when procedural injustice is low for high Self-control individuals.

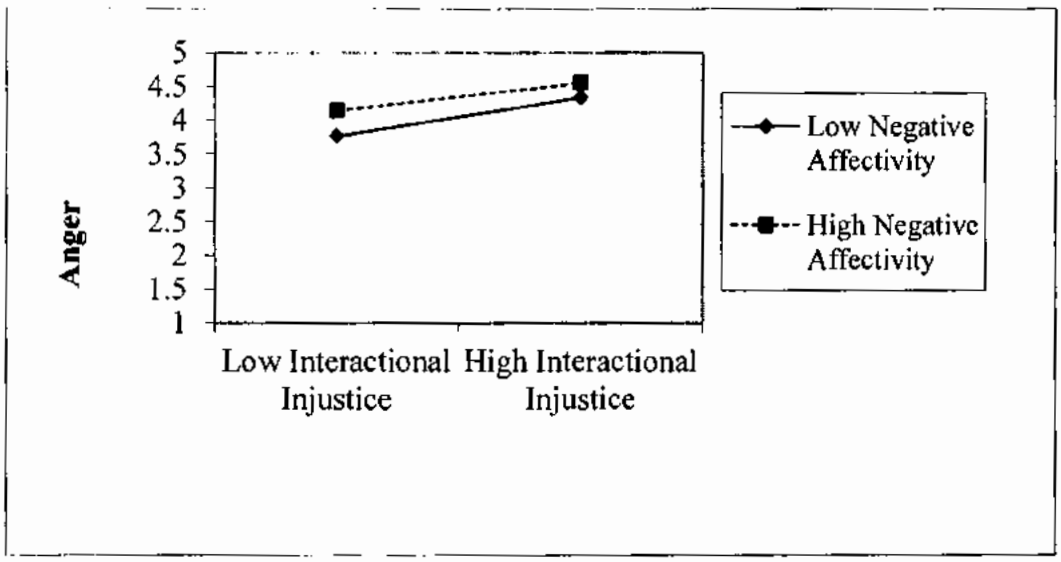

Figure C (1): Moderating impact of NA on interactional injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Negative Affectivity on the relationship between interactional injustice and anger. The figure further explains that there was no significant interactive effect of Negative Affectivity on the relationship between interactional injustice and anger.

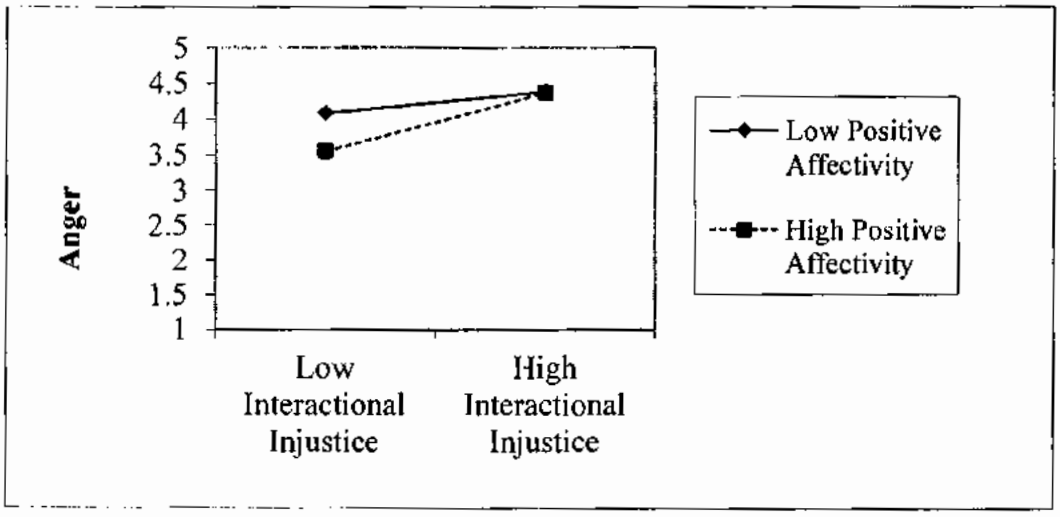

Figure C (2): Moderating impact of PA on interactional injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Positive Affectivity on the relationship between interactional injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when interactional injustice is low for high Positive Affectivity individuals.

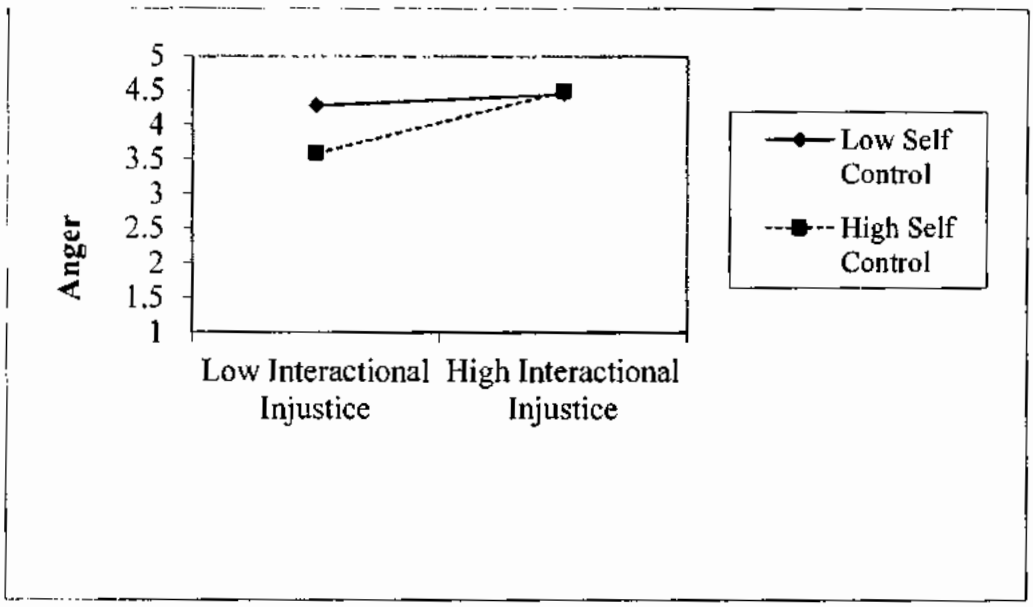

Figure C (3): Moderating impact of SC on interactional injustice and anger.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Self-control on the relationship between interactional injustice and anger. The figure further explains that anger decrease more rapidly when interactional injustice is low for high Self-control individuals.

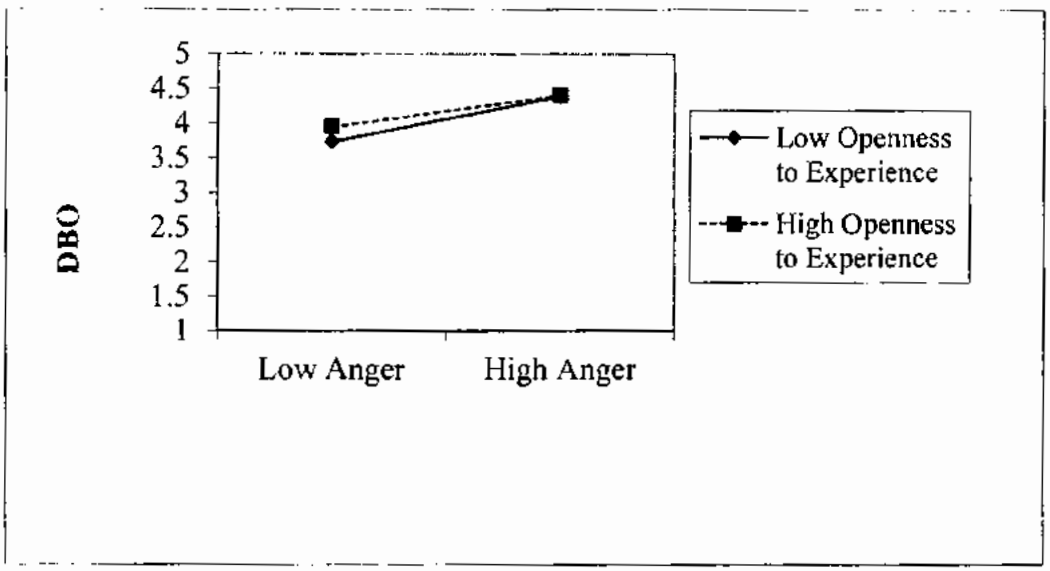

Figure D (1): Moderating impact openness to experience on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Openness to experience on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that DBO decrease more rapidly for high Openness to experience individuals.

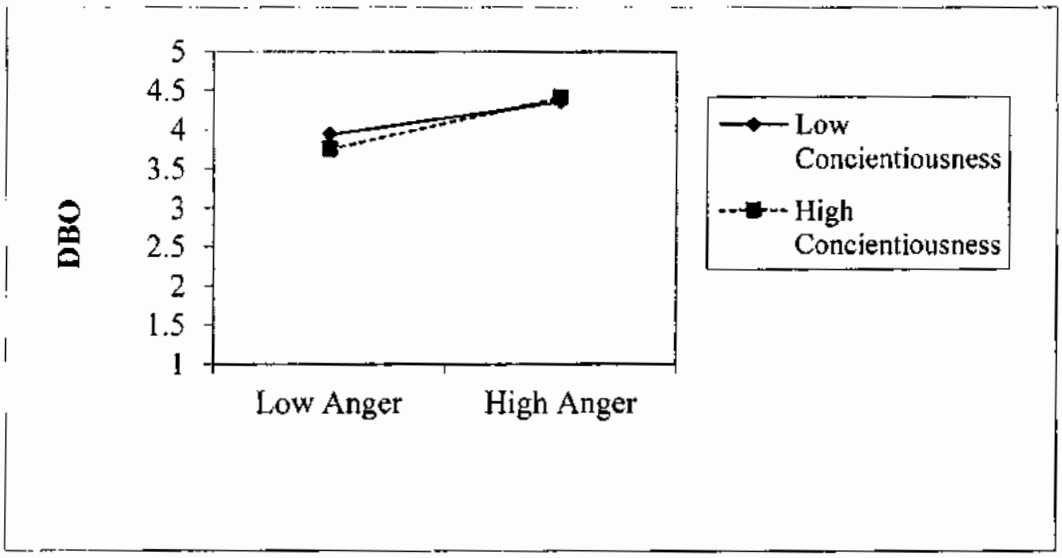

Figure D (2): Moderating impact of conscientiousness on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Conscientiousness on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that DBO decrease more rapidly for high Conscientious individuals.

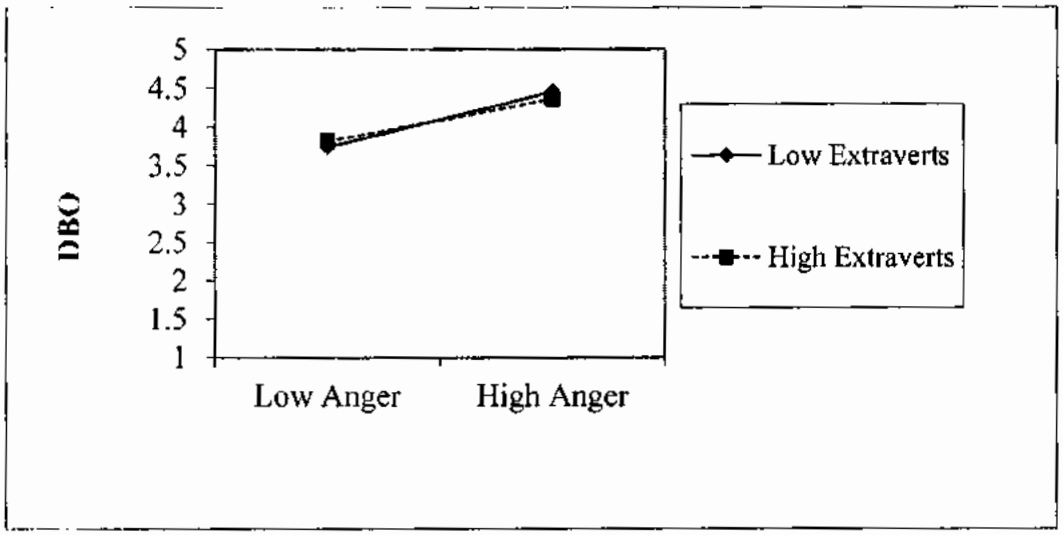

Figure D (3): Moderating impact of extraverts on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Extraversion on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that there was no significant interactive effect of Extraversion on the relationship between anger and DBO.

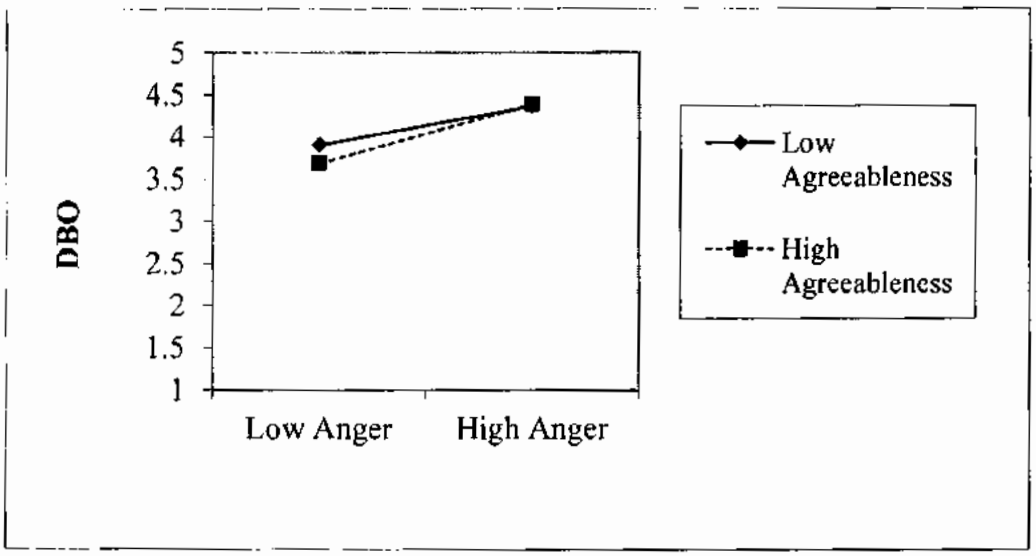

Figure D (4): Moderating impact of agreeableness on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Agreeableness on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that DBO decrease more rapidly for high Agreeable individuals.

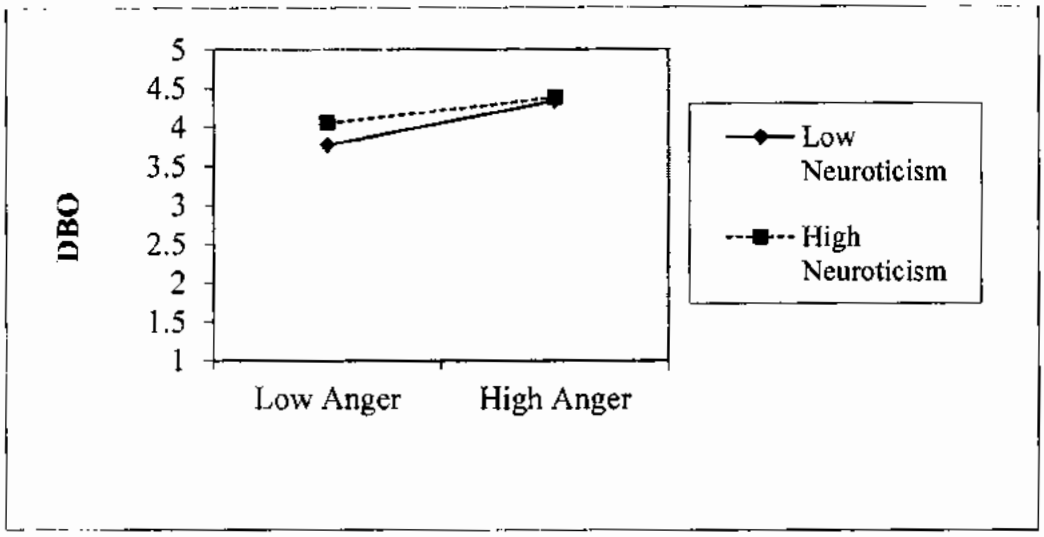

Figure D (5): Moderating impact of neuroticism on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Neuroticism on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that DBO decrease more rapidly for low Neurotic individuals.

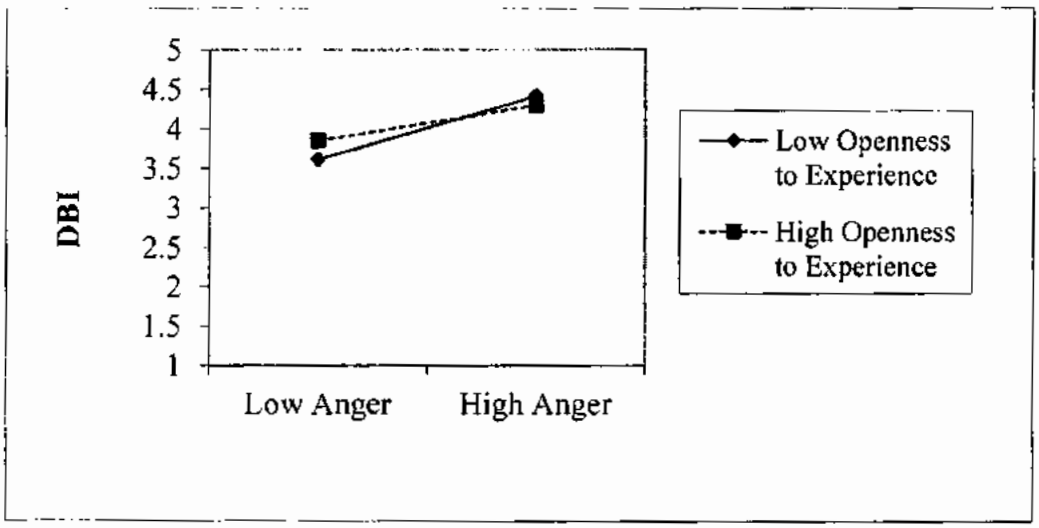

Figure E (1): Moderating impact of openness to experience on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Openness to experience on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that DBI decrease more rapidly for lowOpenness to experience individuals.

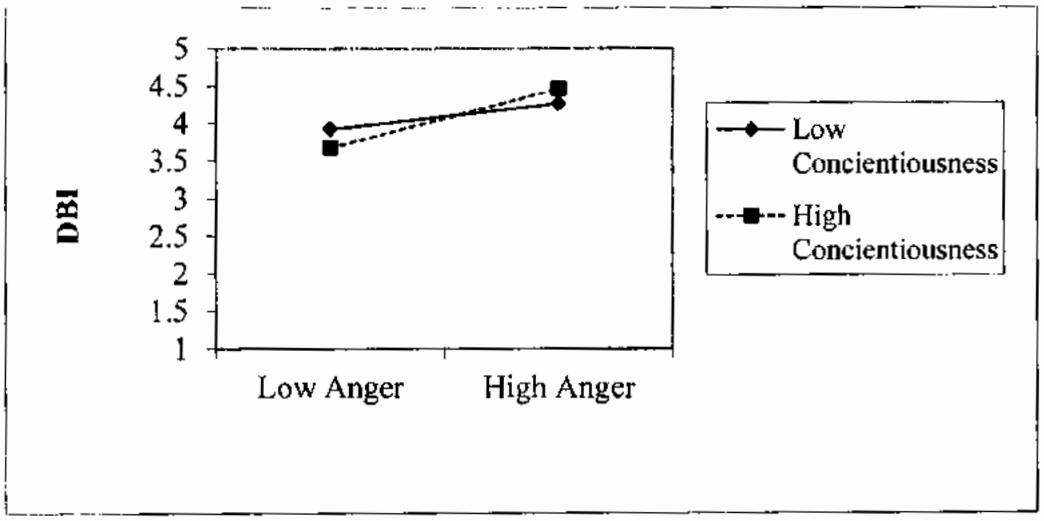

Figure E (2): Moderating impact of conscientiousness on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Conscientiousness on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that DBI decrease more rapidly for high Conscientious individuals.

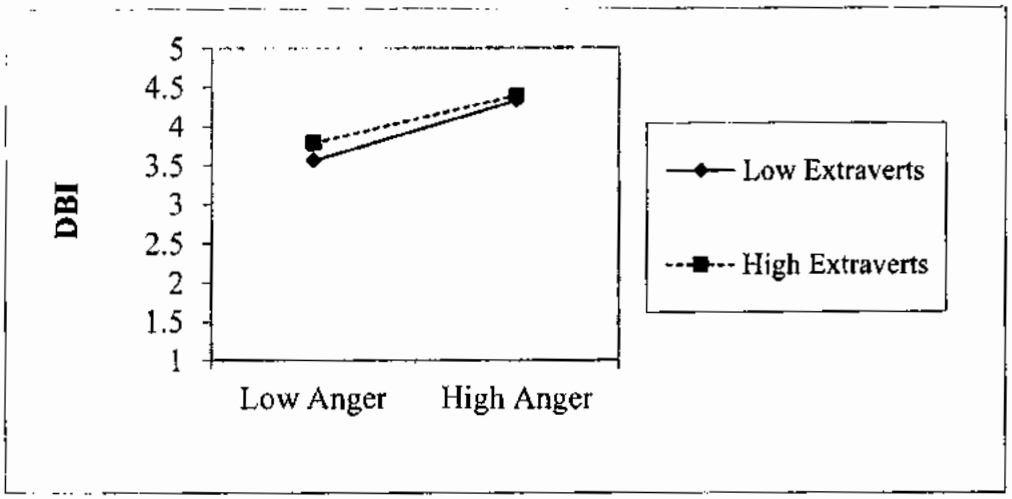

Figure E (3): Moderating impact of extraversion on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Extraversion on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that there was no significant interactive effect of Extraversion on the relationship between anger and DBI.

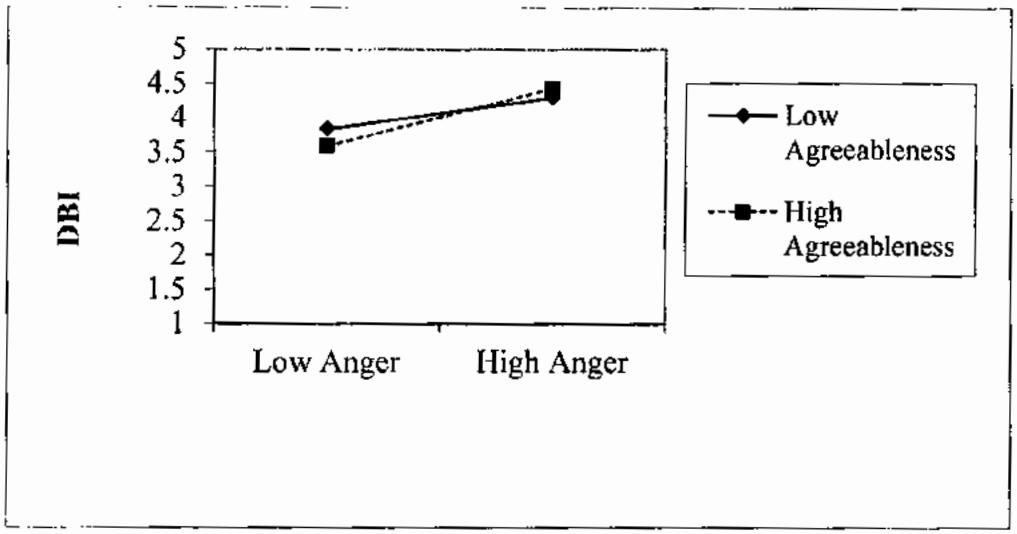

Figure E (4): Moderating impact of agreeableness on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Agreeableness on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that DBI decrease more rapidly for high Agreeable individuals.

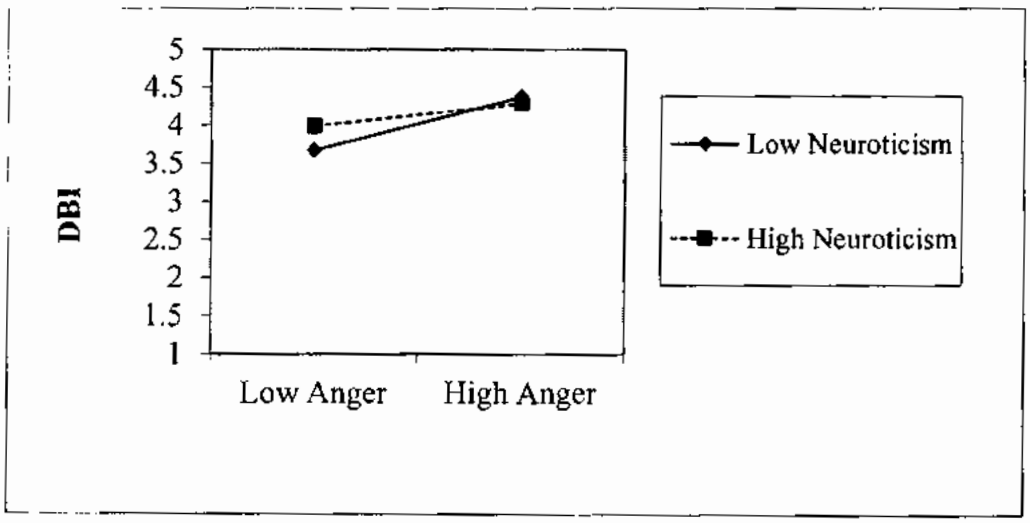

Figure E (5): Moderating impact of neuroticism on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Neuroticism on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that DBI decrease more rapidly for low Neurotic individuals.

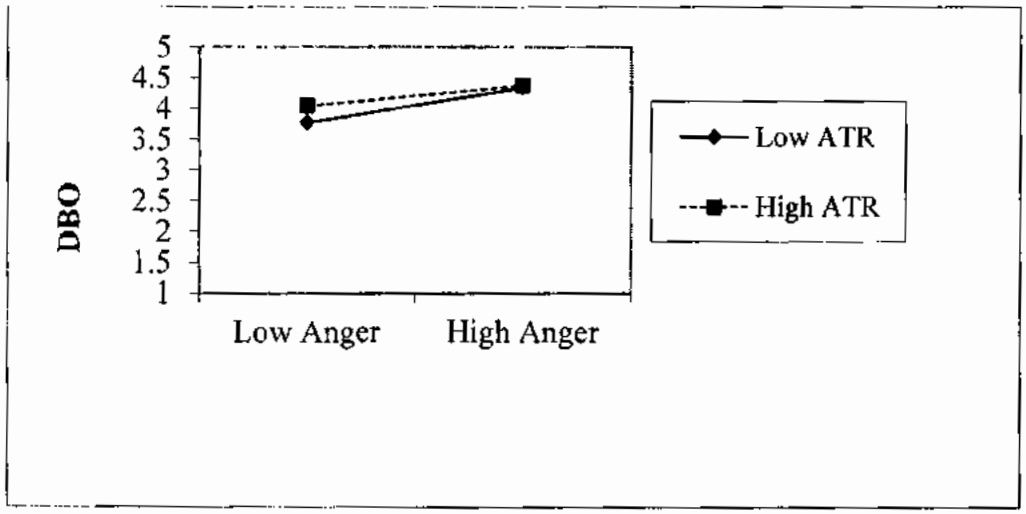

Figure F (1): Moderating impact of ATR on anger and DBO.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Attitude towards revenge (ATR)on the relationship between anger and DBO. The figure further explains that DBO decrease more rapidly for low ATR individuals.

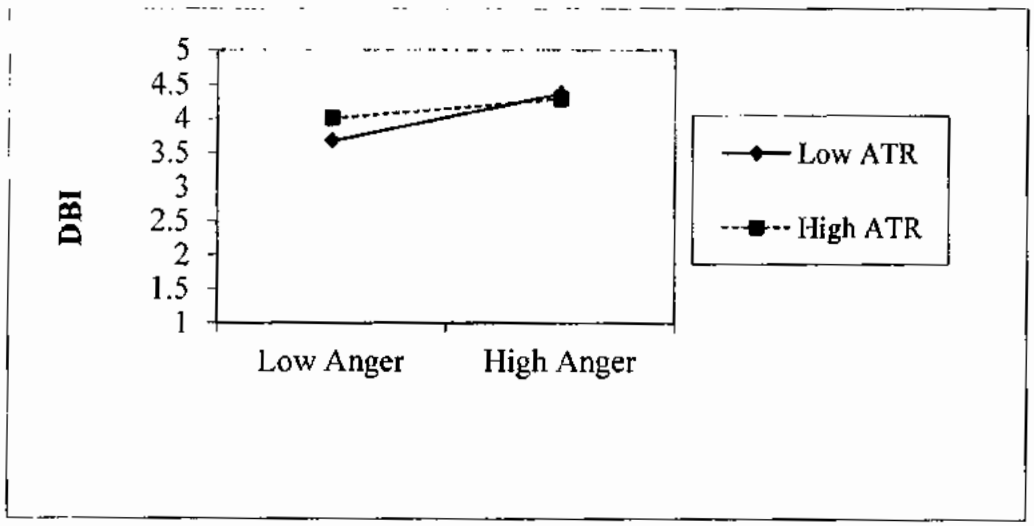

Figure F (2): Moderating impact of ATR on anger and DBI.

This figure shows the moderating impact of Attitude towards revenge (ATR) on the relationship between anger and DBI. The figure further explains that DBI decrease more rapidly for low ATR individuals.

4.11 Summary of results

Hypothesis No.	Statement	Accepted/rejected
H1, H2 and H3	**H1**Distributive injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger. **H2** Procedural injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger. **H3** Interactional injustice has a positive relationship with employees' anger.	**Accepted**
H4 and H5	**H4.** Anger has positive relationship with interpersonal deviance. **H5.** Anger has positive relationship with organizational deviance.	**Accepted**
H6, H7 and H8	**H6.** Distributive injustice has positive association with organizational deviance. **H7.** Procedural injustice has positive association with organizational deviance. **H8.** Interactional injustice has positive association with interpersonal deviance.	**Accepted**
H9, H10 and H11	**H9.** Anger mediates the relationship between distributive injustice and organizational deviance. **H10.** Anger mediates the relationship between procedural injustice and organizational deviance. **H11.** Anger mediates the relationship between interactional injustice and interpersonal deviance.	**Accepted**
H12, H13 and H14	**H12.** Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals. **H13.** Relationship between Procedural injustice and	**Accepted**

	employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals. **H14**. Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by self-control such that the relationship is strong for low self-control individuals.	
H15 and H16	**H15.** Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals. **H16.** Relationship between Procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals.	**Accepted**
H17	**H17.** Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Negative affectivity such that the relationship is strong for high Negative Affectivity individuals.	**Rejected**
H18, H19 and H20	**H18.** Relationship between Distributive injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals. **H19.** Relationship between Procedural injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals. **H20.** Relationship between Interactional injustice and employees' anger is moderated by Positive affectivity such that the relationship is weak for high Positive Affectivity individuals.	**Accepted**
H21 and H22	**H21.** Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by conscientiousness such that the relationship is weakening for high conscientious individuals. **H22.** Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by conscientiousness such that the relationship is	**Accepted**

	weakening for high conscientious individuals.	
H23 and H24	**H23.** Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by neuroticism such that the relationship is strong for high neurotic individuals. **H24.** Relationship of employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by neuroticism such that the relationship is strong for high neurotic individuals.	**Accepted**
H25 and H26	**H25.** Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by agreeableness such that the relationship is weakening for high agreeable individuals. **H26.** Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by agreeableness such that the relationship is weakening for high agreeable individuals.	**Accepted**
H27 and H28	**H27.** Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by extraversion such that the relationship is strong for extraverts. **H28.** Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by extraversion such that the relationship is strong for extraverts.	**Rejected**
H29 and H30	**H29.** Relationship between employees' anger and interpersonal deviance is moderated by openness such that the relationship is weakening for high openness individuals. **H30.** Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by openness such that the relationship is weakening for high openness individuals.	**Accepted**
H31 and H32	**H31.** Relationship between employees' anger and organizational deviance is moderated by Attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is strong for high Attitude towards revenge individuals. **H32.** Relationship between employees' anger and Interpersonal deviance is moderated by Attitude towards revenge such that the relationship is strong	**Accepted**

	for high Attitude towards revenge individuals.	

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter has provided the detailed description about the data analysis techniques used in this study. First part of this chapter provided the descriptive statistics, Cronbach Alpha and correlation among the constructs of the study. The second part of this chapter provided the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for the constructs of the study, followed by mediation and moderation analysis. Graphical representations of moderation analyses are also presented in the last part of this chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overview of chapter

This chapter provides the detailed discussion of the findings of this study in light of the previous research findings. Affective event theory is discussed again which provide overarching theoretical foundation for this study. In addition to main effects of the study variables, moderating effects of dispositional traits are also discussed in detail in comparison with previous research. The last section of this chapter presents the study contribution towards theory and practice, followed by limitations and future research directions and ended up with conclusion.

5.2 General discussion

Spector and Fox (2005) hypothesized that deviant behaviors is the possible outcome of stress at work place which constitutes a response to frustrating working conditions. According to this model, deviant behaviors are considered as a response to perceived organizational stressors which hampers work goals, job activities, and job performance. Previous studies have explored that whenever employees perceive a job stressor, they might experience negative feelings which in turn, lead to commit deviant behaviors as a response strategy, in order to reduce the emotionally unpleasant conditions derived from organizational frustrations (Penney and Spector, 2005; Spector, 1998).

Perceived organizational injustice works as a job stressor which generate negative emotions and consequently strain responses (Zohar, 1995). In light of Affective Event Theory (AET), this study proposed that injustice and deviant behaviors have distal relationship. Anger, which is considered as the most basic discrete emotion, works as an underlying mechanism between injustice and deviant workplace behaviors. Another important facet of Affective Event Theory

(AET) is that the impact of work place events on affective reactions is influenced by individual dispositions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). This feature of AET is quite consistent with Bolger and Zuckerman's (1995) notion of differential reactivity. This indicate that, people high on certain personality traits will react more severely (e.g., with stronger emotions) than do people low on those personality traits. This reactivity effect for personality traits like Extraversion and Neuroticism has been investigated by various studies (e.g., Bolger and Schilling, 1991; Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995; Larsen and Ketelaar, 1991). This study strives to investigate the reactivity effect of personality traits like Self-control, Positive and Negative Affectivity and results supported the hypothesized relationships. In addition, Social Cognitive View of individuals, which focuses on individual differences, was another potential objective of this study which says that all angry individuals do not react towards perceived workplace injustice in a similar way rather, they react differently, depend upon their personality dispositions. Results supported the propositions that perceived injustice generate negative emotions (anger) which results into deviant workplace behaviors, however, they react differently.

Deviant Behaviors (DB) are either aggressive (e.g., production deviance and abuse against other) or passive (e.g., employee withdrawal and failing to follow instructions) employee behaviors which are commonly aimed at harming the current organization and/or its employees (Fox et al., 2001). Organizational injustice works as a hindrance stressor which elicits negative emotions (anger) which ultimately transform into deviant workplace behaviors. Organizational justice scholars pointed out for future researchers to conduct research on, whether different types of injustice differentially predict different forms of deviant behaviors (Bennett and Robinson, 2003), and on the differences between predictors of deviant behaviors directed toward organizations versus directed towards supervisor (Hershcovis et al., 2007).

Deviant behaviors has been an interesting topic of research for the last few decades and interest in it has continued to grow as more evidence emerged as to their potential detrimental effects on both employers (Jensen, Opland, and Ryan, 2010) and employees (Aubé, Rousseau, Mama, and Morin, 2009). Spector and Fox (2002, 2005) contended that organizational and interpersonal stressors in a work environment are likely to evoke negative emotions, and people may engage in CWB as a way of coping with their negative feelings. Indeed, such deviant behaviors have been shown to predict reduced productivity, higher turnover rates, lower employee commitment, and ultimately organizational failure (Jones, 2009; Penney and Spector, 2005). Based upon the philosophy of Agent-system model of justice which suggests that individuals tend to direct their responses towards perceived source of fair or unfair treatment (Bies and Moag, 1986; Masterson et al., 2000), this study explored that distributive injustice and procedural injustice significantly predict deviant behaviors directed towards organization and interactional injustice predict deviant behaviors directed towards individuals which is consistent with previous research findings (Jones, 2009). Support of H1, H2, H3.

Results of this study also supported the positive relationship between all the three types of injustice and anger which shows that all of injustice types are important predictors of negative emotions. These results are in congruence with organizational justice research, Affective Events Theory by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) and Uncertainty Management Theory by Van den Bos (2001), however counter to the findings of recent study by Khan, Quratulain and Crawshaw (2013), which explored that distributive injustice is the significant predictor of negative emotions and the results did not support procedural injustice to be a predictor of anger. Support of H4, H5 and H6 shows that injustice will be responded by negative emotions which is much in line with

previous research findings which explored that perceptions of unfair treatment is responded by negative emotions such as anger, resentment and outrage (Folger, 1993).

This study also found support for the positive relationship between anger and deviant workplace behaviors (DBO and DBI, H7 and H8) which endorse the framework presented by Affective Event Theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), showing a relationship among workplace events, emotions and resultant behaviors. As hypothesized, anger emerged as a significant predictor of deviant behaviors directed towards organization (DBO) and deviant behaviors directed towards individuals (DBI). These findings are consistent with recent research findings (e.g., Khan, Quratulain, and Crawshaw, 2013; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009) which explored that negative emotions have significant positive relationship with deviant workplace behaviors. These behaviors also support the vigilante model of justice by Tripp et al (2007).

In light of the Affective Event Theory and review of relevant literature, this study proposed that injustice perceptions and deviance behaviors (Interpersonal/Organizational) have distal relationships. Negative emotions (anger), which are considered as a negative emotional reaction, will mediate the relationship between different types of injustices and deviance behaviors. Support for H9, H10 and H11 confirmed that negative emotions (anger) fully mediated the relationship between distributive injustice (DJ) and deviant behaviors directed towards organization (DBO); partially mediated the relationship between procedural injustice (PJ) and deviant behaviors directed towards organization (DBO); and partially mediated the relationship between interactional injustice (IJ) and deviant behaviors directed towards individuals (DBI). These findings are partially consistent with the findings of a recent study by Khan et al (2013) in Pakistani context, which confirmed the mediating role of anger between distributive injustice and employees' abusive behaviors against others and production deviance, however such findings

were not confirmed for procedural injustice and deviant behaviors. This study considered all the three types of injustice and confirmed the mediating role of anger between injustice perception and deviant behaviors as proposed.

Distributive, procedural and interactional injustices all have positive relationship with anger which explained 71% of variance in it. Distributive injustice interacted with Negative Affectivity (NA) which was significant, $R^2Ch.$ =.053 F (1,320) = 30.939 p<0.001. Distributive injustice interacted with Positive Affectivity (PA) which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.062 F (1,320) = 31.690 p<0.001. Distributive injustice interacted with Self-control which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.074 F (1,320) = 42.391 p<0.001.

Procedural injustice interacted with Negative Affectivity (NA) which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.012 F (1,320) = 6.720 p<0.01. Procedural injustice interacted with Positive Affectivity (PA) which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.058 F (1,320) = 31.683 p<0.001. Procedural injustice interacted with Self-control, which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.050 F (1,320) = 31.742 p<0.001.

The interaction between Interactional injustice and Negative Affectivity (NA) was not significant. This interaction term did not explain any significant variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.005 F (1,320) = 2.784 p>0.05 (ns). Interactional injustice interacted with Positive Affectivity (PA) which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.071 F (1,320) = 43.939 p<0.001. Interactional injustice interacted with Self-control, which was significant. This interaction term explained variance in DV (anger), $R^2Ch.$ =.087 F (1,320) = 57.717 p<0.001. Based upon the differential reactivity model (Bolger and Zuckerman's (1995),

support for the study hypotheses (H12, H13, H14, H15, H16, H18, H19, H20) confirmed that the emotional reactions of all individuals are not the same towards injustice perceptions rather, they vary in their emotional reactions. Contrary to the expectations, H17 was not supported by the results.

To be competitive in today's ever changing business environment, organizations have to maintain a justice prevailing environment in order to get maximum output from employees. This study confirmed that unfair procedures enactment generates negative emotions (anger) of employees which ultimately results into deviant workplace behaviors. Based upon the differential reactivity model (Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995), this study explored that the tendency of negative emotions (anger) arousal is higher in individuals who are high in Negative Affectivity (NA) compare to those who are low at Negative Affectivity (NA). In addition, individuals who are high at Positive Affectivity (PA) are less likely to go for negative emotions (anger). Results of this study are consistent with other researches showing an association between job stressors and CWB, and provide support for Spector's (1998)model of job stress and CWB incivility, interpersonal conflict, and organizational constraints and CWB. The graphs of moderators showed that the relationships between each type of injustice and anger are more strongly positive for individuals high in negative affectivity than for individuals, low in negative affectivity. When higher levels of distributive, procedural and interactional injustice were perceived, individuals appeared to have higher level of negative emotions and resultantly higher level of deviant workplace behaviors. This is much in line with previous research findings which explored that NA reflects individuals' emotional sensitivity to the environment, it would follow that individuals high on this personality trait are more likely to respond to provocation emotionally than would individuals who are low (Spector, 2011). Spector and Fox (2002)

predicted a strong relationship between Positive Affectivity (PA) and Organization Citizenship Behaviors (OCB); and Negative Affectivity (NA) and Counterproductive Workplace Behaviors (CWB). In fact, their model posits PA as the proximal cause of OCB and NA as the proximal cause of CWB.

Individuals who are high in self-control have the ability to exercise restraint or control over one's feelings, emotions and reactions. In this study it was expected that self-control will moderate the associations between stressors (injustice) and emotional and cognitive reactivity to stressors (anger). Results indicate that high self-control individuals are more likely to restrain their negative feeling when encounter with stressful events. These finding are align with recent research findings suggesting that trait self-control may be associated with anticipatory regulation of temptation (situation selection) (Hofmann, Baumeister, Förster, and Vohs, 2012), this may indicate that adolescents with higher self-control are better able to proactively avoid stressful events (Hofmann and Kotabe, 2012; Lee-Baggley, Preece, and DeLongis, 2005). Studies also found that low self-control individuals are those who exhibit a stable tendency to react offensively to minimal provocations (Baron and Richardson, 1994). Another study by Galla and Wood (2015) found that self-control predict less exposure to daily stress, less reactivity to daily stress, and more adaptive responses to stress; specifically, adolescents with higher self-control experienced fewer daily stressors and reported lower stress severity, particularly, when daily mindlessness was high.

Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) general theory of crime posits that individuals with low levels of self-control are more likely to respond to situational triggers with criminal and delinquent behaviors especially when given the opportunity to do so. Similarly, Wilkowski and Robinson (2008) integrative cognitive model of trait anger lends support to the buffering role of self-

control. In light of the previous research finding and this study it can be concluded that self-control works as a buffering effect between workplace stressors (injustice) and negative emotions.

It has been widely recognized in previous research that individual differences contribute to the portrayal of voluntary behaviors (Fox and Spector, 1999; Fox et al., 2001; Hogan and Hogan, 1989: McNeely and Meglino, 1994; Organ and Ryan, 1995). For example, the constructs of trait anxiety and locus of control have been shown to affect employees' willingness to engage in deviant behaviors in workplace (Fox and Spector, 1999). A meta-analysis by Berry et al (2007) summarized the results of studies correlating CWB with personality from Five Factor Model (FFM) perspective. These authors found that, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability are related significantly with CWB-O and CWB-I. Fox and Spector (1999) explored the effects of frustration on workplace deviant behaviors. They looked at the antecedents of frustration such as locus of control and trait-anxiety and then determined the relationship between frustration and deviant behaviors. The findings showed that trait-anxiety was significantly and positively correlated with frustration. Frustration, in turn, was found to be positively correlated with workplace deviant behaviors. This indicates that personality variables such as trait-anxiety might have an influence over workplace deviance in an indirect manner.

This is probably the first study which has taken into account the moderating effect of big-5 personality traits on relationship between outward focused negative emotions (anger) and deviant workplace behaviors. Most of the study hypotheses were supported by the results except few (H17 and H27).

High openness to experience individuals are curious, intelligent, imaginative and independent. It is the most controversial, least understood and rarely researched dimension of the Big Five personality traits (McCrae and Costa, 1987). One other study found that individuals who are low in openness are inclined towards interpersonal and organizational deviance behaviors (Mount et al., 2006). Aggregate deviance behaviors have modest and negative relationship with openness, whereas openness individually is unrelated with both dimensions (Interpersonal and Organizational Deviance) (Sackett et al., 2006). Results of this study did not support the proposed moderating impact of openness to experience, however the study found counter effect showing that high openness to experience individuals are more likely to commit deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO). One possible explanation about these unexpected results can be the special characteristics of high openness to experience individuals for example, curiosity, imagination and independence, which may induce them to undertake such activities which come under the umbrella of deviant workplace behaviors.

Two hypotheses were proposed for the moderating impact of conscientiousness, both of which were supported by the results. Analysis revealed that conscientiousness interacted with anger to predict deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO). Figure D (2) and E (2) shows that deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO) were both lower for high conscientious individuals which implies that conscientiousness has weakened the impact of negative emotions on deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO). Previous research also found the moderating effect of conscientiousness upon the relationship between negative emotions and counterproductive workplace behaviors(Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). It is argued that this might happened because high conscientious individuals are hardworking, achievement oriented, punctual, dependable and careful which restrain them to commit deviant behaviors. This is aligned with previous research

findings which shows that individuals demonstrate deviant behaviors in response to negative perception of workplace situation only when such behaviors are consistent with their personality traits (Colbert et al., 2004).

Results of this study partially supported the hypotheses for the moderating role of extraversion upon the relationship between negative emotions (anger) and deviant workplace behaviors. Figure D (3) shows that deviant workplace behaviors (DBO) were higher for high extraverts, whereas, figure E (3) shows that there was no significant moderating effect of extraverts on negative emotions (anger) and deviant workplace behaviors (DBI) relationship. Extraverts are highly social and are mostly characterized by gregariousness and excitement-seeking behaviors(Judge et al., 1997). They are frequently longing for exciting new situations and activities (Costa and McCrae, 1992), and consider work as dull and routine because of its repetitive nature (Judge et al., 1997). Findings of this study are consistent with previous research which found that extraverts positively predict absence (Judge et al., 1997), deviance (Berry et al., 2007) and absenteeism (Cooper and Payne, 1967).

Results of this study revealed that agreeableness interacted with anger to predict deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO), hence supported both of the hypotheses proposed for the moderating impact of agreeableness. Figure D (4) and E (4) shows that deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO) were both lower for high agreeable individuals which implies that agreeableness has weakened the impact of negative emotions on deviant workplace behaviors (DBI and DBO). Individuals high in Agreeableness are courteous, flexible, trusting, good natured, cooperative, forgiving, soft hearted, and tolerant (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Past research also found a positive relationship between Agreeableness and interpersonal aspects of job performance (Hurtz and Donovan, 2000; Mount et al., 2006). In addition, Salgado's (1997)

meta-analysis results indicated that agreeableness is negatively related to organizational deviance (e.g., absence or lateness to work, theft, and property damage). Berry et al (2007) also found that agreeableness has negative relationship with deviant workplace behaviors. One other study also found that agreeableness attenuate the relationship between negative emotions and deviant behaviors (Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). In light of the previous research findings and present study it is argued that attributes like, good natured, easy going and forgiving nature restrain agreeable individuals from deviant workplace behaviors even if they are treated unfairly and their negative emotions are aroused.

Two hypotheses were proposed for the moderating impact of neuroticism, both of which were supported by the results. Figure D (5) and E (5) shows that deviant workplace behaviors (DBO and DBI) both were higher for high neurotics, although the moderating impact of neuroticism was higher for DBI as compare to DBO. Neurotic individuals are described as fearful, anxious, angry and depressed (Judge et al., 1997). All these attributes are highly prone for the arousal of negative emotions which ultimately transform into counterproductive workplace behaviors. Meta-analysis by Berry et al (2007) found that agreeableness, conscientiousness and neuroticism are significantly related with deviant behaviors. Judge and Ilies (2002) also found a correlation of ($r = -0.31$) between neuroticism and goal-setting motivation, expectancy motivation and self-efficacy motivation. On the basis of previous research and findings of this study, it is argued that individuals high on neuroticism are less likely to control their emotion which may induce them for deviant workplace behaviors when they are treated unjustly at workplace.

Organizational justice scholars have described revenge as a response towards interpersonal offense at workplace (Bies et al., 1997; Skarlicki and Folger, 1997; Tripp and Bies, 1997; Wall and Callister, 1995). Injustice at workplace may triggers desires for revenge in victims because

this represents a violation of norms about ethical conduct (Folger and Cropanzano, 1998). Two hypotheses were proposed for the moderating impact of attitude towards revenge, both of which were supported by the results. Figure F (1) and F (2) shows that deviant workplace behaviors (DBO and DBI) both were higher for individuals who are high on attitude towards revenge scale. Results of this study are consistent with previous research finding showing that the relationship between negative emotions (anger) generated by injustice at workplace and deviant workplace behaviors will be stronger for those who are high on attitude towards revenge scale.

5.3 Implications for practice

It has been well documented in organizational literature that deviant workplace behaviors cause enormous financial, physical and psychological loses towards the organization and their employees. Therefore, it is the prime responsibility of organizational leaders to understand the root causes of deviant behaviors and devise an in-time resolve before its commencement. Findings of this study have put forth some steps in order to minimize the occurrence of such deleterious behaviors. First, an important finding of this study is that high level of perceived injustice triggers negative emotions and suppress positive emotions which may results into counterproductive workplace behaviors. Results of this study suggest that organizations can lower the tendency of employees to go for deviant behaviors as a result of injustice through employee assistance programs focusing on teaching employees to manage their negative emotions and better cope with negative situations (Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). These efforts are helpful in decreasing deviant behaviors by decreasing the actual experience of negative emotions.

Second, extensive recruitment and selection procedures might help in lowering the deviant workplace behaviors. Individuals high on self-control and positive affectivity have a higher level

of control on their emotions which suppress their desire for revenge and refrain them from counterproductive workplace behaviors. In contrast, individuals who are high in negative affectivity easily get hyper and results into deleterious workplace behaviors. Extensive recruitment procedure can help in bringing in people with positive and optimistic mind into the organization. In addition, conscientious and agreeable individuals are highly committed with their work responsibilities. Such individuals are more likely to suppress their negative emotions instead of committing deviant behaviors. In contrast, high neurotic individuals are easy to get hyper and go for deviant workplace behaviors.

Third, restructuring interpersonal and job circumstances might help in decreasing employees' negative emotions and counterproductive workplace behaviors, for example, managers can decrease the likelihood of employees' perception of ambiguity at workplace by communicating clearly their responsibilities (Litzky, Eddleston, and Kidder, 2006; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). This encourages the informational justice which is the subset of interactional justice.

Fourth, organization must provide employees with a fair working environment as the findings of this study and previous research suggest that distributive, procedural and interactional justice all have a direct and significant effect on the occurrence of deviant workplace behaviors. Fairness must be ensured in all forms, for example, distribution of financial rewards must be on equity basis, decision making procedures must be unbiased and equally applicable and personal interaction must be full of dignity and respect.

5.4 Implication for Theory

Based upon the Affective Event Theory, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), injustice-emotions-deviant behaviors model received support from the results. In addition to direct relationships between predictors and outcome variables, mediation hypotheses were also supported by the

results which are consistent with previous research (Khan et al., 2013; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). Discrete negative emotions (anger) fully mediated the relationship between distributive injustice and DBO and the relationship between interactional injustice and DBI; however, anger partially mediated the relationship between procedural injustice and DBO. These findings support the Spector and Fox (2002) emotion-cantered model which posit that counterproductive workplace behaviors are the result of constraints on performance (injustice, job stressors, violation of psychological contract) which generate negative emotions.

Following the notion of differential reactivity model of Bolger and Zukerman (1995), this study found that individuals who are high on certain personality traits will react more severely (e.g., with stronger emotions) than do people low on those personality traits. This reactivity effect for personality traits like Extraversion and Neuroticism has been investigated by various studies (e.g., Bolger and Schilling, 1991; Bolger and Zuckerman, 1995; Larsen and Ketelaar, 1991). This study investigated the reactivity effect of personality traits like Self-control, Positive and Negative Affectivity and results supported the hypothesized relationships with only one exception which is that NA did not moderate the relationship between perceived interactional injustice and anger which was contrary to the expectation.

In addition, following the social cognitive view of individuals which emphasize upon person-situation interaction (Mischel, 1973; Shoda and Mischel, 1993), this study focused on individual differences. Five Factor Model (FFM) was taken into account because this model has widely been used in literature and is well established in the personality literature. Cognitive social view suggests that psychological effect of a situation depend on how a person interprets the situation. Differences in interpretations occur due to significant individual differences. Results of this study showed that all individuals did not responded to injustice in the same way, rather they

reacted differently, depend upon their personality dispositions. Analysis revealed that conscientiousness and agreeableness moderated the relationship between anger and deviant behaviors (DBI, DBO), such that higher level of both personality traits weaken the original relationship between anger and deviant behaviors. These findings are aligned with the findings of Yang and Diefendorff (2009), who explored that positive relationship between negative emotions and counterproductive behaviors are weaken by conscientiousness and agreeableness. Contrary to expectations, high openness to experience did not weaken the relationship between anger and deviant behaviors rather, relationship became stronger for high openness to experience individuals as with high neurotics. Extraverts did not moderate the relationship between anger and deviant behaviors in either way.

Following the interactionist perspective, this study has integrated dispositional and situational factors causing deviant workplace behaviors and results support the interactionist perspective. Previous research on counterproductive workplace behaviors mostly adopted either situationistic or a personalistic perspective (Marcus and Schuler, 2004), however, few empirical studies also adopted interactionist perspective (Colbert et al., 2004; Diefendorff and Mehta, 2007; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). This study considered personality as a constraint on the situational perception-emotions-deviance relationship and results supported that how perceptions of the work situations, emotions and personality traits act together in order to influence deviance.

5.5 Limitations and future research directions

There are few limitations associated with this study which deserved to be mentioned here. First, the operationalization of situational perceptions at workplace for this study included only one measure of employees' perceptions (organizational injustice) which may curtail the scope of this study. A number of situational perceptions, in addition to perceived injustice, could have been

examined for example, perceived organizational support, developmental environment in the organizations (Colbert et al., 2004) which may broaden the scope of the study. Future researchers are encouraged to take into account other situational factors, other emotions (positive, negative) and related outcomes variables.

Second, self-reported measures were used for all variables included in this study which might leads to the problem of common method bias. However, nature of the variables included in this study considerably justify the usage of self-report measures for example, emotions (anger) and injustice perception can best be rated by the person himself compare to someone else. In addition, it seems logical to get peer or supervisor reports about deviant workplace behaviors as that would possibly be less biased opinion, however, Bennett and Robinson (2000) suggested that self-report measure of deviant behaviors is more appropriate because most of deviant behaviors are covert which is difficult for other to observe. Few other studies also suggested that assessment of deviant behaviors by others may not be more appropriate than self-reporting (Berry et al., 2007; Ones et al., 1993). Nonetheless, it is recommended that future research may consider collecting deviant behaviors data from multiple sources in order to eradicate social desirability issue.

Finally, cross-sectional research design was used for this study which cannot rule out the alternative causal relationships of the study variables. Emotions are quite temporal which can fleet away soon, so there is no guarantee that a person's emotions generated yesterday would be same as today. Therefore, daily or weekly diary research design is encouraged for future researchers to grab the emotions at the right occasion.

5.6 Conclusion

Causes of deviant workplace behaviors have widely been explored in organizational research. Emotions play a central role in the job stress process because emotions represent the immediate response to situations that are perceived as stressful, which energize and motivate subsequent workplace behaviors. Organizational injustice works as a job stressor and is concerned with employees' perceptions of unfair treatment at work which generate negative emotions and subsequently transformed into deviant behaviors. Based upon the Affective Event Theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) and emotion-cantered model (Spector and Fox, 2002), this study explored that employees' perception of injustice elicit outward focused negative emotions (anger) which is immediately followed by deviant behaviors directed towards the source of injustice. Consistent with differential reactivity effect this study found that individuals, who are high in self-control and positive affectivity, are less likely to express negative emotions (anger) as compare to those who are low in self-control and positive affectivity. However, individuals high in negative affectivity are more likely to express negative emotion when they perceive injustice at workplace. Additionally, in light of social cognitive view of individuals, this study also found that all angry individuals do not respond to perceived injustice in the same way. High conscientious, high agreeable individuals are less likely to go for deviant behaviors because of their achievement orientation, tolerant and challenge seeking attributes. However, individuals high in neuroticism and openness to experience are more likely to go for deviant behaviors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Survey questionnaire

The following items ask about how fairly you felt you are being treated in terms of the rewards received from your organization, the inputs you had to provide, the procedures used to arrive at decisions at your organization, and your direct supervisor's interaction with you. Please rate each statement using the provided rating scale.
1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree

Distributive Justice

1	My work schedule is fair	1	2	3	4	5
2	I think that my level of may is fair	1	2	3	4	5
3	I consider my work load to be quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
4	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair	1	2	3	4	5
5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair	1	2	3	4	5

Procedural Justice

1	Job decisions made by the GM in an unbiased manner	1	2	3	4	5
2	My GM makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5
3	To make job decisions, my GM collects accurate and complete information	1	2	3	4	5
4	My GM clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees	1	2	3	4	5
5	All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees	1	2	3	4	5
6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by the GM	1	2	3	4	5

Interactional Justice

1	When decisions are made about my job, the GM treats me with kindness and considerations.	1	2	3	4	5
2	When decisions are made about my job, the GM treats me with respect and dignity.	1	2	3	4	5
3	When decisions are made about my job, the GM is sensitive to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4	When decisions are made about my job, the GM deals with me in a truthful manner.	1	2	3	4	5
5	When decisions are made about my job, the GM shows concerns for my rights as an employee.	1	2	3	4	5

6	Concerning decisions made about my job, the GM discuss the implications of the decisions with me.	1	2	3	4	5
7	The GM offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
8	When making decisions about my job, the GM offers explanations that make sense to me.	1	2	3	4	5
9	My GM explains very clearly any decision made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5

Anger: Indicate to what extent you experience the following states right now.
(1=very slightly, 2=a little, 3=moderately, 4=quite at bit, 5=extremely).

1	Anger	1	2	3	4	5
2	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
3	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
4	Scornful	1	2	3	4	5
5	Disgusted	1	2	3	4	5
6	Loathing	1	2	3	4	5

Deviant Behaviors: Indicate how often you engaged in the behaviors during the last one year.
1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Seldom, 4 = Occasionally, 5 = Often

Interpersonal Deviance

1	Made fun of someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Said something hurtful to someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Cursed at someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Played a mean prank on someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Acted rudely toward someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Publicly embarrassed someone at work.	1	2	3	4	5

Organizational Deviance

1	Taken property from work without permission.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Come in late to work without permission.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Littered your work environment.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Neglected to follow your boss's instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized	1	2	3	4	5

	person.					
10	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Put little effort into your work.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Dragged out work in order to get overtime.	1	2	3	4	5

Positive and Negative Affect: Indicate to what extent you experience the following states right now.

(1=very slightly, 2=a little, 3=moderately, 4=quite at bit, 5=extremely)

Negative Affect

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

Positive Affect

1	Active	1	2	3	4	5
2	Alert	1	2	3	4	5
3	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
4	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
5	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
6	Excited	1	2	3	4	5
7	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
8	Interested	1	2	3	4	5
9	Proud	1	2	3	4	5
10	Strong	1	2	3	4	5

Self-Control:

Using the scale provided, please indicate how much each of the following statements reflects how you typically are.

(1=not at all like me, 2=not like me, 3=neutral, 4=quite a bit like me, 5=extremely like me)

(R) 1. I have a hard time breaking bad habits. 1--------2--------3--------4--------5

(R) 2. I am lazy. 1--------2--------3--------4--------5

(R) 3. I say inappropriate things. 1--------2--------3--------4--------5

(R)	4.	I do certain things that are bad for me, if they are fun.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
	5.	I refuse things that are bad for me.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
(R)	6.	I wish I had more self-discipline.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
	7.	I am good at resisting temptation.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
	8.	People would say that I have iron self-discipline.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
(R)	9.	Pleasure and fun sometimes keep me from getting work done.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
(R)	10.	I have trouble concentrating.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
	11.	I am able to work effectively toward long-term goals.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
(R)	12.	Sometimes I can't stop myself from doing something, even if I know it is wrong.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5
(R)	13.	I often act without thinking through all the alternatives.	1--------2--------3--------4--------5

The Big Five Inventory (BFI)

Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who likes to spend time with others? Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.
(1=strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree)

Extraversion
I see myself as someone who….

1	Is talkative.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Is reserved (R).	1	2	3	4	5
3	Is full of energy.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Generates a lot of enthusiasm.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tends to be quiet (R).	1	2	3	4	5
6	Has an assertive personality.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Is sometimes shy, inhibited (R).	1	2	3	4	5
8	Is outgoing, sociable.	1	2	3	4	5

Agreeableness
I see myself as someone who….

1	Tends to find fault with others (R)	1	2	3	4	5
2	Is helpful and unselfish with others.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Starts quarrels with others (R).	1	2	3	4	5
4	Has a forgiving nature.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Is generally trusting.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Can be cold and aloof (R).	1	2	3	4	5

7	Is considerate and kind to almost everyone.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Likes to cooperate with others.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Likes to cooperate with others.	1	2	3	4	5

Conscientiousness
I see myself as someone who….

1	Does a thorough job.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Can be somewhat careless (R).	1	2	3	4	5
3	Is a reliable worker.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Tends to be disorganized (R)	1	2	3	4	5
5	Tends to be lazy (R).	1	2	3	4	5
6	Perseveres until the task is finished.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Does things efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Makes plans and follows through with them.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Is easily distracted (R).	1	2	3	4	5

Neuroticism
I see myself as someone who….

1	Is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5
2	Is relaxed, handle s stress well (R)	1	2	3	4	5
3	Can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
4	Worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
5	Is emotionally stable, not easily upset (R)	1	2	3	4	5
6	Can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
7	Remains calm in tense situations (R)	1	2	3	4	5
8	Gets nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5

Openness
I see myself as someone who….

1	Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
2	Is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
3	Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
4	Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
5	Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
6	Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5
7	Prefers work that is routine (R)	1	2	3	4	5
8	Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
9	Has few artistic interests (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10	Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

Attitude towards Revenge

Read each item and decide whether you agree or disagree and to what extent

(1--strongly disagree 2=disagree 3=neither agree nor disagree 4=agree 5=strongly agree)

1	It's not worth my time or effort to pay back someone who has wronged me.*	1	2	3	4	5
2	It is important for me to get back at people who have hurt me	1	2	3	4	5
3	I try to even the score with anyone who hurts me.	1	2	3	4	5
4	It is always better not to seek vengeance. *	1	2	3	4	5
5	I live by the motto "Let bygones be bygones." *	1	2	3	4	5
6	There is nothing wrong in getting back at someone who has hurt you.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I don't just get mad, I get even.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I find it easy to forgive those who have hurt me. *	1	2	3	4	5
9	I am not a vengeful person. *	1	2	3	4	5
10	I believe in the motto "An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth."	1	2	3	4	5
11	Revenge is morally wrong.*	1	2	3	4	5
12	If someone causes me trouble, I'll find a way to make them regret it.	1	2	3	4	5
13	People who insist on getting revenge are disgusting. *	1	2	3	4	5
14	If I am wronged, I can't live with myself unless I get revenge.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Honor requires that you get back at someone who has hurt you.	1	2	3	4	5
16	It is usually better to show mercy than to take revenge. *	1	2	3	4	5
17	Anyone who provokes me deserves the punishment that I give them.	1	2	3	4	5
18	It is always better to "turn the other cheek." *	1	2	3	4	5
19	To have a desire for vengeance would make me feel ashamed. *	1	2	3	4	5
20	Revenge is sweet.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Multicollinearity test

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	PA_COMP	.916	1.092
	NA_COMP	.902	1.108
	SC_COMP	.833	1.201

a. Dependent Variable: ANG_COMP

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	O_COMP	.670	1.493
	C_COMP	.537	1.862
	E_COMP	.940	1.063
	A_COMP	.579	1.727
	N_COMP	.005	199.458
	ATR_COMP	.005	197.723

a Dependent Variable: DBI_COMP

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	O_COMP	.670	1.493
	C_COMP	.537	1.862
	E_COMP	.940	1.063
	A_COMP	.579	1.727
	N_COMP	.005	199.458
	ATR_COMP	.005	197.723

a Dependent Variable: DBO_COMP

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	O_COMP	.676	1 480
	C_COMP	.546	1.832
	E_COMP	.942	1.061
	A_COMP	.581	1.721
	N_COMP	.607	1.648

a Dependent Variable: DBO_COMP

Coefficients[a]

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	ATR_COMP	.515	1.940
	SC_COMP	.799	1.251
	PA_COMP	.914	1.094
	NA_COMP	.534	1.873

a. Dependent Variable: ANG_COMP

APPENDIX C

Skewness and Kurtosis distribution

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
DJ	-.983	1.433
PJ	-1.299	1.516
IJ	-.541	.114
ANG	-1.384	2.435
DBI	-1.598	2.917
DBO	-1.312	2.224
O	-.038	-.595
C	.105	-.556
E	.360	-1.255
A	-.181	.116
N	-.501	-.427
PA	.079	-.626
NA	-.250	.735
ATR	-.543	-.348
SC	.857	.076

DJ=distributive injustice; PJ=procedural injustice; IJ=interactional injustice; ANG=anger; DBI=deviant behaviors directed towards individuals; DBO=deviant behaviors directed towards organizations; O=openness to experience; C=conscientiousness; E=extraversion; A=agreeableness; N=neuroticism; PA=positive affectivity; NA=negative affectivity; ATR=attitude towards revenge and SC=self-control.

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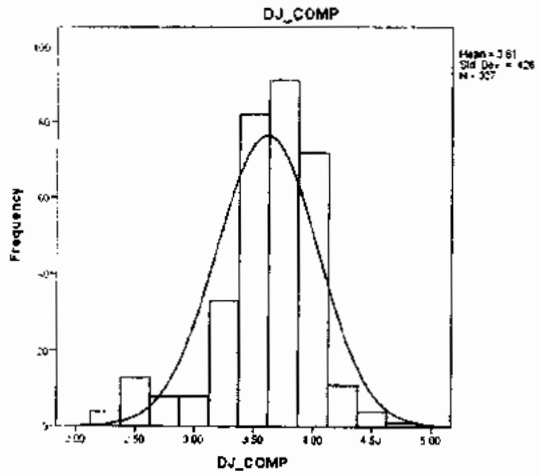

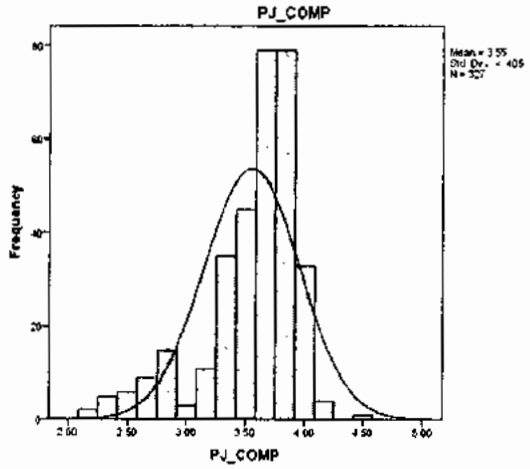

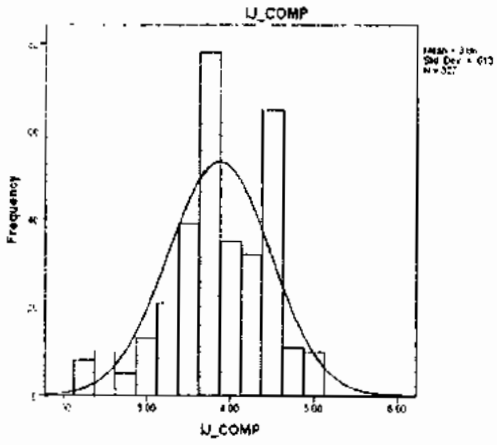
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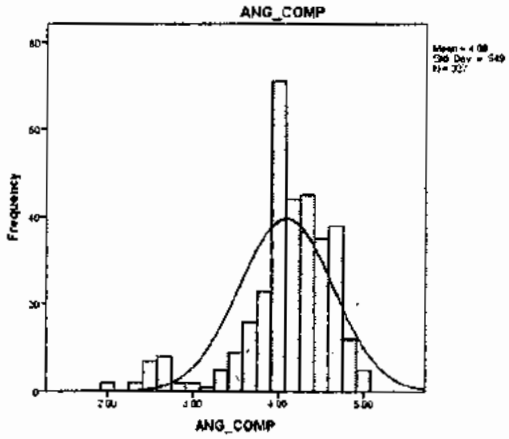
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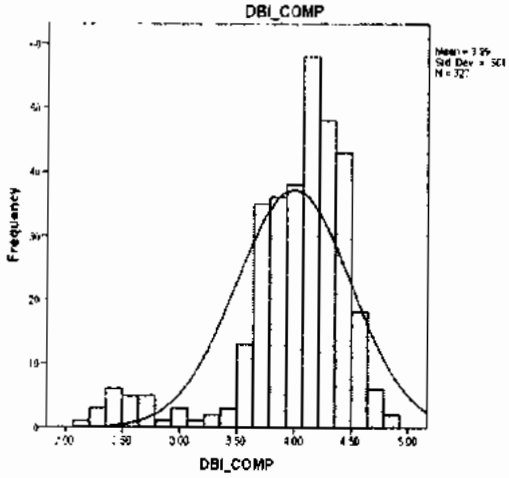
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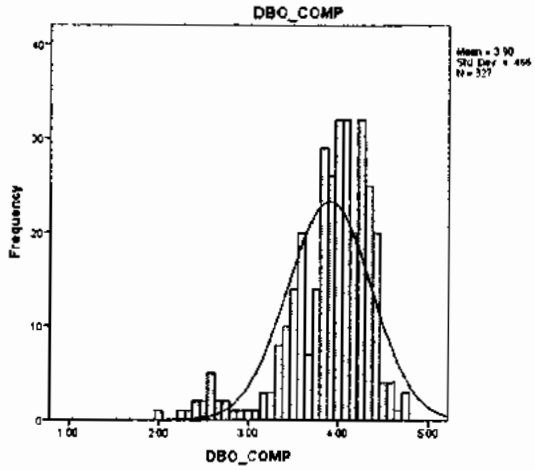
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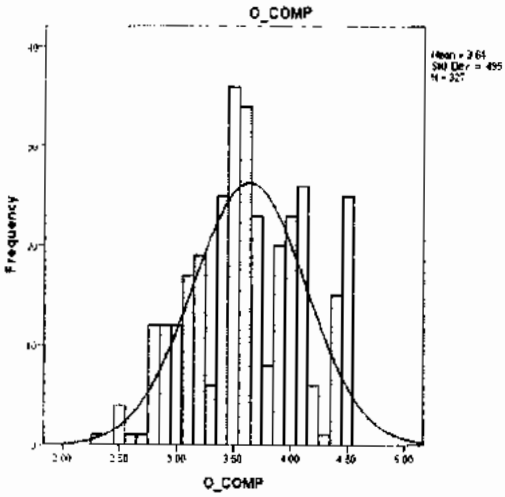
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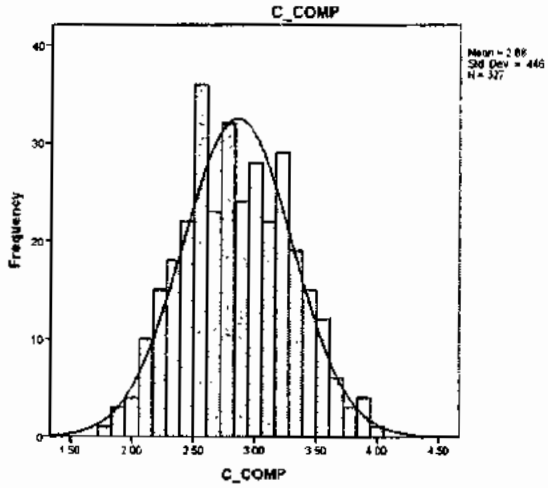
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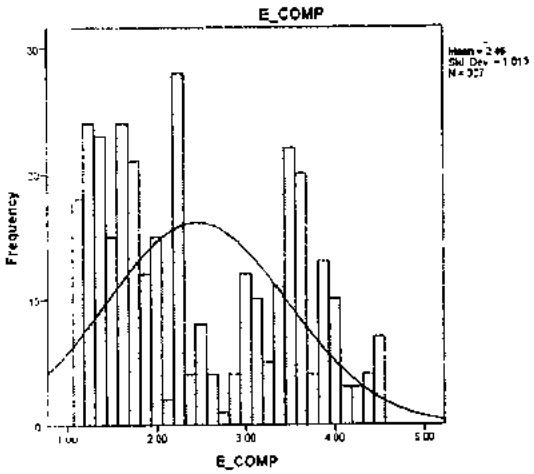
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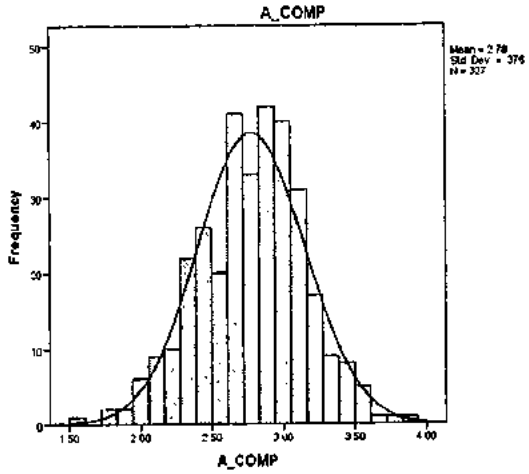
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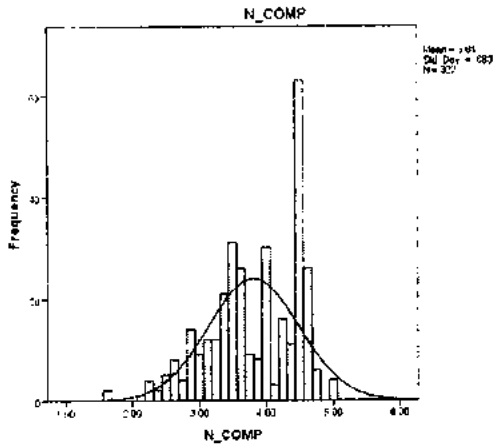
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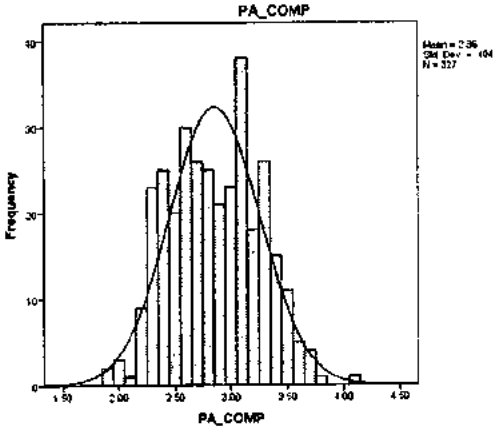
Frequency
N_COMP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Frequency
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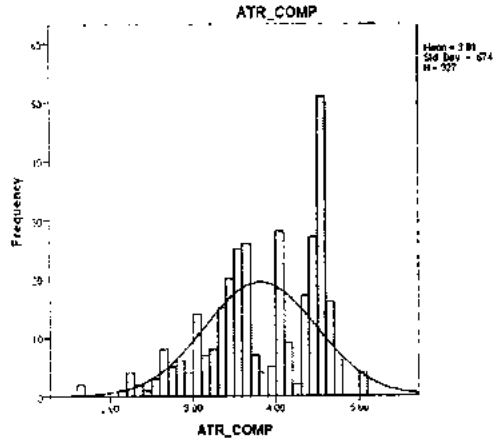
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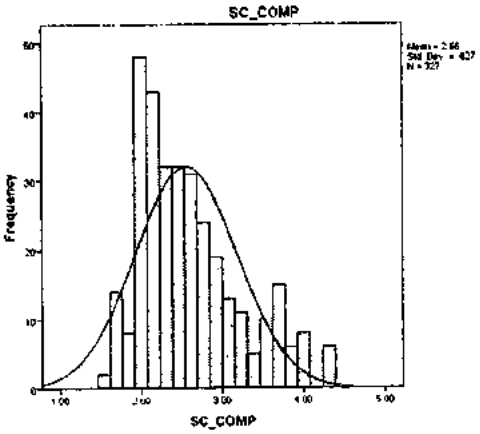
Frequency
ATR_COMP


SC_COMP
Frequency
SC_COMP