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**UNFAIRNESS AND STRESS AT WORK: AN EXAMINATION OF TWO
COMPETING APPROACHES – ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND
EFFORT REWARD IMBALANCE**

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I dedicate this thesis to my family, brothers and sisters who always kept on praying for me, especially Ami and Baba to whom I am grateful for whatever I am today!

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ABSTRACT

The present research is devoted to investigating the relationship between work stressor and strain (the outcome of stress). Stressors are viewed as situational factors (e.g., workload demands, present in the environment) or sources of work stress, however, the strain is individuals' reactions (strain) or outcome of stress (Karasek, 1979). Situational factors provoke stress that leads to potentially harmful reactions of individuals, in terms of poor psychological and physical health employees' dissatisfaction as well as intention to quit (Shields, Toussaint, Dorn, & Slavich, 2014). Therefore, past several decades, work stress has been a topic of interest to scholars in various fields of study, including, epidemiology, sociology, clinical and organizational psychology. In this research, unfairness is considered as a situational factor that may serve as a stressor and can have a negative impact on employees' stress outcomes. However, building upon the fairness and stress literature, we found two competing approaches such as (1) organizational justice and (2) effort-reward imbalance, to examine the unfairness and its relationship with stress outcomes. This research included both fairness approaches: organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance in examining stress outcomes. In doing so, we may able to to compare these theoretical farmeworks in explaining unfairness at the workplace and its influence on stress outcomes across two countries (Pakistan & France). As evident from prior research that individuals may react differently in response to the unfair event at the workplace. Nevertheless, the question remained that why individuals respond differently in response to the unfair event. Accordingly, based on individuals' differences constructs that may influence the relationship between unfairness and outcomes, this research includes two moderating variables: personal human values and equity sensitivity to better understand that why individuals respond differently.

A quantitative cross-sectional survey design was used to collect the data from Pakistan (education, health, and energy sector) and France (Education sector) to test the study hypotheses. A total 824 respondents filled the survey questionnaires with the segregation of Pakistan ($N = 583$) and France ($N = 241$). Confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the measurement model while hierarchical regression analysis was used to test the hypothesized relationships. The results of statistical analysis of this study demonstrate that organizational justice was negatively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees' in role behavior.

Similarly, the effort-reward imbalance was positively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas negatively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees' in role behavior as predicted. In addition to a traditional measure of unfairness i.e. organizational justice (judgmental), we intended to examine unfairness using effort-reward imbalance which is less subjective measure. Moreover, the results have also demonstrated the moderating effects of personal human values (self-enhancement and self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity between organizational justice and stress outcomes in both samples. Our study results also exhibited that personal human values and equity sensitivity have shown relatively less moderating role between effort-reward imbalance and outcomes constructs. However, ***β-coefficients, R-squared, and F-squared*** values have exhibited that relatively organizational justice approach has shown stronger predictive power over the effort-reward imbalance in examining stress outcomes specifically Pakistani sample. On the other hand, interestingly effort-reward imbalance approach has shown stronger predictive power in examining negative outcomes such as job-burnout and turnover intention in French sample. Contribution towards the existing literature, managerial implications, and future research was also discussed in their respective sections of this dissertation.

Keyword: *Unfairness, Work Stress, Organizational Justice, Effort-Reward Imbalance, Job-Burnout, Turnover Intention, Organizational Commitment, Employees' Performance, Employees' in Role Behaviors, Personal Human Values, Equity Sensitivity, Pakistan, France, Structural Equation Modeling, Hierarchical Regression.*

Résumé en Français

La présente recherche est consacrée à l'étude de la relation entre les facteurs et manifestations de stress au travail. Les contraintes sont considérées comme des facteurs situationnels (p. ex., Les exigences de la charge de travail présentes dans l'environnement) ou des sources de stress au travail. La tension « *strain* » est la réaction des individus ou l'issue de stress (Karasek, 1979). Les facteurs de stress provoquent des réactions potentiellement néfastes chez les individus, en termes d'insatisfaction des employés, de santé physique et psychologique et de l'intention de quitter l'entreprise (Toussaint, Shields, Dorn et Slavich, 2014). Par conséquent, au cours des dernières décennies, le stress au travail retient l'intérêt des chercheurs et des praticiens. Dans cette recherche, l'injustice est considérée comme un facteur de stress qui peut avoir un effet négatif sur les comportements des employés. Pour l'étudier nous utilisons deux approches concurrentes : (1) la justice organisationnelle et (2) le déséquilibre effort-récompense. Cette thèse permet de comparer deux approches dominantes pour expliquer l'injustice au travail « *unfairness* » en tant que facteur de stress et son influence sur les manifestations de stress dans deux pays (le Pakistan et la France). Comme il ressort d'études antérieures, les individus peuvent réagir différemment en réponse aux situations déloyales sur le lieu de travail. Néanmoins, la question reste à approfondir notamment pour identifier des régularités et des différences suivant les contextes culturels. Dans cette relation entre l'injustice (comme facteur de stress) et les manifestations de stress, nous pensons que des variables individuelles telles que les valeurs (au sens de Schwartz, 1992) et la sensibilité à l'équilibre jouent le rôle de modérateurs.

Les données ont été collectées au Pakistan (n=583) et en France (n=241) pour tester les hypothèses, soit un total de 824 répondants. Une analyse factorielle confirmatoire a été utilisée pour tester le modèle de mesure tandis des régressions hiérarchiques ont été utilisées pour tester les hypothèses. Les résultats de l'analyse statique de cette recherche démontrent que la justice organisationnelle est négativement liée à l'épuisement professionnel et à différentes formes de performance. De même, le déséquilibre effort-récompense est positivement lié à l'engagement organisationnel, au rendement des employés et à l'intention de « *turn over* ». A côté de la mesure désormais classique de l'injustice à travers le concept de la justice organisationnelle, nous avons voulu utiliser le déséquilibre effort-récompense qui est moins subjectif. Les résultats ont également démontré les effets modérateurs des valeurs humaines personnelles et la sensibilité à l'équité entre la justice organisationnelle et les manifestations de stress dans les

deux échantillons. Les résultats de notre étude ont également montré que les valeurs humaines personnelles et la sensibilité à l'équité ont montré des effets relativement moins modérateurs entre le déséquilibre effort-récompense et les manifestations de stress. Cependant, les valeurs des B-coefficients, R-carré et F-carré ont mis en exergue que la justice organisationnelle a un pouvoir prédictif plus fort que le déséquilibre effort-récompense pour l'échantillon pakistanais. Par ailleurs, le déséquilibre effort-récompense a le pouvoir prédictif le plus fort sur l'épuisement professionnel et l'intention de « *turnover* » dans l'échantillon français. La contribution à la littérature existante, les implications managériales et les recherches futures sont également discutées.

Mots-clés: Injustice, Stress professionnel, Justice organisationnelle, Déséquilibre effort-récompense, Engagement organisationnel, Performance des employés, Régression hiérarchique.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AMOS	Analysis of a Moment Structures
ASV	Average Squared Variance
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CMB	Common Method Biased
CMV	Common Method Variance
CR	Construct Reliability
DJ	Distributive Justice
DV	Dependent Variable
EEF	Employee Effort
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EIRB	Employee in Role Behavior
EMPS	Employees' Performance
ERI	Effort-Reward Imbalance
ES	Equity Sensitivity
FA	Factor Analysis
HMR	Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis
Inf. J	Informational Justice
Int. J	Interpersonal Justice
IV	Independent Variable
JBO	Job-Burnout
M	Mean
MI	Modification Indices
MSV	Maximum Shared Squared Variance
MV	Moderating Variable
OC	Organizational Commitment
OJ	Organizational Justice
ORE	Organizational Reward
PHV	Personal Human Values
PJ	Procedural Justice
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SD	Standard Deviation
SE	Standard Error
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SEN	Self-Enhancement
SET	Self-Transcendence
Sig	Significant
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
TOI	Turnover Intension
VC	(Validity Convergent) Convergent Validity
VIF	variance inflation factor

General Introduction

Background and Research Problem

That's not fair is a general complaint that willingly trips off the tongue whether the speaker is young or old. Every one of us is very much concerned about fairness not only in our personal lives but also in professional work settings vice versa. Employees' complaints regarding over pay structures, discrimination, and unequal appreciation are the common management's challenges. Organizations have been struggling to find ways how to deal with the fairness issues and consider it as their business counterparts. Taken the dark side of this concept, employees who were closely associated with the managers tend to be preferential treatment than who had not such close association with their managers. Therefore, unfair practices of the managers can induce the negative feelings among organizational members.

For instance, unfair treatment of managers leads to the lower level of self-esteem (e.g. De Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Mullenders, & Stinglhamber, 2005) suggesting that being treated unfairly does indeed threaten one's social self. Contrarily, fair practices of managers motivate employees to display a positive behavior, in terms of cooperative behaviors, helping their coworkers and supervisors, speaking up to improve the way in which work is organized. Such positive behaviors ultimately contribute to organizational performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009; Dijke, De Cremer, Brebels, & Quaakebeke, 2015). Accordingly, existing research provides convincing evidence that fairness perceptions explicate exclusive variations in organizational attitude and behaviors (Greenberg, 1987; Cohen & Spector, 2001).

For example, meta-analytic studies provide support in indicating the links between employees' fairness perceptions and various potential outcome variables including organizational commitment, task performance, citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Rupp, 2014). Further, in a seminal study Siegrist (1996) has drawn readers' attention towards the importance of social reciprocity and contractual fairness in employment (Siegrist, 2016). A perception of unfairness comes up when high efforts (work assignment, job target) of individuals' work does not match with equal rewards (e.g., money, career growth or support) and this lack of reciprocity induces emotional distress and strain reactions. For example, based on the premise of social reciprocity, if there is an imbalance between employees' perceptions regarding their effort (demands and obligations) and rewards (in terms of money, recognition, and job security) this mismatch leads to stress (Siegrist, 2004, 2008; Martinez & Fischer, 2015). Therefore, this research considered unfairness as a work stressor that has deleterious effects for organizational members.

On the other hand, employees' well-being is anticipated to depend on fairness between employees' efforts spent at work and rewards received from the organization. In case, employees' high efforts at work do not equalize the rewards received from the organization, this imbalance resulting in major risk factor in reducing well-being (for a review see Van Vegchel, de Jonge, Bosma, & Schaufeli, 2005). Although, unfairness can be seen in every type of organization but the perceptions of employees regarding unfair treatment may vary from one organization to another organization. Arguably, this notion internationally sustained its significance regardless of cultural differences (income, status). Scholars even go further and highlighted the strong links of unfairness with the moral and ethics, therefore, it is globally recognized (Pierre & Holmes, 2010). However, there is a rising evidence that perceived unfairness is a major issue of the psychological and physical health of organizational members and therefore, required to be studied (Elovainio, Leino-Arjas, Vahtera, & Kivimaki, 2006; Robbins, Ford, & Tetrack, 2012).

GI.1 Workplace Stress

Today there are many challenges such as progress in technology, globalization, the haziness of organizational boundaries and hypercompetitive business environment has generated more tumultuous and impulsive organizational settings than ever before (Parry & Proctor-

Thompson, 2003; Frazier, Fainshmidt, Klinger, Pezeshkan, & Vranceva, 2017). Since, global economy flatterer more competitive and deregulation of labor markets have forced organizations to undertake restructuring activities that affect the employee-employer relations (Kotabe, Dubinsky, & Chae, 1992; Conner, 2003; Emberland & Rundmo, 2010). Along these lines, understanding of employees' fairness perceptions has become even more critical for organizations. Further, work activities are becoming more automated and stubborn, and employees have less control over their job as well as workload is increasing regularly (Westwood, Sparrow, & Leung, 2001; Faragher, Cass, & Cooper, 2005). Organizations are now reluctant to offer permanent jobs rather increasing the trend of short term contracts or outsourcing that leads to increases in employees' job insecurity (Shannon et al., 2001) that ultimately induces stress. With that said, work stress has been proving to be a serious concern for employees' health and well-being, (e.g., Cooper, Lawson, & Price, 1986; Thorsteinsson, Brown, & Richards, 2014), organizational productivity and business competitiveness (e.g., Magnavita & Garbarino, 2013; Xiang, Coleman, Johannsson, & Bates, 2014; Andrisano-Ruggieri, Capunzo, Crescenzo, Savastano, Truda, De Caro, & Boccia, 2016).

Issues will always be a part of individuals' existence because generally, individuals spend a major portion of their daily time at the workplace. Whereas, work stress is known worldwide as the main challenge to workers' health and the well-being of their organizations (see Burke & Cooper, 2000). Many research studies reveal that work-stress is far and away the main source of stress for American adults and that has increased over the past few decades. Further, stress has become one of the main health problems, and it is assessed by the American Institute for Stress (AIS) that 75% to 90% of visits to the doctors were reported stress-related problems. Likewise, (28%) of the European's workers reported the major causes of stress is work related issues and in Japan, this percentage is recorded even higher (Levi & Lund-Jensen, 1996).

In addition, individuals who experience work stress are more prone to health problems and their related costs (see Dbaiibo, Harb, & van Meurs, 2010). Owing to a global concern of work-stress, managers and practitioners are striving to find ways to minimize it, yet, the percentage work stress has increased surprisingly over the last few years. For instance, a recent poll survey (2010) reported that workplace stress levels throughout the globe have remained high during past few years. According to a survey by business consultancy, half of working individuals globally reported more stressed than 18-months ago. Polled survey of 16000

professionals internationally pointed out that (59%) professionals blamed that major causes of stress are job-related issues rather than personal, however, (44%) related to personal finances and (37%) dealing with customers. Mainland China identified a large number of stressed professionals with (75%) reported a rise in stress levels and (25%) higher than the global average. Chinese professional identify that time management, career development, and organizational directions are the main drivers of their stress. In Hong Kong professionals reported (55%) rise in stress levels in 18 months just as, in German (58%) of professional experienced increased stress levels. Conversely, work stress of employees has become a topic of interest for both occupational researchers and press, for example, according to Pakistan-Today (2013), workplace stress is a major cause of an individual's stress, as one of three persons (34%) reported that work life is quite stressful. In addition, a survey of more than 2000 people demonstrated that the major causes of workplace stress are because of poor management and that work was viewed as more stressful than other issues such as financial (30%) or health (17%) problems.

However, one of the major cause of stress is over workload, one of fourth (26%) person, followed closely by lack of support from managers (25%) and impractical goals (25%). These stressful situations influence employees' outcomes, for example, one of five employees (19%) took a day off sick due to stress (22%) revealed the mental health problem and some of them do not discuss with their boss about their stress. Since excessive stress has been associated with health and psychological issues, at the same time, it is a great challenge for the organizations to be a loss in productivity as stressful employees are more likely to be physical and mental health issues. Considering the work environment as a source of employees' stress, this research had a major influence on the starting point and one of the main objective of this research, as well as how these could be a potential contribution to work-stress literature.

GI.2 Towards a Multi-Foci Approach to Unfairness

As we discussed above, that the phenomenon of work–stress has become more challenging for work organizations over the last few decades and therefore has been of interest to practitioner and researchers for many years. A growing body of research is striving to indicate the causes of workplace stress (stressors), its association with individuals' physical, psychological and behavioral outcomes (strain) as well as coping strategies to reduce stress. With that said, scholars and practitioner have verified the connections between stressors and

strain and its far-reaching effects on a variety of job outcomes. For example, work stressors suchlike role conflict, role ambiguity, and less control and authority at job tend to be related to psychological strains (e.g., job-burnout, psychosomatic complaints) physiological (e.g., blood pressure, heart rate) and behavioral (e.g., absenteeism, turnover) outcomes (e.g., Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Fried, Rowland, & Ferris, 1984; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Shirom, 1989). Alongside, many researchers have argued that personal and work stress eventually affect the individuals' health and well-being (e.g., Kasl, 1984; Fletcher, 1993; Thorsteinsson et al., 2014; Jetha, Kernan, & Kurowski, 2017).

Work stress originates from the different sources; however, several scholars explain sources of stress (stressors) and responses (outcomes of stress) of these sources. For instance, behavior settings, tasks, conflict, and ambiguities, as well as distinctiveness of the “person system” (McGrath, 1976), high job demands or responsibilities beyond their job roles, lack of participation, transfer to an unwanted place, number of hours worked, career ambiguities, skill underutilization and physical environment (e.g., Caplan, Cobb, French, Van Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975; Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Beehr & Newman, 1978; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980; Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988; Le Blanc, Jonge, & Schaufeli, 2008). More recently, Henseke (2017) stated that job quality can significantly affect the employees' health. However, several scholars endorsed that work stressors (e.g., working environments, relationships with others, job characteristics) has deleterious effects on employees' job performance, low job satisfaction, and even higher risks of family problems including divorce, physical and psychological health issues (e.g., Woodruff, 1993; Lambert & Paoline, 2008; Le Blanc, et al., 2008; Salami, Ojokuku, & Salami, 2010). As the sources of organizational stress (stressors) generally co-vary with each other (Vermunt & Steensma, 2001) and as we have discussed above, that individuals face a number of stressors in their personal and working life, and these stressors can have detrimental effects on employees' well-being. Taken this perspective, the current research considered fairness based approaches that shed light on sources of stress and its association with outcomes of stress.

Occupational scholars have offered a number of guidelines on producing, examining, and extending research involving unfair treatment in organizational settings, and therefore, has become an important field of research in organizational behavior and psychology (Chia, Foo, & Fang, 2006; Lenzi, Vieno, Gini, Pozzoli, Pastore, Santinello, & Elgar, 2014; Jung, Brown, & Zablah, 2017). The literature on fairness shows that individuals treat favorably to whom they

have good relationships as compare to those with whom they do not have good relationships (favoritism). However, this theme is supported by a meta-analysis (Mullen, Brown, & Smith, 1992) which found that individual tend to see the in-group in more positive terms than the out-group.

Employees expect that their managers do not treat them fairly in terms of distribution of rewards through fair procedures, and if their expectations do not match with actual outcomes they may prone to negative behavior (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). The issue of fairness prevails in many realms of life (Colquitt, 2015) indeed, it is the critical function of the state to ensure the fairness in the organizations. Despite, several measures have been taken by the regulatory bodies to assure the fairness at work, yet, they perceive that their managers do not treat them fairly. If they put extra efforts towards their organizations, constantly perform for the better outcomes comparing others, as a result their perceptions must be higher in terms of financial rewards (Adams, 1965).

Considering the fairness perceptions, a model such as organizational justice is generally based on the theories of equity (Adams, 1963) and social exchange (Blau, 1964). Organizational justice (OJ) approach emphasizes on employees' perceptions of unfairness in resource allocation (distributive justice), decision making process (procedural justice) and interpersonal treatment (interactional & informational justice) within a workplace (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005). When employees perceive that their managers treat them fairly, they seem more likely to demonstrate positive work attitudes and behaviors at the workplace (Cohen-Charash, & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). In case, employees perceive that they have not been treated fairly at workplace, such unfair conditions will negatively affect employees' well-being and generate negative feelings of stress such as anger, resentment and retaliatory behaviors (Chen, & Spector, 1992; Nabatchi, Bingham, & Good, 2007; Cropanzano, & Wright, 2011; Priesemuth, Arnaud, & Schminke, 2013).

On the other hand, based on the equity theory, Siegrist's approach of effort-reward imbalance (ERI) is founded upon the concept of contractual reciprocity (Siegrist & Marmot, 1996; Siegrist, J., Starke, D., Chandola, T., Godin, I., Marmot, M., & Niedhammer I. 2004; Van Vegchel et al., 2005). The Effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model focuses on the concept of non-reciprocity between employees' effort (e.g., extrinsic job demands & intrinsic motivation to meet these demands) and reward (in terms of salary, esteem reward, and

security/career opportunities i.e. promotion prospects, job security and status consistency) received in the workplace settings (Siegrist et al., 2004; Head, Kivimäki, Siegrist, Ferrie, Vahtera, Shipley & Marmot, 2007). When efforts are insufficiently reciprocated between effort and reward will lead to arousal and stress which, in turn, may resulting in emotional distress and adverse health effects (Siegrist et al., 2004; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Siegrist, 2008).

Scholars have found that a large number of studies have examined differential effects of unfairness on a variety of job outcomes (see Colquitt, Greenberg, & Zapata-Phelan, 2005; Holtz, 2015). Unfairness is a term rooted in the notion of moral rightness, laws, ethics and religion thus, it differs across culture. A review of fairness literature shows that most of the fairness related theories such as equity theory (Adams, 1963), procedural fairness theory (Thibaut, & Walker, 1975), interactional fairness (Bies & Moag, 1986), and informational fairness (Colquitt, 2001) have developed and tested in the United States. Along with the other scholars, Kashima, Siegal, Tanaka, and Isaka, (1988), Zhang and Yang (1998), stated that much research has been carried out on this concept that how fairness theories do work outside the US culture. However, different arguments of various scholars highlighted the variabilities in relationship of fairness perceptions and various job outcomes concerning cross-cultural perspectives is still unclear (e.g., Colquitt Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003; Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki, & Jones, 2013; Khan, Abbas, Gul, & Raja, 2015) which is required to be extended beyond the borders of US and Western countries.

As an element of social interactions in general, scholars have suggested that culture is a main factor in choices individuals make as to how interactions occur (Fiske, 1991). Accordingly, the results of a meta-analysis (Fischer & Smith, 2003) showed that cultural samples may vary in their reward allocation and behaviors. Siegrist (2016) further endorsed that socio-cultural settings act as external constraints that may influence the preferences of individuals' evaluations where the probability of the desired goal depend on individuals' area and social circumstances. Accordingly, the theories established in a specific culture may not be applicable in other culture or society. On the other hand, Li and Cropanzano (2009) and Khan et al. (2015) argued that generalizability of this concept in North-America and Asian cultures remains unclear. Although much of research has been appeared to explain the dynamic role of fairness at work and its consequences, less attention has been accorded to understand about how the sociocultural context affects employees' fairness perceptions (Silva & Caetano, 2016). Therefore, aforementioned scholarly debate inspired us to examine employees' fairness

perceptions at work using two competing approaches organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance in two different countries: Pakistan and France that have quite distinct cultural values and norms to strengthen the theoretical models of fairness in Asian settings such as Pakistan. Previous research has also revealed that perceptions of fair dealing can influence the attitudes and behaviors of employees at the workplace (e.g., Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003). Taking this line of thought, and review of long lasting literature it has been found that *employees react differently in response to the unfair treatment at the workplace, why?* is still required to be researched.

GI.3 Research Gaps

The idea of fairness is not a new phenomenon; it can be seen dates back which is engendered in the fabric of mankind (Sandel, 2009). The concept of fairness commonly can be seen in the Bible, Quran, and Hammurabi's codes to address the issues of fairness (Folger, & Cropanzano, 1998). Whereas, the fairness has a central position in moral and political philosophy and Anglo-American, France as well as Germany. In general, all we know that fairness is very important for not only in our personal lives but also has been a considered as a serious problem of our work life. Therefore, in organizational settings fairness is an essential part in order keep organizational environment to be more productive and problem free.

Further, fairness perceptions are, however, not limited to our personal interactions with others, yet these perceptions strongly influence the behaviors of employees at work. For instance, employees' deviant behavior is influenced by the perceived fairness of organizations' policies (Greenberg, 1990). Synthesis of a huge body of research has warranted the importance of fairness at work (Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon, & Wesson, 2013). Besides, Lambert and Paoline, (2008) has considered unfairness as an indicator of job-related hardness, distress, worry, anxiety, tension frustration and exhaustion. Despite, accumulating evidence indicated harm caused by unfairness, unfortunately, very few studies to date have emphasized on factors which may reduce the negative effects of unfairness (Scott, Colquitt, & Paddock, 2009; Houwelingen, Dijke, & De Cremer, 2014).

In order to fill the void in the existing literature, this research is dedicated to emphasizing on unfairness at work that may play a critical role in inducing stress (work outcomes). However despite, several approaches have been emerged during the past few decades, include organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance, (Siegrist, 1991; Colquitt,

2001) in examining the global perspective of unfairness at work and its consequences. The scholars have included these two competing approaches based on several compelling reasons for investigating fairness-outcome relations. For example, both approaches: justice (equity in the distribution of rewards) and effort-reward imbalance (reciprocity between efforts and rewards) cover the broader spectrum of fairness at the workplace. Recent research studies have indicated that, beyond the other stress frameworks such as job-demand control model (Karasek, 1979) and effort-reward imbalance (Siegrist, 1996). Organizational justice approach is relatively novel that has recently been introduced to balance psychosocial determinants of employees' health and wellbeing (Bourbonnais, 2007; Inoue, Kawakami, Ishizaki, Shimazu, Tsuchiya, Tabata, & Kuroda, 2010).

Arguably, both organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance have been used to consistently predict health-related outcomes in numerous organizational settings (Colquitt et al., 2001; Siegrist et al., 2004; Loerbroks, Meng, Chen, Herr, Angerer, & Li, 2014). Accordingly, both approaches focus on the nature of the exchanges between employee-employer relations. Grounded upon social exchange theory, the concept of organizational justice is generally defined as the quality of social interaction among organizational members (Greenberg, 1990; Konovsky, 2000). Organizational justice focuses on the perceptions of fairness experienced by organizational personnel (Greenberg, 1990). Likewise, effort-reward imbalance model is based on the concept of social reciprocity, claiming that individual's behavior with others is influenced by the costs and gains of social exchanges (Siegrist, Weber, 1986; Siegrist 1996). More specifically, effort-reward imbalance posits the idea of reciprocity between employees' work-related assignments and rewards received (Siegrist et al., 2004). Additionally, effort-reward imbalance model focuses on reward, rather than the control structure of work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Considering the deleterious effects of work-related stress on employees' well-being it is required to be further investigated to gain a better understanding of the relationship between workplace unfairness and employees' stress.

Organizational justice refers that individuals' perception regarding the fairness of organization, in terms of distribution of rewards, fair procedures and unbiased interactions with subordinates etc. (1987, 1990) and within this literature the terms justice and fairness are often have been used interchangeably (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Holtz, 2015). More precisely, distributive justice reflects the fairness of decision outcomes, and individuals' perceptions, whether the perceived ratio of outcomes to inputs matches those of a comparing others (Adams,

1965; Colquitt & Rodell, 2011). In the same way, effort-reward imbalance (Siegrist, 1996) lays emphasis on reciprocity between efforts (efforts spent at work) and rewards (organizational rewards in turn for employees' efforts). To recap, both models predict that employees experiencing unfairness (i.e., inequity in the distribution of rewards, discrimination in following the procedures for allocation of rewards, inequality in interactions with subordinates and unfairness in the dissemination of information) at work simultaneously, have an increased risk for inducing of job strain. Based on equity theory, employees perceive fairness in their efforts and rewards, and in the case of these expectations are violated they may experience negative feelings (Barclay et al., 2005). In other words, unfairness at work can lead to both job strain and decreases employees' well-being.

Further, the question always remained that if a group of employees faces similar an unfair event at work yet, their outcomes are different. Similar to an example, an unfair event faced by three employees (X, Y, and Z) but their reactions may vary from one another: employee 'X' faced an unfair event and counters in the form of backstabbing to his coworkers, abusing with the supervisors, theft of time and office material, damaging organization's assets and as a final reaction to the withdrawal. Employee 'Y' may reduce his performance; loses trust in management, low job satisfaction, and commitment. Correspondingly, the third one, employee 'Z' may react in the form of job-burnout, absenteeism or intent to quit. (see fig-1). Employees' responses illustrated above have been well documented in the literature on organizational fairness (see Colquitt et al., 2005).

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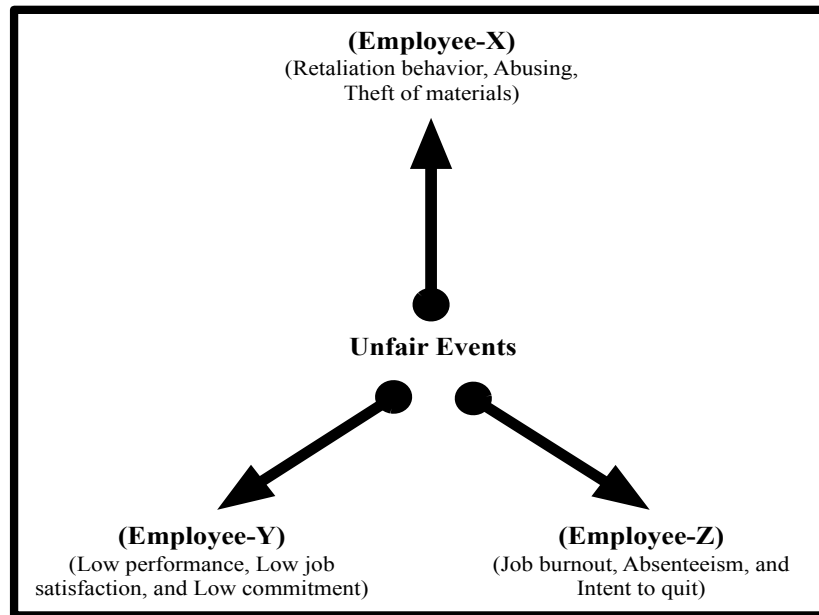


Figure 1: Dissimilar Outcomes in Response to Unfair Event

Similarly, work related stress research also specifies that all individuals do not respond in a similar fashion to the stressors (e.g., Marmot, Siegrist, Theorell, & Feeney, 1999; Sonnentag & Frese, 2003; Quick, Cooper, Nelson, Quick, & Gavin, 2003), these *dissimilar behaviors of employees compel to conduct more research to know about individuals' differences in terms of responding unfair event*. Particularly, the similar stressors can influence different individuals to different degrees; such different degree of amount suggests that several reasons may throw in for protecting employees from the harmful effects produced by stressors. For further moving in this context it is essential to make a string by taking the famous lines of Shakespeare's in his book *Hamlet*:

“There is nothing good or bad but the thinking makes it so”

(Act II Scene2, Line 259)

Thousands of years back a Greek Stoic philosopher Epiktet stated in a similar way, it is not the things themselves, but individuals' evaluations about things that trouble for them. Typically, scholars have been used individual differences variables as either mediators or moderator in studying stressors and strain relationship (Cox & Ferguson, 1991). However, in work stress phenomenon, Lazarus (1991, 1999) stated that stress results not only from objective work conditions, but also from employees' individual appraisal of their work environment (e.g., Elliott, Chartrand, & Harkins, 1994). Since employees face stressful situations, however, based

on their personal evaluation, some employees use coping strategies deal with the stressful situations, yet, many others may unable to deal with those situations.

For many years, a considerable research efforts have identified individual differences variables, specifically, personal characteristics associated with work outcomes (Stobbeleir, Ashford, & Buyens, 2011). For example, Shalley, Zhou and Oldham (2004) stated that individual and contextual factors facilitate and hinder employees' creative performance at work. In the same vein, relevant to our study constructs, scholar has suggested that personal and contextual factors may influence the perceptions of fairness and its consequences (Colquitt, Scott, Judge, & Shaw, 2006; Scott & Colquitt, 2007). Therefore, we anticipate that incorporating individuals' differences variables (such as personal human values-Schwartz, 1992; 1996 and equity sensitivity-Huseman, 1985; 1987) has the potential to increase our understanding that: ***why individuals respond differently to the unfair event?***

Considering the prospect of personal values, we discuss that, employees may influence the organization and be influenced by the organization through the manifestations of their value system. For instance, sometimes policies and the procedures of an organization may undergo a drastic change due to the change of its top management. Some of the managers might be assertive and authoritative whereas the others more democratic and participative in decision making. Similarly, some of the workers might be dedicated to their work whereas the others may prefer cheating while performing their duties. It may depend on their values they have learned and adhered to particularly with respect to their expectations from others, be it an organization or a person, and performing their own duties and obligations to others. Similarly, Rockeche (1973) stated that values as a kind of belief and people use values a guideline for ethical decision making.

It is the human values that may serve as a framework for evaluating the organizational fairness within the context of they expect from their organization and which have been actually delivered to them. The extent of discrepancy in the expected and actually perceived fairness may influence the level of their job satisfaction and their performance. In a way, the personal values play a moderating role in influencing the job performance of the employees having implications on the achievement of the organizational goals. Accordingly, values are assumed to be predictors or moderator of organizational processes and criteria (Cohen, 2010).

Individuals may also vary regarding their preferences for specific outcome-input ratios. Taken this perspective, Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles, (1987) proposed a concept of equity

sensitivity to increase our understandings regarding employees' behavior at the workplace. For example, some employees might be more sensitive towards both inputs and outputs and any discrepancy between the inputs/outputs ratios may fall their level of job satisfaction and stressed out reaction to the mismatch/discrepancy in both situations— if high rewards low input may feelings of guilt/shame on the other hand high input and low rewards may create the feeling of low commitment or job-burnout. In the same way, other employees may prefer to the outputs (rewards) and ignore inputs in other words lesser contribution towards organizational goals. So, individuals are classified along a continuum and these types of individuals: benevolent, equity sensitive, or entitled according to their individual sensitivity to equity as explained by Huseman (1985). Thus, individual's sensitivity may also act as an important contribution in shaping the link between unfair perceptions and its impact on stress outcomes. For example, past research shows that equity sensitivity moderates the relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behavior (Blakely, Andrews & Moorman, 2005; Woodley & Allen, 2014).

Arguably, studying the moderating role of the human values and individual's equity sensitivity of the employees in influencing their perceived discrepancy in fairness may have significant implications on the performance of an organization. Hence, it may fall within the domain of organizational behavior. Based on meta-analytic studies (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001) who supported the associations between fairness perceptions, we included five key outcome variables job-burnout (CBI: Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, & Christensen, 2005), intention to quit (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978), organizational commitment (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979), employee's performance (Tessema & Soeters, 2006) and employee's in role behavior (William & Anderson, 1991).

GI.4 Research Goals

Following the previous work, there are numbers of questions stick out as being predominantly important about the relationship between unfairness and stress outcomes. Therefore, we expanded our study, in two countries to investigate the consequences of unfair perceptions and individual differences on two different samples of employees. Accordingly, this research has offered a general model that depicts how unfairness can influence employees' experience of stress and strain (see Fig-2).

1. The first objective of this research is to investigate that perception of unfairness may induce feelings of stress that can have deleterious effects on employees' work outcomes. More specifically, we propose a model of employee's strain (the outcome of stress at work) in which we will strive to conceptualize an unfair event as a stressor associated with the range of employee's behaviors: job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees in role behavior.
2. Scholars have offered several approaches to understand the fairness at work, we attempt to explore the relationship between unfairness and stress outcomes by using two different fairness approaches: organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance. Our interest is not to only explain the components of fairness and its relations with the stress outcomes but also highlight the salient features of both approaches, that may be instructive to choose the appropriate measure for studying fairness at work.
3. We expand this research by comparing organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance in both countries to check which model has the stronger predictive power to examine stress outcomes. Indeed our aim is to provide an overview that may facilitate the researchers to strengthen the generalizability of both models of fairness across cultural.
4. Based on the arguments of Merton (1968) provided in a new book of Siegrist (2016) that socio-cultural conditions act as an external constraint against individuals' choices to achieve the desired goals. Therefore, to examine the regularities of these two competing approaches (organizational justice & effort-reward imbalance) in different cultural context, we conducted this research across two countries (Pakistan & France).
5. Considering the personal and contextual factors that may influence the relations between unfairness and outcomes, this research strives to examine the moderating role played by the human values (self-enhancement & self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity between both fairness approaches organizational justice, effort-reward imbalance, and employees' stress outcomes.
6. Specifically, these investigations focus on expanding the unfairness (stressor) and outcome relations by considering both situational factors in examining a wider range of situational variables as predictors by including both organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance. In addition, our research seeks to shed light on the potential moderating role of equity sensitivity and personal human values in such predictions. As we elaborate below,

examining these questions has potentially important implications for theoretical development and management practices regarding the stressor-stain relationship. In fact, 7. Previous research might pay only cursory attention in this domain so; this study will strive to open further layers.

GI.5 General Overview of the Conceptual Model & Research Questions

Following the certain criteria explained by Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), we made our research questions and strived to answers in this research.

To summarize, we intended to answer the following questions with a set of two internationally established unfairness theoretical models (see Figure-2).

1. As we use two different models to test unfairness at work, whether similar findings would emerge from and be generalizable to across two culturally very different samples and countries?
2. Considering a question remains that why employees react differently in response to the unfair event at work?
3. How do the individual differences (human values and equity sensitivity) change the relations between stressor (unfairness) strain (outcomes of stress)?

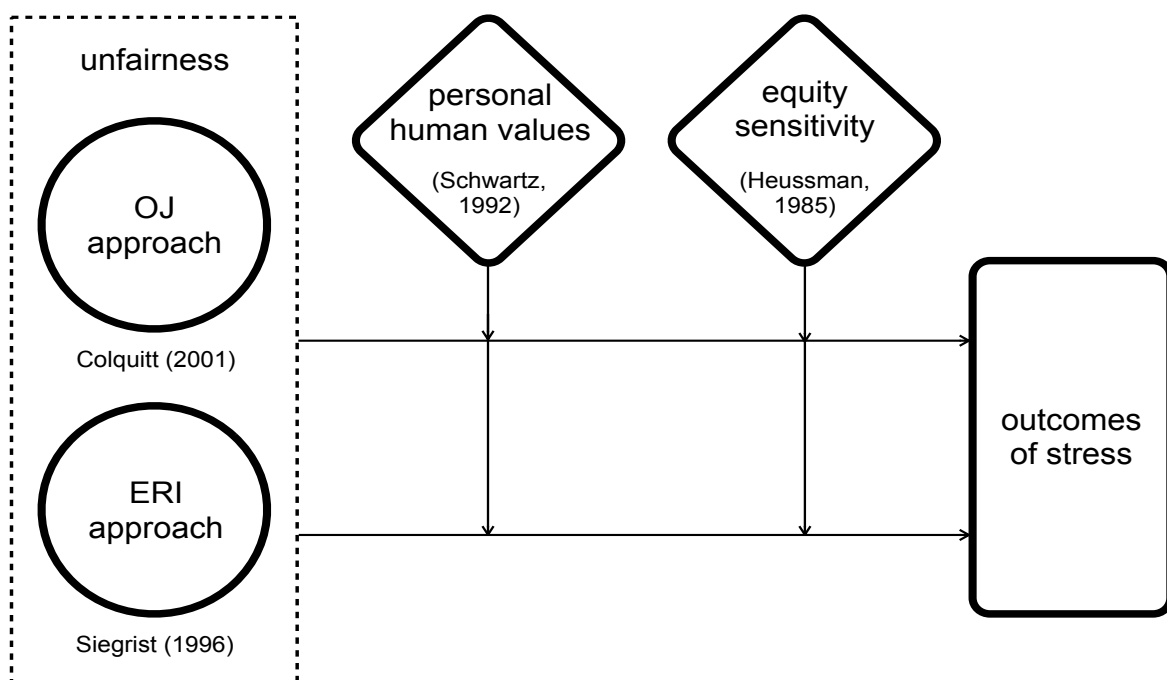


Figure 2: General Overview of Research Model

GI.6 Analytical Strategy

In this study, we collected data to investigate a pre-established framework rather than using theory to explain data. However, to investigate examine the hypothesized research model a quantitative approach have been used as detail given in chapter 4. Briefly, the cross-sectional self-report survey was used to measure the links among key concepts include in this research. Primary data ($N = 824$) were collected across three different sectors such as; education, health, and energy from lower middle and top level managers in Pakistan and France. To achieve these objectives, we applied multilevel analysis:

Primarily, measurement models in confirmatory factor analysis performed (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996) using AMOS-22. During the CFA, we deleted some items to stabilize the measurement models. After achieving a good model fit, we further performed the analysis to test study hypotheses. Using SPSS-22 reliability analysis, correlation analysis, measurement invariance and a test of hierarchical linear regressions (linear modeling: Bryk & Raudenbush, 1992) were performed to test the direct relationships between independent and dependent variables. The reason for using Linear modeling permits for dependent observations within the higher-level structure (Snijders & Bosker, 1999).

One of the major goals of this study is to investigate the moderating role of personal human values and equity sensitivity between the relationship of the stressor (unfairness)-strain (outcomes of stress). Accordingly, we performed hierarchical moderated regression analyses (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) to investigate the moderating role of personal human values and equity sensitivity on the unfairness (organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance) stress out outcomes of stress (job-burnout, turnover intention organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees' in role behavior) relationship. As our data were perceptual nature, therefore, we centered all the predictor variables to reduce possible concerns of multicollinearity, when testing interaction effects. All the control variables were in the first step to controlling their potential spurious effect. The main effect of each predictor was entered in step 2. In the second step, we entered all the main effects of moderating variables and the final step 4 considered of all interaction terms. A significant change in R^2 in the fourth step provide evidence of an interaction effect (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

Gl.7 Thesis Outline

In the current dissertation, two empirical studies (Pakistan, N = 583 and France, N = 241) proceed by delineating broader spectrum of unfairness that leads to the focus of organization's critical issue. With that said, this research follows a conceptual model that has theoretical and practical support to examine empirical validation. An overall plan and structural pattern of this dissertation are given in this section. The current dissertation will be structured into six chapters and each chapter will briefly have outlined as follows:

Chapter 1: In this chapter first we begin with the concept of work stress, sources of stress (stressor) next this discusses the history of unfairness (as a stressor) since its introduction by (Rawls, 1958; Adams' 1965; Walster et al., 1978) and evolutionary concepts of fairness in the light of dominant fairness theories. Second, we have provided a review of various stress frameworks which have widely been used in explaining stressor (unfairness: as a stressor) and strain (outcomes: stress indicators) relationships. Third, a review of individual differences variables such as: equity sensitivity (individuals' sensitivity regarding fairness perceptions) and personal human values (value preferences in preferences in response to unfairness) are provided, followed by the review on stressors (unfairness) and strain (outcomes: stress indicators) relationship. Further, this chapter offers an overall description of unfairness conceptualized as work stressors, sources of stress, definitions of the concepts, as well as boundary conditions in examining the relationships between unfairness and outcomes variables.

Chapter 2: First this chapter focuses on the review of past studies relevant to the two competing approaches first, organizational justice and second effort-reward imbalance (ratio) their relationships with the variety of workplace outcome in both employees and employers' perspectives. Further, a review on work stressors (organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance) and strain: job-burnout (JBO), turnover intentions (TOI), organizational commitment (OC), employees' performance (EMPS) and employees' in role behavior (EIRB) relationship.

Chapter 3: This chapter develops a conceptual framework and model based on existing literature, discussion on potential constructs includes in this study, research hypotheses concerning the moderating effects of personal human values (self-enhancement, self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity between unfairness and outcomes includes in this study. In addition, this chapter proposes the competing model (organizational justice and effort-

reward imbalance) related unfairness at the workplace to verify the robustness of models as shown in Fig-3.1. Finally, this chapter describes the objectives and hypotheses for this study, each of which is related to the dimensions assessed in this study (see chapter 3, page - 99, 103 and 107).

Chapter 4: Since we intended to examine the regularities of both fairness construct-organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance, accordingly we collected data for this study in two countries (Pakistan and France). Therefore, methodology chapter outlines the relevant issues of quantitative research methods, for instance, selection of the sample, cross-sectional data were collected across two countries from three different sectors: education, health, and energy sector (Pakistan, N = 583 and France, N = 241). We also discussed the economic conditions and employment practices in Pakistan. The measuring instruments include this study, issues related to measurement scales, pilot-testing for French sample were given. The statistical analysis techniques were used to evaluate the relationship between unfairness and stress outcomes.

Chapter 5: This chapter depicts the results of statistical analyses performed to test the hypothesized models (see chapter 5 page-179-190 for Pakistani sample and for French sample see page-190-200 whereas comparison of results can be seen page-200). It describes the data screening process, results from confirmatory factor analysis, measurement invariance, demographic characteristics. Further, correlations matrix, hierarchical multiple regression models to examine the direct and moderating effects between predictors and criterions for both Pakistani and French sample separately.

Our study results have shown that organizational justice is negatively related to job-burnout and turnover intention, whereas positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees in role behavior. The imbalance between effort and reward shows a positive association with job-burnout and turnover intention whereas, negatively associated organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employee's in role behavior in both samples. In addition, personal human values and equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between organizational justice and stress outcome, however, we found less moderating effects between ERI and stress outcomes.

Finally, we also were given a comparison of two competing approaches to examine the extent to which unfairness approach has shown a stronger predictive power in examining stress outcome.

Chapter 6: First, in this chapter, we discuss the general findings obtained for both studies, in the light of existing literature. We also have provided the discussion on hypothesized relationships includes in this study as well as some similarities and differences in both approaches. Finally, we concluded by outlining how this research enhanced existing debate surrounding the unfair perceptions of employees at work and their different responses, theoretical and practical contributions, implications derived from the findings of the study, research limitations, future research directions, and final thoughts of the study were given under separate section.

Since we have not reported all the elements of data analysis part within the main text, yet to facilitate the readers we have provided a separate the document including relevant information for statistical treatments in the annexure volume (see annexure). The readers can access to the more information by consulting the annexure, for example, graphical representation of interaction effects for Pakistani sample and French sample can be viewed annexure G-1, G-2 (pg-332; 338). Each chapter begins with a short overview and ends up with a small conclusion.

1

Theorizing Unfairness: A Key Concept in Stress Framework

This section delineates the present study which discusses the factors that influence the stress outcomes directly and indirectly of various employees in education, health and energy sectors across the two countries—Pakistan and France. Furthermore, it embarks definition and the history of unfairness (as a stressor) since its introduction by (Rawls, 1958; Adams, 1965; Walster et al., 1978) and evolutionary concepts of what is fair and unfair in the light of fairness theories. Next, the current chapter outlines the work stress: sources of stress (stressor) and its corresponding negative effects on organizational outcomes. Since this research focuses on workplace unfairness as a work stressor, therefore this section also includes some important stress frameworks for the deeper understanding the relationships between the stressors and subsequent strain. A review of the two moderating variables—personal human values (self-enhancement, and self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity are elaborated based on the individual differences variables that may influence the negative effects of stressors on strain (work outcomes).

1.1 Towards Defining Unfairness

For over 50 years, social scientists interested in fairness have been studying individuals' responses to decision, procedure, and related management (Colquitt et al., 2005; Colquitt, 2012). There are two main streams of this concept first, perspective is philosophical thoughts, in which the major concern is to probe what is fairness, based on what fairness must be, therefore, fundamental logic is that an individual must seek to those actions that are fair (Rawls, 1971; Pieper, 1972; Sandal, 1982, Sen, 1992, Rawls, 2003). And the second perspective focuses on fairness from the individual perceptions. Accordingly, the main purpose is to understand what individuals considered to be fair. The scholars explain that fairness is the concept that even people learn from their childhood (Ambrose, 2002), and that is essential to human behavior. Individuals aspire to be treated fairly as fairness gives them a sense of control over future consequences (Tyler & Lind, 1992; Tyler & Blader, 2000). Likewise, fairness is also as a key component at the workplace settings (Ambrose, 2002). In general, organizational unfairness can be defined as an employee's experience of an unequal and unfair workplace (Rousseau, 1995; Colquitt et al., 2001; Robbins et al., 2012). Since, many scholars have been considered organizational unfairness as a primary work stressor (Greenberg, 2004). This research is motivated to investigate how the notion of unfairness relates to stress at work that is critical at the time, in virtually all occupations.

1.2 Evolutionary Role of Fairness

The idea of fairness is as old as mankind. Since the inception of human evolution, fairness has always been the matter of prime importance for mankind. Aristotle was the pioneer who focuses that fairness includes equity in the distribution of resources among people (Ross, 1925). Later Locke's (1994) writings about human rights also supported the fact of the aforementioned thought. Homans (1961) initially introduced the concept of fairness (e.g., distributive fairness). Fairness emerged in organizational behavior research after the scholars suchlike Adams (1963, 1965) and Blau, (1964) introduced the equity theory of motivation. Their seminal work frequently has been researched topic of organizational behavior, work psychology, and human resource management (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Cojuharenco & Patient, 2013; Yang, Bauer, Johnson, Groer, & Salomon, 2014; Holtz, 2015). Although the

history of fairness is short but also storied (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2000). However, a rich history of events has occurred in a very short period. Fairness has remained well-known in the debate of social justice research which explains perceptions of inequity in distributive situations suchlike fairness in distributing rewards (outcomes) and work settings. This work led to a period of research focusing on the fairness of pay or outcomes in work settings, which is generally referred to as distributive fairness as stated by Deutsch (1985). On the other hand, researchers have noted that there are two sides of fairness by illustrating to relate it with a coin. The first approach is the negative side, when unfairness prevails it will be leading to a problem/trouble for the organization, the evidence of unfairness can be observed in terms of lower performance, retaliatory behavior and harm morale (e.g., Cohen & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002), whereas, the second approach is related to fairness that can prevent the negative outcomes as underlined. In line with these perspectives Kivimäki, Vahtera, Elovainio, Virtanen, and Siegrist, (2007) talk about the fairness in the reciprocity of exchange within a formal contract—the employment contract. Indeed, it sheds the light on close links that exist between the constraints and opportunities of the work role and personal need satisfaction (for example, financial independence, self-esteem, personal development, security).

To certain extents, scholars have considered fairness as a mature area, with its less controversies (Colquitt et al., 2015). Scholars have long been argued, when organization's authorities establish certain forms of fairness at work, they increase the well-being of employees that ultimately leads to organizational performance improvements (Thibaut & Walker 1975; Leventhal, 1980; Cohen & Spector 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Fernandes & Calamote, 2016). Moreover, Fairness also encompasses a normative dimension (i.e. 'what should be done?') and an ethical element (i.e. 'what is just?').

In line with the preceding perspectives, much of research has been conducted over the last five decades for the predictive role of unfairness and variety of work outcomes. For instance, individuals who perceive fairness at work, remain satisfied, show high commitment with their organization and have less intentions to quit the organizations (Loi, Yang, & Diefendorf, 2009). In contrast, individuals who perceive that their organizations/managers do not treat justly will be showing negative attitude such as reduced personal well-being, low performance, and remain dissatisfied with their jobs, that ultimately affects the organizational functioning (Bobocel & Hafer, 2007; Fernandes & Calamote, 2016). Based on previous

findings, we argue that fairness at the workplace is widely recognized as a useful concept for predicting individuals' work behaviors and attitudes. However, hundreds of research articles have published in showing that perceptions of fair treatment are different from the feelings of outcomes satisfaction (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Skitka, Winkvist, & Hutchinson, 2003). Further, those research studies have demonstrated that fairness perceptions explicate exclusive variations in employees' attitude and behaviors including organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, counterproductive behavior, task performance and trust in management (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Generally, scholars use stress framework for examining the relationships between stressor and strain. Accordingly, in a subsequent portion of the thesis, we have emphasized some leading stress framework in order to better understand the relationships between unfairness and related outcomes.

1.3 Stress Frameworks

Since this research is dedicated to better understand the stressor and strain relationship where unfairness played as a stressor that can have a negative impact on work outcomes. However, the following section provides the leading frameworks of work-related stress that may help to understand stressor-strain relations.

1.3.1 Cognitive Appraisal Theory

The stress can be defined as an individual's experiences by his appraisals or feelings concerning the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Lazarus, 1991). The core framework of cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1991) implies a two step process of stress appraisals: primary and secondary appraisals. Primary appraisal is the stimuli for constructing some particular meanings about a specific event to organism, and secondary appraisal is intended for judgments having resources or ability to cope with consequences of the particular event. The latter authors further articulated that primary appraisal includes three kinds first is a harm/loss, the second is a threat and the third is challenging. In the case of harm/loss, an individual has already been sustained some damages and these damages can be in the forms of disability, the social damages like self or social esteem and loss of a loved or some valued person and so on.

The latter authors also demonstrated that most deleterious life events are that extent to which substantial commitments are lost. The threat is also related to the harm/loss which has still not happened but is predicted. Although, a real loss has still not been occurred yet, it is relevant to the threat and each threat related to the future loss. Similarly, the third kind of stress appraisal challenge is familiar with the threat that it too calls for the mobilization of coping efforts. The major difference between challenge and threat is that challenge appraisals concentrate on the gain or growth inherent in an encounter and they characterized by enjoyable emotions likewise excitement, exhilaration, and eagerness, whereas threat appraisal focuses on the potential harms and is characterized by negative emotions like anger, fear, and anxiety. Both threat and challenges are not mutually exclusive.

Greenberg (2004) has stated a conceptual model of cognitive appraisal to examine the organizational fairness. Greenberg (2006) investigated that distribution of rewards and decision-making processes are the common events which may cause the stress at the workplace and these events stimulate the employees to overcome and minimize the negative effects within given resources. For seeking to understand the phenomena more precisely, they stated more that; it is essential to know that how an individual appraises the event surroundings, which occur in his life, and how the individual respond and what type of effects influence his life due to these events. Taken the perspective of Lazarus, and Folkman (1984), the appraisal process has two stages: primary and secondary, the first stage explains that how an individual evaluates the event relating to the fairness perspective, for example, an individual evaluates that he gets low rewards (outcomes) relating to his contribution to the organizations (inputs).

However, the others are getting more rewards although they are contributing low input to the organization, and thus an individual will deem such type of event as unfair dealing that leads to the perceptions of unfairness. Furthermore, an individual also evaluates the awarding procedure critically and may have concerns pertaining to the award policy (Greenberg, 2004). This evaluation process is the combination of distributive and procedural fairness leads to the interpretation that an individual being treated with unfairness that helps to understand the general meaning of stress (Greenberg, 2004).

In an earlier commentary, the researcher has tried to connect two themes of fairness by assimilation the cooperation of cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991). Based on previous evidence, scholars explicate that, cognitive appraisals allow to connect it with the prospect of fairness at the workplace. Individuals' emotions relating to workplace context can understand

by the evaluation of primary and secondary appraisals. In case an individual considers himself that he is harmed by an event, subsequently primary appraisal triggers. On the other hand, individual evaluates that the event is harmful. However, based on cognitive appraisal during the secondary appraisal triggers of an individual's capability to be protected or deal with the harmful event. For a better understanding of the relationship between unfairness as stressor and stress outcomes see figure 1.1.

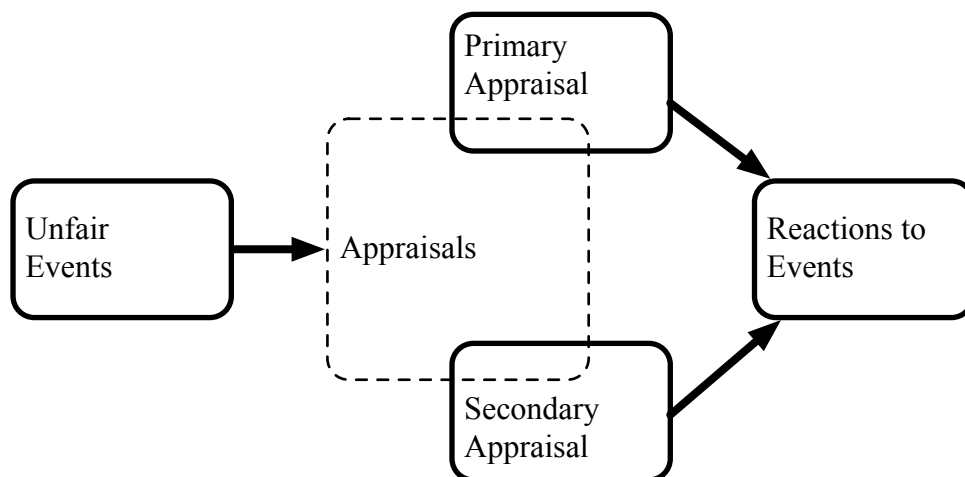


Figure 1.1: A Process Model Developed for Unfair Events, Appraisal of Events and Reactions

Source: Lazarus and Folkman (1984)

Thus, we draw on the Lazarus theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and its focus on the cognitive appraisal in a relationship with the employees' fairness perceptions. Similarly, employees' evaluations about the fairness workplace can be considered jointly to explain the eventual outcome of primary and secondary appraisal upon employee's distress. Unfair practices (unfair event) of managers at the workplace is anticipated to invoke a higher level of negative emotions (stress outcomes). If someone faces the unfair event at the workplace, the primary appraisal triggers and individual evaluates that there is something which is very important for him, which is at stake (Lazarus, 2001). However, during the secondary appraisal individual evaluates the availability of coping resources (personal or environmental) to handle the unfair situation (Lazarus, 2001). If an individual considers he has capabilities to handle the situations in turn response from the victims will not be harming. On the other hand, lack if

someone evaluates that he has an insufficient resource to handle the situation in turn individual will lead to a more harmful reaction from the victims of unfairness.

1.3.2 Person-Environment Fit Theory

Person-environment fit (P-E Fit) theory has been popular for a considerable amount of time, and scholars have largely been used P-E Fit for better understanding the stress and well-being, perspective. The said explanation of the stress process is based on the primary conceptualization of Murray (1938). Later, the notion of Person–environment fit (P–E fit) has elucidated by the several researchers in their own way, for instance, Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005) deduced as on the level of which a person and environmental characteristic counterpart. Cable, and Edwards, (2004) explained about the characteristics of a person that may comprise an individual’s psychological or biological needs, abilities, goals, values or personality, as far as environmental characteristics concern these may consist of rewards, cultural values, job demands, or a variety of environmental state of affairs akin to a food shelter, or heat accessibility. Person–environment fit has always remained a very popular theme, particularly in the industrial field and organizational psychology due to its significant implications in the workplace. This idea can be understood as a particular type of a person-situation interface that spells out the counterpart between the analogous person and environmental dimensions.

Ostroff and Schulte (2007) referred to the previous literature and stated that for several decades that even if the person-situation interactions are concern to fit have been discussed but many complexities still stay behind, how person–environment fit can conceptualize and operationalize the notion (Guan, Deng, Bond, Chen, & Chan, 2010). Therefore, the concept person–environment fit includes various slices likewise person–job fit; person- supervisor fit person (Chatman, 1991) and they are all different from each other. Yet, it is broadly acknowledged the positive outcomes from the good person-environment fit the propensity to speculate consequently; suchlike the high isomorphism linking to analogous person’s characteristics and environment characteristics acquiesce extra positive outcomes (Ostroff & Schulte, 2007). Here we will describe a short introduction of these subsets of person-environment fit.

According to Kristof (1996), person organization–fit is substantially a prosperous area which has been studied in the domain of person-environment fit, similar in temperament

prevails between the organization and workers but in any case, one entity offers what the other required, they share analogous elementary characteristics or the both workers and organization. The highest level of congruence between the people and organization is the greatest facet of the person-environment fit which entails a robust culture and shared value among the workers. Resultantly high-value congruence is the ultimately beneficial for the organization in the form of increased organizational commitment; citizenship behavior and decreasing in employee turnover (Gregory, Albritton, & Osmonbekov, 2010). Among the subsets of person-environment fit the person -job fit is related to the congruence between a person's characteristics and those are related to the specific job (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). Some other researchers explained that discrepancy model of job satisfaction and stress that illuminates whether the employees' desires and needs are matched with the supplies which have given by their jobs (e.g., Locke, 1969; Harrison, 1978; French, Caplan,& Harrison, 1982; Caplan, 1983).

The person-person fit is concerned with the congruence between the cultural preferences of the individual's and those preferred by the others. It deals with the similarity-attraction assumption which explains that individuals neither win nor lose akin to the others based upon their opinions attitude and values (Van Vianen, 2000). Boone and Hartog (2011) stated in their undertaking that most of the research in person-person has been done on the type of person-supervisor-fit containing supervisors and subordinates, coworkers dyads, mentors, and mentees. They further endorsed that previous research has witnessed that person-supervisor fit is significantly associated with the supervisor's satisfaction (Boone & Hartog, 2011).

Finally, person-group fit; this concept is comparatively new arrival in the family of person-environment. Although this concept is novel and the limited research exists to elaborate that how the psychological congruence between coworkers affects individuals' outcomes within a in group. An undertaking has published by Boone and Hartog (2011) who empirically defined that the person-group fit is very keenly associated with the group oriented outcome likewise co-worker's job satisfaction and feelings of unity. So for as, the consequences of person- environment fit and its links to a number of outcomes comprise on organizational commitment, job satisfaction and intentions to quit. Kristof-Brown and Guay (2011) analyzed that person-job fit as the strongest predictor of job satisfaction. He further described that stress has appeared because of incongruence of person-environment fit. In view of the fact that, major

effects have shown due to the environment as comparable to the person, insufficient supplies have greater impact as compared to the excess supplies (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005).

The stress caused by the incompatibility or mismatch of desired and actual goals (e.g., fairness) can be discussed with the help of person-environment fit theory. This phenomenon was described thoroughly in the study conducted by Dewe, O’Driscoll and Cooper (2012) where they used a figure to illustrate the concept of person-environment fit.

		Preferred	
		High	Low
Received	High	Low Strain	High Strain
	Low	High Strain	Low Strain

Figure 1.2: Levels of psychological strain predicted by P–E fit theory

Source: Adopted from Dewe et al., 2012

The researchers explained that the goal is actually the stimulus which induces the strain among the individuals. The first stimulus is the goal which they prefer to achieve /get and the other one is what they actually get. If there is any incompatibility or mismatch between the preferred /desired goal (e.g., unfairness) and the actual achievement fit leads to high or low levels of strain. When the fit among the preferred and received, domain is high then individuals are not prone to higher strain levels but the moment there is any discrepancy, incompatibility or mismatch among the preferred and received goal (e.g., unfairness) it leads to higher levels of strain and lessens the psychological/emotional wellbeing (Dewe, et al., 2012).

1.3.3 Conservation of Resource Theory

During the mid-to-late eighties, another dominant theory of stress process was introduced by Stevan Hobfoll (1989) known as the *Conservation of Resources* (COR) theory. Though, COR theory, was developed to emphasize on the major life stress (Hobfoll, Canetti-Nisim, & Johnson, 2006; Norris, Perilla, Riad, Kaniasty, & Lavizzo, 1999), it has also become an often-cited approach in management and organizational behavior research (Lapointe, Vandenberghe, & Panaccio, 2011; Ng, & Feldman, 2012; Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, &

Westman, 2014; Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Lee, Burch, & Mitchell, 2014; Jin, McDonald, & Park, 2016). Scholars have noted that COR theory resembles with the person-environment fit approach (Dewe et al., 2012), in particular both models focus on the interaction of the person and the environment, and the propensity of correspondence between demands created by the environment and the individuals' resources to meet those demands. However, Hobfoll (2001) explicated the main difference between both approaches: P-E fit approach lays emphasis on individuals' perceptions of fit, in contrast, COR theory mainly focuses on the objective elements of actual fit.

The basic notion of conservation of resource approach establishes as a motivational theory, that individuals have inherent desires to maintain, foster and protect those things or goals that are important for them or the one who they value (Hobfoll, 2001). It may be perceived as that individuals not only strive to maintain and secure the valued resources but also engage in behaviors to accumulate additional resources for the future challenges and stresses of life. The resource is referred as anything that a person values as it contributes constructively to their welfare and helps them to adjust. Individuals strive for the resources which may be personal or environmental (see Hobfoll, 2001) to deal with the stresses which they come across due to loss of valued goal (e.g., unfairness) and lacking in appropriate resources induces stress among them.

There are two main categories of resources (1) personal resources and (2) environmental resources. Personal resources can be described as personal attributes (the importance of achievement), personality traits (self-esteem, internal locus of control and optimism etc.) and positive affect (Nelson & Simmons, 2003). Features of environment (external resources) are referred as environmental resources including the workplace situations suchlike job autonomy, feedback or the rewards allocation (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008) and social support, that helps to lessen the stress levels and encourage emotional/psychological well-being (Luszczynska & Cieslak, 2005; Halbesleben, 2006). The main theme of the conservation of resource theory is that stressful situation can lead to resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001; Dewe, et al., 2012). For example, fairness at work is viewed as a personal resource because it is a valued goal of an individual (Runciman, 1966). Unfair treatment at work can drain the employees' time and energy of individuals and divert their attentions from their actual job assignments which will be resulting in resource loss. In other words, employees may strive to regain the resources loss (fairness) and invest their existing resources (time,

energy and lost opportunities) to obtain more resources to achieve fairness. On the other hand, favorable circumstances (Fair treatment at the workplace) will not only provide stress resistance potential (Edwards & Cable, 2009) but also helps individuals to gain more resources. When individuals perceive that their managers treat them fairly, this will increase the positive feelings among employees and enhances their performance and thus decreases the intentions to quit. Hobfoll (2010) further explicated the principles of the COR theory: according to the first principle, resources loss is more salient than resource gain. Whereas the second principle explains that individuals are required to invest protecting, re-gaining and accumulating resources for future resource loss. Individuals who possess greater resources are less likely to resource loss and have more capacity to gain additional resources. On the other hand, individuals with fewer resources exposed to resource loss and have less capacity to gain additional resources.

Resource loss is elucidated that the loss of resources indicates the fear or risk for their survival, and therefore, fear of resource loss has more importance over resource gain when the individual encounters with the stressful situation. As fear or threat makes the individual more alert and careful to avoid the harm (Frijda, Kuipers, & Schure, 1989; Scherer, Schorr, & Johnstone, 2001) and individual also believes in the proactive coping process. Individuals cope up with the threat by struggling to obtain and sustain as well as managing the pool of their existing resources. Being more alert and careful by proceeding early at a safer point after identifying the warning symptoms of threatening or harmful situation (see Hobfoll, 2001) or by placing themselves in events that suit their resources (Baltes, 1997) as well as attainment of the valued goal. Yet, this opportunity is also related to facts that are well equipped with the resources due to their personal and social standing and they can plan for curtailing the stressful situations.

The evidence from past research also highlighted that the individuals for whom fairness is a valued goal when having the feeling or perception of lack of fairness, it creates pressure on the individuals which leads to the reduction of the esteemed resources (Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999; Barclay et al., 2005). And that pressure of unfairness feeling and resource loss lead to the stress (Vermunt & Steensma, 2001). In the light of conservation resource theory, the emotional exhaustion (stress) boosts up in the situations when the esteemed/desired resources of individuals are endangered or either lost due to the unfair procedures (procedural fairness) and increased stress levels individuals are more prone to the negative emotions such

as anger, frustration/aggression, and resentment (Folger, 1993; Barclay et al., 2005). According to Grandey and Cropanzano (1999), individuals strive to protect themselves from further resource loss and overcome from the stressful situation they leave the organization. Taken this perspective, COR theory further suggests that the emotionally exhausted and stressed out individuals are required to put efforts to decrease the further resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989; Shirom, 2003). In case, individual perceive that they are unable to deal with the stressful situation, they strive to handle this situation through withdrawal coping mechanism (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998; Deery, Iverson, & Walsh 2002) and that withdrawal mechanism could increase the level of turnover intention (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007) and decrease in commitment (Cole, & Bruch, 2006).

Due to the stressful situation when individuals face resource loss it may lead to dysfunctional sort of or maladaptive coping behavior which further drag the individuals towards cynicism (Alarcon, Edwards, & Menke, 2011) and other counterproductive work behaviors or deviant acts as identified by the strain theory as well. If we consider the counterproductive or deviant behaviors, we will find a whole path of this kind of response which is triggered due to the stressful event (e.g., unfairness as discrepancy). It is an emotion-centered process, i.e., when individuals identify that they are deprived of their valued goal or they witness any discrepancy or mismatch among the preferred and actual outcome or either there is any lack of the desired goal; these all kinds of negative scenarios activate the negative emotions of anger, frustration etc., which motivates a person to opt for the counterproductive work behavior (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002; Spector, & Fox, 2005).

1.3.4 Job Demand-Control-Support Model

The concept of job demand control support model theory of work design was initially developed by Karasek (1979) and afterward further extended by Karasek, and Theorell (1990). At first, proposition asserted by the author is mentioned to as the Job Demands-control (JDC) model, in spite of that fact, the Karasek also used term “discretion” as an alternate word for control. Karasek (1979) proposed that even though extreme job demands physical and psychological can influence the employee's stress level (particularly psychological strain), but such types of demands have not considered much important to a contributor to strain experiences.

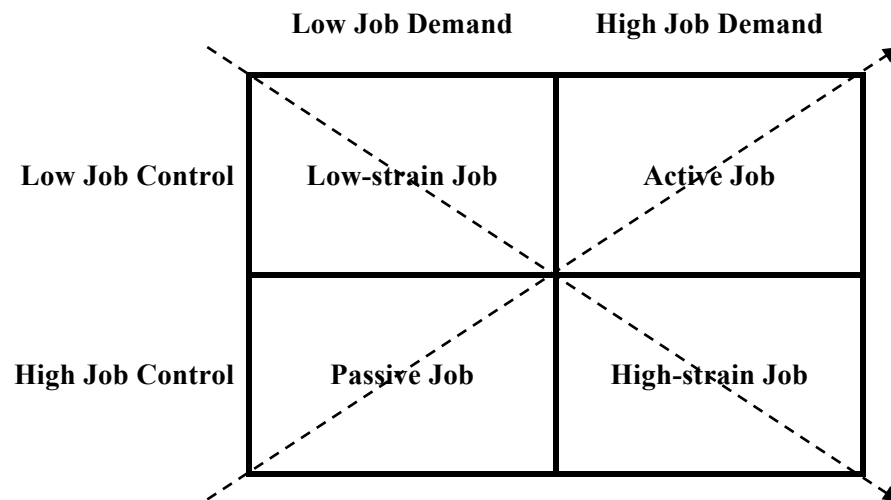


Figure 1.3: Job-Demand-Control Support Model
Source: Karasek, (1979)

Rather, it is more important for people experiences in the workplace that, they will determine a significant amount of strain whether or not some discretion over demands they have to meet those. From the preceding explanation, it is demonstrated that there will be interactive effects of job demands X control on the level of employees' stress as stated by Karasek (1979). In other words, the "discretion" will moderate the relationship between job demands and employees' strain. The relationship of job demand, control and strain are showing in figure 1.3. There are many aspects of this model which are still need to be resolved. For instance, it is a matter of working to know whether the effect of job demands and control on employees' strain is additive (that is added) or multiplicative (interactive effect between them).

The scholars are divided on this aspect and they argue to support their proponents in both points of views. The second question is required to be clarified that whether objective or subjective control is an important aspect in determining stress responses. There are many researchers studied JDC and the results their results remain inconclusive because of controversies in their research findings. Based on contrary results, it was remained paradoxical whether the approach is universally applicable or not?

Considering these perspectives, the revised version in this domain proposed by first Johnson, and Hall (1988) and afterward originator of this concept Karasek, and Thoerell (1990) extended this idea by mixing a construct of social support with the job demand and control and it is known as job demand-control-support (JDSCS). The authors explained with the extension of social support that by mixing of this construct it will affect an individual's level of

psychological strain (and eventually their psychosocial well-being) at the workplace. The valuable effects of control will further increase when a person gets social support either from his supervisor or coworkers (Karasek & Thoerell, 1990). The extended model- job demand-control-support (JDCS) after including social support to this model, having roots that this construct can play an important role in alleviating stress in employees (Cooper, Dewe, & O'Driscoll, 2001), even though there is an intellectual battling among scholars who argue that whether its direct, indirect (moderating) impact on employees' stress.

1.3.5 Cybernetic Theory of Stress

Edwards (1992) developed a cybernetic model of stress. Cybernetic theory offers a valuable framework to understand the human behavior. In fact, cybernetic theory (CT) originally, developed to analyze the working of self-regulating systems as stated by Ashby, (1966) and Wiener (1948). According to Cybernetic theory (CT), the main function of self-regulating systems is to decrease discrepancies between environmental characteristics and reference criteria. Such aim is achieved through the main construct of negative feedback loop that examines discrepancies between environmental characteristics and relevant criteria and strives to decrease these discrepancies by altering the environment, regulating the standards or might be (Edwards, 1992).

Actually, cybernetic theory has been tailored to elaborate human behavior, commonly; through the lens of rubric of control theory (e.g., Miller, Galanter, & Pribrum, 1960; Powers, 1973; Carver & Scheier, 1981) moreover it has been elaborated to provide a particular psychological and behavioral phenomenon, such like motivation (e.g., Lord & Hanges, 1987; Hyland, 1988; Klein, 1989) similarly, impression management studied by Bozeman and Kacmar (1997), goal-setting explained by Campion, and Lord (1982) and in the same way, mental and physical health (see Hyland, 1987; Seeman, 1989). The ideology of cybernetic theory has also been used in the theories of stress and coping for a better understanding of critical relationships between the constructs (e.g., Cummings & Cooper, 1979; Carver & Scheier, 1981; Edwards, 1992). Based on cybernetic theory, Edward (1992) established an integrative model to explain stress, coping and well-being in the organization. This theory analyzes stress, coping and well-being by considering as important components of negative feedback loop, in which discrepancies between environmental characteristics and relevant references criteria facilitates stress that harms well-being as well as enhances coping efforts in

order to deal with discrepancies between environment and standards. CT combines some other theories to explain stress in terms person-environment fit and integrate feedback affiliations about coping to the sources of stress (e.g., Beehr & Newman, 1978; Cummings & Cooper, 1979; French et al., 1982). By reviewing of extant research, it has been noted that literature, on cybernetics is well documented and we can find several studies in this domain, for example, the role of expectations and coping mechanisms was explained by Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal, (1964). Whereas, psychological and physical processes which filter personal and environmental characteristics focused by Beehr and Newman (1978).

Discrepancies between desired and actual situations access to the execution of a change situation (Cummings & Cooper, 1979). According to French et al., (1982) employee's perceptions about discrepancies drawn from his personal characteristics which consider as a source of illness and disturbance and an employee will have to face them with the protective framework. In a famous transactional model of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) they explain that in case a person appraises that external situation is threatening for him, the person will try to handle that situation. In case individual received positive outcomes, he will not handle it anymore, apart from that person will reveal somatic disorder. Taking from the evidence discussed as above models, we observed that these models are frequent in terms of the feedback mechanism and feedback loop concept. On the other hand models are dissimilar concerning stressful features and their interactive mechanisms. Edwards (1992) explained that discrepancy between actual and desired outcomes induces stress for employees; everyone attributes a skewed weight to this discrepancy or difference. Edwards (1992: p.247) further explained: "perceptions are defined as the non-evaluative subjective representation of any situation, condition, or event". It means appraisals are a personal demonstration of how a person evaluates some event.

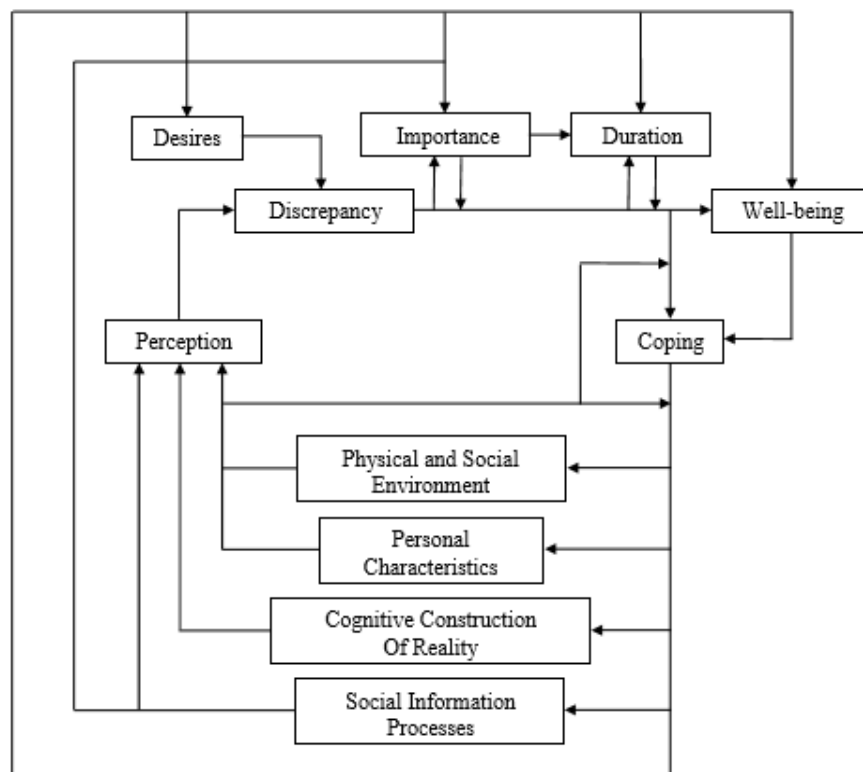


Figure 1.4: Cybernetic Model of Stress, Coping, and Well-being in Organizations

Source: Edwards (1992), Roques, (1999)

Figure 1.4 shows that employees' perceptions are affected by three types of variables— the first variable is physical (working conditions and geographical location) and social environment (people, interpersonal relationships, and employees' social arrangement) and employee personal characteristics.

1.4 Linking Unfairness and Stress

An extensive body of organizational studies claims that perceived unfairness in the workplace has deleterious effects on organizational members. Unfairness at work negatively contributes in terms of decreasing employees' performance and increasing the tendency of withdrawal behavior. Organizational researchers have recognized that organizational unfairness may play a crucial role to create a potential problem of strain at work. More specifically, the scholars have begun to demonstrate that the perceptions of unfairness are associated with stress-related outcomes including psychological strain. Therefore, it is important to study the relations between fairness at work and employees strain. To understand the relationship between

unfairness at work and employees strain we make a string between these two concepts with the help of past studies.

Accordingly, we found existing research indicating an escalating attention in the organizational journals on the topic of stress at work from both theoretical and empirical perspectives, therefore, scholars have explored the sources of stress (stressors) and its far-reaching effects (strain) on a variety of job outcomes (e.g., Cohen, 1980; Jackson, & Schuler, 1985; Cooper & Payne, 1988; Kahn & Byosiere, 1992). Whereas, many research studies have shown scholarly discussion that personal and work stress eventually affect the individuals' health and well-being (e.g., Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Greenberg, 1977; Kasl, 1984; Fletcher, 1993). However, life stress is strongly related to the poor mental and physical health (Cohen & Mueller, 2007; Slavich, Way, Eisenberger, & Taylor, 2010).

Since there is no consensus among behavioral scientists in defining "stress" the definition of stress has been debated in the literature, however, generally, stress can be defined as an emotional phenomenon that related to the tension, nervousness, and strain (Cooke & Rousseau, 1984). According to Cropanzano, Howes, Grandy, and Toth (1997) "Stress is a subjective feeling that work demands exceed the individuals' belief in his/her capacity to cope". Whereas, similar to Lazarus, and Folkman, (1984) who refers "the relationship between the person and the environment that is appraised by the person as taxing or exceeding his or her resources and endangering his or her well-being", and the reasons of such type of individual's appraisals are defined as stressors. More specifically, Thomas and Ganster (1995) defined a stressor as "any perceived feature of the environment that harms, threatens, or challenges the worker". Since stress related scholars provide a common ground in explaining stress in which they consider stress as a stimulus-organism-response model and laid emphasis the existence of stress cycle (Lazarus, 1966; Beehr & Newman, 1978; French et al., 1982; Lawarus & Folkman, 1984; Edward, 1992). Taken this common point there is no need to be entered into a more complicated definitional debate (Vermunt & Steensma, 2001).

Stress at work originates from the different resources, for example, behavior settings, tasks, and roles, as well as the distinctiveness of the "person system" (McGrath, 1976). In general, all individuals across their whole lives face several stressful life events, includes the death of one's spouse/husband, breakup, and divorce, serious illness of family members, transfer to an unwanted place and road accidents, etc. In the same vein, Holmes, and Rahe (1967) argued that "life events" require rearrangement and are thus stressful. Therefore,

generally, stressors called events that threaten loss of resources, or difficulties in retrieving them (Hobfoll, 1989). However, Caplan (1983) stated that lack of expected gain such as job variety, job autonomy, and challenges is also referred as stressors.

Researchers divide stressors into two categories micro/macro events, for example, losing one's keys, running late or getting a flat tire are considered as (micro) minute life events and that having a cumulative effect (e.g., Holmes & Rahe, 1967; Coddington, 1972; Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1974). Similarly, macro-events are commonly studied suchlike major accidents, exams, and health issues, and these major life events originate stress (e.g., Dohrenwend, Krasnoff, Ashkenasy, & Dohrenwend, 1978; Derogatis, 1987). In formulating the conceptual framework, this study follows the theoretical perspectives provided in past literature that postulates the significant theoretical and empirical connections between the concepts of unfairness at work and stress. In general, the researchers have mainly focused on the fair perceptions and most of the times they note down the distress probably go along with the feelings of uncertainty and lack of control connected with the destruction of fair perceptions (e.g., Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Vermunt & Steensma, 2005). Many scholars have explained by illustrating the uncertainty management theory—suggests that the outlines of fairness are appreciated because they offer important information to find the way to uncertain work conditions, with violation of fair perception leading to stress and health related consequences (e.g., Lind & Van den Bos, 2002; Elovainio, et al., 2005).

Vermunt and Steensma (2001) proposed a multiple discrepancy theory for further support to the context and investigated that the center of stress occurrence, along with three categories of discrepancy (social comparison, temporal comparison, and internalized norms) directly associated with the fairness perceptions at organizational work settings. In order to that; if we talk about the social comparison ties (category of multiple discrepancy theory) they demonstrated more precisely that with the judgment of equity and relative deprivation—both of these underlie the umbrella of distributive fairness. Similarly, on the other hand, if we examine the other categories of multiple discrepancy theory, we could find that violation of fair principles (procedural fairness) probably influences both internalized norms and temporal comparisons.

Vermunt and Steensma (2005) stated that even though the formation of fairness perceptions as a prejudice evaluation of the discrepancy between what an individual ought to have and what an individual obtains brings closer to the description of the stress, pragmatic

research connecting these two thoughts is comparatively novel. Furthermore, others researchers like Cropanzano, Goldman and Benson (2005) explained that array of the descriptions and measures used in investigating fairness perceptions and stress directed to a certain extent mix set of results. For further refinement of the conceptual relationship between these two constructs, some researchers demonstrated by illustrating that—examining of procedural fairness have sometimes combined objects that strike interpersonal dealing with the object that strikes fair procedures (see Fox et al., 2001). While on the other hand, the undertakings have examined merely a subset of fairness dimensions as an interpreter of stress (Kivimaki, Elovainio, Vahtera, & Ferrie, 2003).

Previous literature has been witnessing that limited research has examined the relationship between the fairness dimensions and stress within the same samples (e.g., Tepper, 2000; Judge & Colquitt, 2004; Francis & Barling, 2005). A single study has investigated the relationship between the four factors of fairness dimensions and perceived stress (Judge & Colquitt, 2004). Early research has demonstrated that perceptions of being treated unjust in organizational structure are expected to damage employees' psychological health (e.g., Tepper, 2001; Elovainio et al., 2003; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). A number of renowned researchers have shown interest in examining the relationship between perceived unfairness and psychological health outcomes by considering the lack of fairness as a stressor (e.g., Fox et al., 2001; Vermunt & Steensma, 2001; Greenberg, 2004, 2006; Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

Similarly, a number of other scholars stated in their article by explaining previous organizational research has recognized that persons react emotionally to the fair dealing at the workplace, allocations, and exchanges and that these responses have perceptual and behavioral outcomes (Barsky, Kaplan, & Beal, 2011). Scholars further explained that interlinking of perceived fairness of events dates back to the equity theory introduced by Adams's (1966), which predicted that inequity in the shape of an overpayment resulting in guilt, whereas underpayment gives in emotions like anger and distress.

In order to such like feeling; an individual motivates in behaving in ways intended to re-establish a sense of equilibrium. In recent times the supporters of fairness theory proposed that “deontic responses” suchlike anger is usual, mechanical and adaptive response to mistreatment (e.g., Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Folger, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2005) and those suchlike responses modify the appraisals of unfairness which can escort to unstable and potentially destructive behavior in organizations (e.g., Weiss et al., 1999; Krehbiel &

Cropanzano, 2000; Bies & Tripp, 2001; Goldman, 2003; Barclay et al., 2005). Moreover, calculative formulations put forward that individuals compose fairness perceptions by means of rules to events (Leventhal, 1980) so that influence happens merely after individuals perceive that managerial actions are unjust (e.g., Sheppard, Lewicki, & Minton, 1992; Smith, Haynes, Lazarus, & Pope, 1993). Weiss et al. (1999) concluded, “Much fairness research has assumed, explicitly or implicitly, that emotion is the central mechanism through which a sense of unfairness is translated into work behavior” (p.786).

Hobfoll (1989) introduced COR theory and established a link with stress, the researcher explains that when the resources are not equally distributed it leads to the psychological distress (like the feeling of threat and vulnerability) caused by actual resources received and perceived resources in response to the investments as suggested COR theory. Consequently, an individual makes efforts (coping strategies) in investing to retaining the existing resources as well as to achieve future resource depletion. COR theory also provides a constructive guideline to understand how an individual counter with the chronic job stress. Meantime, Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter, (2001) have stated that an individual can response specifically in the shape of burnout, syndrome and under the umbrella of syndrome there are three more dimensions include; cynicism, emotional exhaustion, and inefficacy. Employees’ feel threat because of their resource loss they understand that abusive supervisors are directly responsible for said loss related to social support which they use when stress happens (Harris, Kacmar, & Zivnuska, 2007). Conversely, the supervisor can play a pivotal role in worker's job and their performance at the workplace, the supervisor can yield up support by providing important information regarding tasks, work demands, skills relating to targets which have assigned by the organization (Jokisaari & Nurmi, 2009).

However, a clear link between unfairness and stress has further explained by Lavelle, McMahan, and Harris (2011) using the salient features of COR theory. A recent research has considered unfairness as a workplace stressor, that leads to negative consequences of for both employees and employers. For example, Judge and Colquitt (2004) found a positive association of both procedural and interpersonal unfairness with employees’ stress. Whereas, Tepper (2001) empirically examined that distributive and procedural fairness significantly predicted emotional exhaustion and depression. Based on these studies, Lavelle et al., (2011) demonstrated that when employees experience unfairness at work, it drains resource and reducing the employee's energy for investing extra efforts towards the organization. On the

other hand, Edward and Rothbard (2000) explained that resources are finite, therefore, if someone invests his resources in one domain he would have less resources to use in other domain.

In other words, scholars have argued that interactional unfairness as a process during which employees can lose or gain valued resources (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). According to the COR theory, when resource loss occurs (unfairness), the employees make possible efforts to recover, protect, and accumulate new resources for future loss resources (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007). In order to recover lost resources, they turn their intentions on possible coping strategies (see Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010). Based on COR theory we discuss that employees may perceive unfairness as loss of valued resources in terms of salary, perks, benefits, career development, opportunities etc. However, individual strive to make possible efforts to recover, protect, and accumulate new resources for future loss resources (Halbesleben, & Bowler, 2007). Individual may vary regarding their pool of resources. Based on their different pool of resources they react in two ways: if someone has sufficient resources to handle the resource loss, he/she may less likely to react negatively. Whereas insufficient resources lead to an individual more likely to react negatively in response to the unfair event. Accordingly, those employees feel that they have significant resources (personal and environmental resources) to cope with such situations will be less stressful and they will successfully cope with the stressful situation (Tepper, 2000). Although unfairness at work generally induces negative employee perceptions, we examined a potential link of unfairness with behavioral and psychological work outcomes.

1.4.1 Argument from Relative Deprivation Theory

Relative deprivation theorists explained that individuals' relative deprivation feeling is induced when the individuals want to attain something they don't have in actual or either they compare their achievement with some standard, other individuals or group (Walker, & Smith, 2002). If the individuals value the fairness and perceive that they are deprived of it, they react to this collective disadvantage with negative emotions.

If we talk about the negative emotions which play an important role in shaping the behavior of individuals includes the sadness, anger, and fear (Smith & Kirby, 2001). These negative emotions lead to different responses to deal with the stress levels induced because of the fairness discrepancy like individuals try to eradicate the sources of the stress which are

inflicted on them due to the event (e.g., The desire to attain fairness, feel as if he is deprived of fairness and others have more share of it), similarly sadness encourages the individuals to surrender, vacate or departs from the stressful event and the fear makes them more alert and careful to avoid the harm (Frijda et al., 1989; Scherer et al., 2001). The individuals who feel sadness due to the stress caused by the deprivation are found to have lower levels of loyalty towards the organization and the one who react to stress in anger usually go for the collective protests (Smith, Cronin, & Kessler, 2008) to cope up with the situation.

Among different coping responses anger is the grave emotion which leads to create a blockage in the relationship with others and the strain theory also highlighted this point that when the individuals feel that they are not treated fair (lack of fairness) they become stressful and it give rise to anger and it is usually seen that this emotion always outbursts outwards and individuals' cutoff/ discontinue their relationships (see Agnew, 1992 for discussion). He further argued that anger provokes the individual to show a reaction, lowers the feeling of inhibition and generates the craving to take revenge (Agnew, 1992:60) against the discrepancy of the desired outcome (fairness). Anger and resentment are found to be related to the individual's perceptions that they are victim to the unjust procedures (or the procedures lacks the just treatment) and it encourages them to indulge in the retaliating behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

The author rationalized another side of the picture in which discusses that the annoyance or stress of which people are usually victims of is due to the blockage of goal seeking and most importantly pain avoidance behavior (Agnew, 1985). It's a human psychic they want to achieve the things which are valued to them and along with that they usually want to avoid the agonizing situations or don't want to confront the pain. When the people face the painful situations and can't avoid that pain in a legal way they get stressed out and to deal with that stress and frustration they engage in the delinquent behaviors like anger etc. for example the employees serving in the organizations want to be dealt with fairness in every perspective as their goal is that the rewards must be distributed justly following the fair procedures and in the whole situation they should be treated with respect and dignity. But when the employees feel that the fairness is lacking in the organization they are in stress and when they feel that they can't deal with the painful situation or have not legal way out; for instance, they can't leave the organization because of some reasons on they can't express their reservations in a

systematic manner to the employers, this pain avoidance behavior increases their strain. And to deal with that they engage in the deviant or delinquent behaviors (anger).

1.4.2 Unfairness and Stress in the Light of Discrepancy Theory

A number of researchers have strived to find out the rationalization of the reasons that why the people think in such a way and they behave in view to their job. Locke (1969) developed an idea of discrepancy theory which is very famous in the studies of employees' job satisfaction. According to this, an individual remains satisfied with his job if his expectations are being fully filled akin to his thinking instead of fulfillment he needs. An individual evaluates and prioritizes the variables in his life that "how much" of something he required. Berry, (1997) explained that discrepancy theory advocates an individual will remain dissatisfied if he receives less than what they wanted (e.g., fairness).

In the study of discrepancy theory, we will have found that it demonstrates the eventual source of anxiety and depression. The discrepancy theory shows both elevations of a picture by explaining in such a way that; when an employee did not complete his task given by the management or unable to accomplish the requirements of his job he feels the sense of anxiety and may regret not accomplishing the job requirements in a decent manner, on the other side, when an employee feels dejection because he remained to fail to achieve those hopes and goals. The discrepancy theory further explains that with the passage of time individuals must learn about their responsibilities and obligations for any particular role within a given time frame; if they remain to fail to accomplish those targets then they must be punished. With the passage of time, such obligations and duties become an emerging shape of a preoccupied set of principles, and these principles provide self-oriented guidance. When an individual remains to fail to achieve these obligations and responsibilities; the major consequences appear in the shape of agitation and anxiety. Similarly, this theory also explains that in the case of all the targets (obligations and duties) are achieved then individuals are rewarded in the shape of praise, approvals love and care. Due to these accomplishments and targets also create an emerging element containing a preoccupied set of principles which provide the ideal self-guide. When the individuals remain to fail to receive such rewards, these non-achievements trigger feeling of dejection, disappointment and at last depression. Mathematicians explain the discrepancy theory that when the variables of a situation from the original point where it would like to be. Such situation has described the theory of irregularities in distribution. The situation

of irregularities refers to the concept of classical discrepancy theory, the theory through the light by stating that distributing points must be divided equally basis with respect to some (geometrically) and every distributed area must be a subset of the main set. The discrepancy (irregularity) will occur when the distributed area of any point turn aside from the ideal condition. Discrepancy theory can be elucidated as the study of expected irregularities of distributions (distributive fairness) in calculative-theoretic and combinatorial settings.

1.4.3 Unfairness and General Strain Theory

Robert Agnew (1992) enlightens in general strain theory (GST); that it can be innermost for explaining the crime and deviance, rather it needed to revise hence, and it was not coupled to social or cultural behaviors, other than concentration on the norms (see Figure-1.5). The previous evidence has been witnessed that individuals induce feelings of restlessness when they realize, that they are deprived of something which is valued to them or either gets the less share of it or not being treated fairly as compared to the others around them (Walker & Smith, 2002).

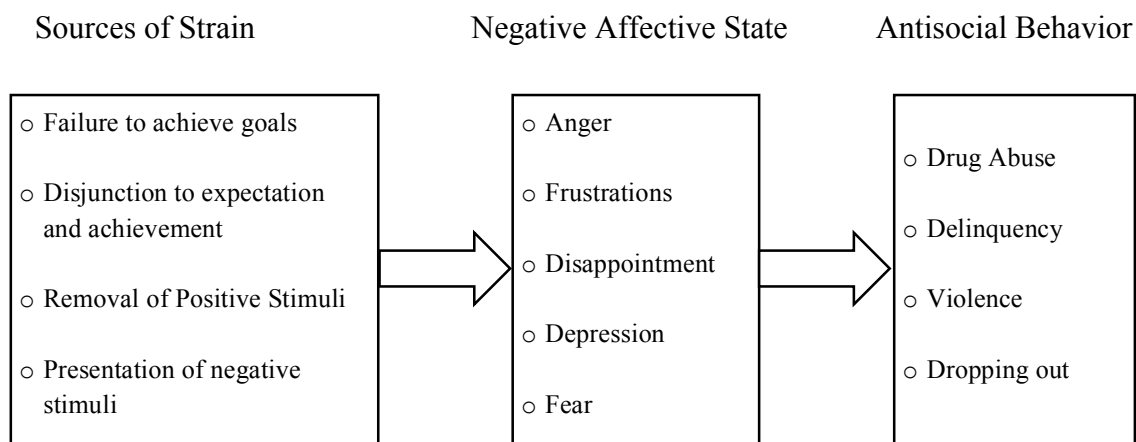


Figure 1.5: General strain theory

Source: Robert Agnew (1985; 1992)

Now the research is being conducted in different dimensions as well considering the association among the organizational fairness and psychological and physical health aspect of the employees, which has given it a new recognition of being an organizational stressor (Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Helkama, 2001; Judge & Colquitt, 2004). The present research will try to discuss the unfairness as a discrepancy and how it leads to change arousal of delinquent

behaviors as the general strain theory (GST) allows for combining these two themes (see Agnew, 1985; 1992). The role of relative deprivation theory given by Runciman (1966) will also be discussed in inducing stress and delinquent/deviant behaviors due to fairness discrepancy. Based on GST (Agnew, 1985, 1992) who presented that people fail to attain the goals which they value (e.g., fairness), absence or exclusion of the positive stimuli (fairness), inclusion of negative stimulus (unfairness) are the strains which lead to the arousal of negative emotions, anger, stress, criminal behavior (delinquency) etc. It highlighted the fact that the dissociation among the actual and expected outcome/success is a major source of strain and it intensifies the very moment when the actual outcome/success mismatches or there is any discrepancy compared to the expected outcome (Agnew, 1992: p.52).

It has been witnessed that, as the discrepancy or deviation emerges among the desired and actual outcome of which individual is aware of (Schaefer, 2008), that discrepancy or deprivation of the desired goal induces stress. It is inferred that the individuals realize that when they are being deprived of or there is a lack of fairness, they develop stress or feeling of restlessness. Davis (1959) deduced that the individuals feel deprived when they find that they lack Y (for e.g. fairness), they perceive that the relevant others have the Y (fairness), desire Y (fairness), feel that it's their legal right to have Y (fairness). Similar to that in regard of experiencing the discrepancy and consequent behavior, four prerequisites were diagnosed by Runciman (1966) that are (if we take example of organizational fairness)

- Individual does not get fairness
- Individual recognizes the other individuals that got fairness
- Individual wants to attain the fairness
- Individual considers that attaining the fairness is rational

Individuals assess their associations with others by examining outcomes and inputs they received as compared to the one that others received. If they feel any inconsistency or mismatch among what they possess as compared to others, they perceive it as inequity (Adams, 1965) or lack of fairness. It has been observed that the unfairness becomes a stressor for the people when they feel being under or over rewarded and it augments different emotions including anger, guilt etc. (Homan, 1974).

In the light of fairness perspective, Agnew (1992) considered the strain as any incidence in which desired stimulus or goal is eliminated, lacking, or vulnerable and there may be the presence of any negative stimulus which affects the relations with others. If we consider the

organizational fairness to be the desired goal of an employee, then, in the light of the fairness equity perspective as discussed by Agnew we will witness that fairness turns out to be the strain or major source of stress if it is eliminated. For individuals, the presence of fairness or equity is the desired goal and when they perceive the absence of the positive goal it induces stress. Similarly, in the light of strain theory when the individuals feel that they are worth of much better outcome and the one which they possess a lack of fairness, they start comparing themselves with others (see Agnew, 1992: p.53-55) and definitely it will lead to stress.

When the individual feels lack of fairness in any domain of fairness either in terms of distribution of the rewards (distributive), fairness of procedures (procedural), or how respectfully while communicating the information about the procedures or distribution (interactional) give rise to the negative emotions and feelings of resentment and in reaction to this individual indulges in the deviant behaviors (e.g., Manigione & Quinn, 1974; Folger, Rosenfield, & Robinson, 1983; Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). The evidence of being involved in delinquent behaviors was found by the Agnew and White (1992). It was found that individuals when feel stress due to a discrepancy between the desired and actual outcome (e.g., fairness discrepancy) manage the stress by showing delinquent behavior towards their accomplice or colleagues and the one who are not able to show their anger and escape from the pain induced by this discrepancy opts for taking drugs (see Agnew & White, 1992). Akers (2000) operationalized the Agnew's theory of strain and explained that if an individual remains to fail to achieve the valued goals the discrepancy between desired and actual achievements will get whether for the long-term or short-term personal goals, in addition to those goals will never be comprehensible due to inevitable situations holding innate opportunities and weakness obstructed by someone else.

The scholars further added in his annotations on the GST that it was more related to the kinds of strain instead of strain even though the stress events can be shown as a moderator with the attainments of natural anticipations or just and fair outcomes "distribution of rewards" (Akers, 2000). These stressful events can be momentous or trivial but with the passage of time, these events can be mounting up and resulting in undermining somebody's confidence. Accordingly, if we talk about the emotions; frustration brings to dissatisfaction, anger, and resentment and normally all these emotions are aligned with the strain in criminology. It is generally can be observed that an individual feels distressed while the managers denied just rewards (e.g., distributive fairness) according to their efforts at what time they compare to the

efforts (input) and distribution of rewards (outcomes) given to the comparable others for analogous outcomes (distribution of rewards).

According to GST anger has been considered most critical in the emotions ancestors so that in view of the fact the anger is more or less for eternity aimed at external and is frequently associated with the breakdowns the relationships whether in our personal life or at the workplace as stated by Agnew (1992). Finally, Akers (2000) argues that previous research illustrates that if the events occur concurrently or in close string consequently stress/ crime relationship comes into sight in spite of guilt, age feelings and capacity to cope with stress. Furthermore, when an individual finds the discrepancy between his expectations that what an individual believes about the outcome (e.g., distributive fairness) that should be received and what is actually received as a result increases in the personal dissatisfaction.

1.5 Stressors (Sources of Stress)

The scholars discussed the various types of stressors as well as different aspects of an employee's role specifying by job demands and characteristics, moreover the dimensions of the physical workplace environment. Over the past several decades, there is a copious stream of research that has examined the linkages between stressors and strain and its far-reaching effects on a variety of job outcomes. Concurrently, numerous researchers have suggested that work stress and strain can negatively affect the individuals' and organizations' well-being (e.g., Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Greenberg, 1977; Kasl, 1984; Fletcher, 1993; Commeiras, Fournier, & Loubès, 2009).

In general, all individuals across their whole lives face several stressful life events, includes, death of one's spouse/husband, breakup and divorce, serious illness of family members, transfer to an unwanted place and road accidents, workload, job responsibility, lack of participation, and career ambiguities etc. (Caplan et al., 1975; Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Beehr & Newman, 1978, Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980; Arsenault & Dolan, 1983a). In the same vein, Holmes, and Rahe (1967) argued that "life events" require rearrangement and are thus stressful. Therefore, generally, stressors called events that threaten loss of resources, or difficulties in retrieving them (Hobfoll, 1989). However, Caplan, (1983) stated that lack of expected gain such as job variety, job autonomy, and challenges is also referred as stressors. Extant research has shown that several occupational stress models identified a variety of job stressors. For example, role, conflict and ambiguities, high job demands or responsibilities,

lack of participation, number of hours worked, career ambiguities, skill underutilization and physical environment (noise/temperature/safety) etc. (Caplan et al., 1975; Cooper & Marshall, 1976; Beehr & Newman, 1978; Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980).

In line with the earlier discussion, several research studies have examined the association between unemployment and a range of measures of poor health. Similarly, loss of income, unemployment has been examined to lead to a failure of social interaction and an increase in stress and anxiety (Junankar, 1991), loneliness and deprivation of social position (Leeftang, Klein-Hesselink, & Spruit, 1992), reduced social support, poor health, and a higher incidence of handicap and chronic illness (Mackenbach, 1992; Townsend, & Davidson, 1992; Mathers, 1994). In fact, we are not living our lives if we are not experiencing any worries? Now it depends on us how we deal with difficult situations/troubles either work or personal life. But there are times when economic issues, conflicts, and challenges can become irresistible, that can contribute to stress levels.

Accordingly, we have provided a list of the common things (stressors) that we can bump into every day at workplace include the following:

The list of stressors provided below includes almost every aspect of job context and work activities as well as the job characteristics (see table 1.1). As mentioned above the source of stress, however, the stress can occur due single or multiple sources of stress. Accordingly, unfair rewards systems or lack of reciprocity between individuals' efforts and their rewards (intrinsic or extrinsic) is related to poor mental and psychological health (Siegrist, 1996; Tepper, 2001, Judge, & Colquitt, 2004).

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Table 1.1: Category of Stressors and Sources of Stress

Work Stressors	Categories of Job Stressors
Physical Stressors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Lifting heavy weights ❖ Exposure to potentially hazardous conditions or substances, ❖ Workload (overload and underload) ❖ Pace / variety / meaningfulness of work ❖ Autonomy (e.g., the ability to make your own decisions about our own job or about specific tasks) ❖ Shift work/hours of work ❖ Physical environment (noise, air quality, etc.) ❖ Isolation at the workplace (emotional or working alone)
Task Demands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Too high quantitative workload ❖ Having a full-time job ❖ Insufficient time
Emotional Demands	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Personality differences ❖ Team pressures ❖ Differences in leadership styles ❖ high expectations
Organizational Structure and Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Lack of clear job descriptions ❖ Chain of command ❖ Lack of decision latitude (sufficient authority or seniority to make decisions) ❖ Lack of skill discretion (sufficient training and practice to give a sense of master) ❖ Emotional (relationships: support)
Insufficient Rewards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Work satisfaction, ❖ Remuneration, ❖ Recognition, ❖ Esteem, ❖ Status
Extrinsic Sources of Stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Role conflict (conflicting job demands, multiple supervisors/ managers) ❖ Role ambiguity (lack of clarity about responsibilities, expectations, etc.) ❖ Level of responsibility ❖ Lack of organizational instrumental (effective infrastructure)

Source: Quick et al. (1997)

1.6 Moderators of Unfairness Perceptions

Previous research shows that organizational stress has serious negative effects on employees' outcomes, however, occupational scholars have been struggling for identifying factors that can mitigate/reduce the negative effects of stressors (unfairness) on employees' physical and psychological strain (outcomes). In principle, occupational scholars use individual differences and contextual variables for studying stressors (unfairness) and strain (outcomes) relationship (Colquitt et al., 2001, 2006). For example, ethical leadership and power distance moderate the

relationship between procedural fairness and job insecurity (Raymond, Lam, & Chan, 2012). However, organizational culture moderates the relationship between fairness and leader-member exchange (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006).

Extant research highlights that, organizational scholars have given a considerable attention on the process in which individual deals with the personal and work stressors. One possible reason for said increased attention is that personal and work stressor have potentially harmful consequences on employees physical and psychological well-being (e.g., Ivancevich & Ganster, 1987; Mackay & Cooper, 1987; Arsenault et al., 1990). Based on the earlier discussion, existing research suggests that individual differences and contextual variables may moderate the relationship between stressor (unfairness) and strain (outcome: Colquitt et al., 2001, 2006).

Whereas scholars have attempted to explain, the relationship between individuals' values and actions. For instance, there is evidence that self-transcendence values are related to preferences for cooperation in social dilemmas (e.g., Schwartz, 1996; Garling, 1999) and fairness judgments in an industrial conflict (Feather, 2002). For example, self-transcendence values are linked with the preferences for support in societal concerns (e.g., Schwartz, 1996; Garling, 1999) on the other hand, the fairness of decisions making in an organizational issue (Feather, 2002). Lately, moderating role of personal human values (self-enhancement & self-transcendence) examined between group status and identification. However, based on relevant and excellent results of personal human values, we intended to examine the relationship between unfairness (as a stressor) strain (outcome) in the presence of personal human value and variables-personal human values. However, the second individual differences variable of our study such as equity sensitivity will be discussed in its respective section.

1.6.1 Schwartz's Model of Value Priorities

“Not life, but good life, is to be chiefly valued.”

(Socrates; 470 BCE–399 BCE)

Generally, when we think of our values, it is obvious we think of what is worth full to us in our lives (e.g., security, independence, wisdom, success, kindness, pleasure). Every one of us holds many values with an anecdotal degree of importance. A specific value may hold a significance for one person, however, insignificant for another. The notion of human values originated from the social psychology (de Souza Leao & de Mello, 2007; Hu, Geertman, & Hooimeijer, 2016).

However, despite, values have received a considerable attention of researchers from a wide range of disciplines (Dobricki, 2011; Vecchione, Caprara, Schoen, Castro, & Schwartz, 2012; Dobewall & Strack, 2014; Ahola, 2015; van Hoorn, 2015; Vveinhardt, & Gulbovaitė, 2016; Fung, Ho, Zhang, Zhang, Noels, & Tam, 2016), yet, there is no global definition of values (Dobewall & Strack, 2014). Scholars have conceptualized human values in their specific ways. For example, two theorists Williams (1968) and Kluckhohn (1951) stated that values as criteria and under the certain criteria individuals evaluate to other people, their actions, and events.

Rokeach (1973, p. 5) defined as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence”. Rokeach (1973) further demonstrated that values serve as the powerful force behind the behavioral reactions of the individuals. Similarly, Moyo, Goodyear-Smith, Jennifer, Robb, and Shulruf (2016) defined values as a central belief of what an individual reflects right, or desirable belief (Moyo, Goodyear-Smith, Jennifer, Robb, & Shulruf, 2016) which guides the individuals throughout their lives. Along these conceptualizations, Schwartz (1994: p.21) considered values as “desirable trans-situational goals, varying in importance, that serve as guiding principles in the life of a person or other social entity”. More precisely, Schwartz (2003b) further demonstrated that value orientation “are deeply rooted abstract motivations that guide, justify, or explain attitudes, norms, opinions, and actions” (p.261).

Over the last two decades, scholars have used several theoretical approaches to study the concept of personal human values with the goal of explaining a broader spectrum of human motivations (Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004; Rohan, 2000). Along with other values frameworks, Schwartz’s (1992) initially introduced a theoretical framework of basic human values and further refined in the recent publication (Schwartz, Cieciuch, Vecchione, Davidov, Fischer, Beierlein, & Dirilen-Gumus, 2012). Schwartz’s model of value priorities lays emphasis on the universal prospect of the content and structure of individual’s personal values. In 2007, Haidt and Graham developed a moral foundations theory with its main focus on morality and moral values. The functional theory of human values proposed by Gouveia, Milfont, and Guerra’s (2014) with the aim of explaining the functions of values. However, modernization theory is given by a political scientist Inglehart (1977), Inglehart and Welzel, (2010) which sheds the light on cultural value change and cross-cultural variations whereas, cultural comparison, can be seen in the several Hofstede’s (1980, 2001) studies. Following the series of studies, Robert

J. House of the Wharton (1991) offered Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOB) with the goal of focusing culture, leadership, and organizations.

In this study, we have focused Schwartz's (1992) theoretical model of personal human values because it captures a wide-ranging set of universal basic values and specifies their relationships, that ultimately allows us to analyze the individuals values and has been broadly studied and gained a considerable empirical support (Knafo, Roccas, & Sagiv, 2011; Ahola, 2015). Accordingly, we presumed that Schwartz model of basic values is the best suited validated theoretical approach to better understand our hypothesized relations as it was also conducted in 67 nations.

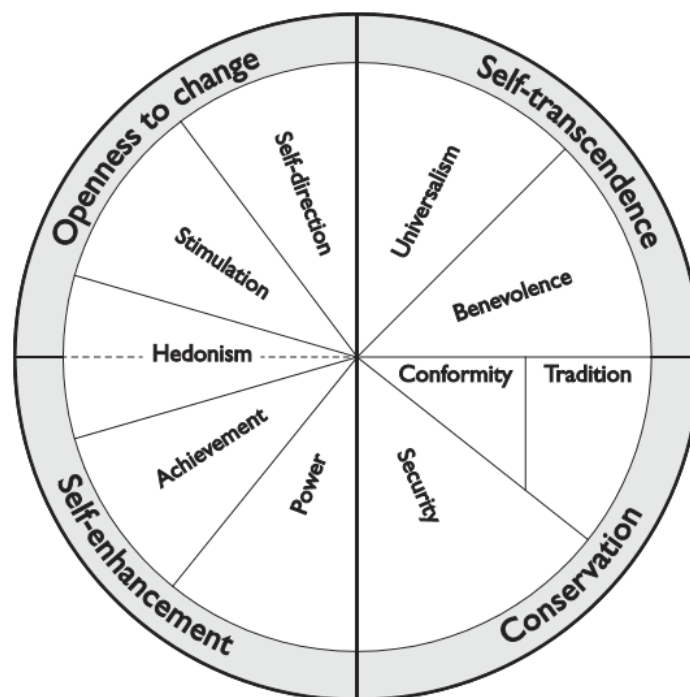


Figure 1.6: Theoretical Model of Relations Among Motivational Types of Values

Source: Basic Human Values: An Overview (adapted from Shalom H. Schwartz, 2005)

Schwartz (1992) viewed values as motivation or goals, therefore, considered them as the guiding principle in any individual's life and proposed 10 motivational values in his theoretical model (see Figure 1.6). The value types proposed by Schwartz possess two dimensions including self-transcendence (the degree to which individuals endorse the welfare of other individuals by exceeding the selfish behavior and value types (universalism and benevolence) in contrast self-enhancement: the degree to which individuals prefer to boost up their own interests even at the cost of others and value types (achievement and power). On the other hand,

openness to change is described by self-direction, stimulation, and hedonism in contrast conservation is characterized by security, conformity, and tradition. (See Figure-1.6).

Based on a recent division of the continuum into 19 distinct values, Schwartz (2012) has clarified as the values form a motivational range, therefore, it is equally justifiable which allows the scholars for using these ten different values, to combine some, or partition them more narrowly in their analyses. In other words, Schwartz et al. (2012) explained that refined theoretical model of basic values gives the researchers multiple options of working with large (all 19 values) or a small (original 10 values) set of values because it can be adjusted according to their objectives. Therefore, in this research, we have considered one dimension of the value circle self-enhancement (personal focus) versus self-transcendence (social focus).

Past research provides evidence that personal values in a particular way; influence the individual perceptions, attitude, and behaviors. In general, the theorists and scholars have considered values as the predictor of an individuals' attitudes as well as actual behaviors (Mayton, Ball- Rokeach, & Loges, 1994). Personal values may also manipulate the decision-making process. In the same manner, scholars such as Homer, and Kahle (1988) anticipated that values offer foundations for establishing of an individual's attitude which may lead to decision-making behavior. However, within the field of organizational behavior and management, the researchers considered personal values as an important component underlying human motivation and behavior (Locke, 1991). Skitka (2002) stated that individuals are supposed to practice fairness specifically in such situations when they presume that their important values which they really take care of them are followed, correspondingly, they assume there is unfairness when their significant values are being compromised. Through the conceptualization and operationalization of both dimensions of fairness (distributive and procedural) can be taken to think about in some detail—opposite value dimensions of self-transcendence Vs self-enhancement continuum of Schwartz's (1992) values model. Accordingly, the association of value orientations and fairness perceptions ought to signify that both procedural and distributive fairness are differentially linked to different outcomes, and it depends on the individuals' value orientations.

The individuals who value their interest more (self-enhancers) are negatively influenced and are more prone to negative behaviors (turnover/retaliation behavior) when they perceive that there is any element of unfair distribution of the scant resources. These individuals consider them to be more deserving for a better share as they count themselves as

far more capable and diligent. On the other hand, the individuals, who are in more favor to the welfare of the other (self-transcend) are more concerned about the fairness of procedures being carried out and their behaviors are shaped according to the alignment with their values Lipponen, Olkkonen, and Myyr, (2004).

Similarly, another dimension is the conservation Vs openness to change i.e. adaptation. If we talk about the openness to change such type of the people prefer of pursue their personal intellectual and exciting interests and the value types—self-direction, hedonism, and stimulation in contrast the people can prefer to maintain the status quo which guidelines are provided by association with close other, institutions or traditions and accordingly values types—tradition, security, and conformity. Previous literature also postulates that distributive fairness operationalized by following the equity principle, so putting on that, an individual perceives fairness if the outcomes (rewards) which he receives from the organization is comparable with an individual contributions/input towards the organization “abilities, efforts” (Moorman, 1991; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

As mentioned above, that values provide foundations for the development of an individual’s attitude which ultimately lead to a particular decision-making. Therefore, in an individual’s life values play a very vital role in formulating the idea or opinion regarding the fairness of procedures and division of the limited resources. Therefore, a great need is felt to conduct research in the domain of values’ role and its influence on the perception of fairness “distributive and procedural” (Feather, 1994).

However, values serve as objects by influencing how an individual evaluates a situation, therefore, certain action are perceived as attractive, and others are seen as negatively valent. Researchers have also suggested that values may differ, and specific values will be triggered from individual’s value structure in a relevant choice condition (Rokeach, 1968; Rokeach 1974; Zinas & Jusan 2011). Values may concern with the choice of behavior in the real-life environment (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Additionally, some other scholars have examined that values individuals holding self-transcendence values had a positive predictor of environmental behavior (Schultz et al., 2005). Accordingly, we anticipate the personal human values may also influence fairness perceptions and their responses. Thus, we presume that human values may paly an important role to understand the unfairness and its consequences on a variety of outcomes.

Table 1.2: Values and their Defining Goals

Values	Defining Goals
1. Self-Direction:	Independent thought and action; choosing, creating, exploring.
2. Stimulation:	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life.
3. Hedonism:	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself.
4. Achievement:	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.
5. Power:	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources.
6. Security:	Safety, harmony, and stability of society, of relationships, and of self.
7. Conformity:	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms.
8. Tradition:	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provides the self.
9. Benevolence:	Preserving and enhancing the welfare of those with whom one is in frequent personal contact (the 'in-group').
10. Universalism.	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature.

In the reference to value protection model, individuals consider those procedures and outcomes to be just and fair that they consider as aligned to their moral values. Their opinion may vary if they found those procedures and outcomes contradictory to their moral values (Skitka, 2002). Individual hold such a strong bond and inclination towards their moral values that if at any time they witness and clash behavior or stimuli they perceive it as an intimidation towards their public and private identity. When the individuals will feel the clash among the values and the fairness issues and are intimidated by the situation they react to these stimuli and are more prone to burnout or negative behaviors like low performance, commitment, high turnover etc.

Nowadays the workers have become well aware, flexible and more sophisticated, so nobody can predict about their satisfaction and commitment to the organization. For the moment, occupational considerations will be the motivational force at the back of an employees' decision about retention or leaving the job (Cohen, 2003). Therefore, more research is required to be conducted in more sophistication by analyzing the effect of values

on employees' job satisfaction, commitment and employees performance. For more precise understanding the relationship of personal values and outcomes, some mediators and moderating variables can be a useful contribution in this domain (Cohen, 2010). Each of the ten basic values can be characterized by describing its central motivational goals as given above (see table 1.2).

Values and Need: There are some complexities between the relationship of values and needs according to Super (1995), the source of values is in needs; which are survival related demonstrations of physiological situations. For instance, hunger is a need which entails satisfaction, on the other hand; if we talk about the conflict avoidance we ought to be concentrated on social conditions when we decide what and how we eat. Another researcher like Rokeach (1973) also described the values as cognitive manifestations of needs which have been converted to consider social approvals. Rokeach (1973) further clarified the context by demonstrating that; in fact, the function of human values is to satisfy the needs as well as to maintain the self-esteem simultaneously. The intricacy of the relationship between the values and needs: a value provides various needs to some extent; hold back others to some extent, half meet up and remaining half blocks silent others as illustrated by Kluckhohn (1954). Additionally, the researcher has argued that values both stem from and generate needs. For further clarifications of conceptual relation between values and needs by using Maslow's (1954) scrutiny of "deficiency" Vs "growth" needs. For instance; deficiency needs, suchlike safety, ought to be satisfied prior than the growth needs, suchlike self-actualization, can be wanted (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994).

Moreover, the authors elaborated that in growth needs both values and traits are co-variant; illustrated that an individual characterized by trait curiosity is expected to rate highly to self-direction. On the other hand, in values and traits might be compensatory in deficiency needs. For instance, an individual characterized by anxiety is not to be expected rate highly to simulation, other than to try to find security. Consequently, the relationship with the values and other follows on whether individual's attitude, behavior or personality trait is intended at deficiency needs or satisfying growth.

Value as Personal Resource: Theorists' debate in literature provides evidence that values cause behavior (Rohan, 2000). For example, Lowe, and Corkindale (1998) demonstrate that in values impact behaviors of consumers, therefore, societal variations in values is too important for organizations (Kahle, Poulos, & Sukhdial, 1988). Indeed, values are fundamental beliefs of

what people or a particular social group consider right or good (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck 1961). Whereas, existing literature has shown a significant association of personal values with clinical decisions (Moyo et al., 2016), consumption (Shaw, Grehan, Shiu, Hassan, & Thomson, 2005) link has been established in the existing literature, fashion leadership (Goldsmith, Freiden, & Kilsheimer, 1993) pro-environmental attitudes and behavior (Shean & Shei, 1995; Karp, 1996; Schultz & Zelenzy, 1998; Dietz, 2002).

Schwartz (1992) developed the value that has been tested in a diverse sample (200) in 67 different countries (Rocca, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002) across a wide range of human behaviors (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, p. 551) defined values “are concepts or beliefs, pertaining to desirable end states, which transcend specific situations, guide selection or evaluation of behavior and events, and are ordered by relative importance”. However, Rokeach (1968) demonstrate that values are not specific to a certain situation or objects. For instance, values such as honesty and obedience are related to a specific situation including home or work interactions with parents, friends, co-workers or strangers etc. However, according to Schwartz (2012), their significance to diverse circumstances separates values from attitude as well as feelings, that also postulate preferences on the way to various behaviors (Bergman, 1998).

Contrary to values, individuals’ attitudes and behaviors generally reflect evaluations of particular situations, objects or actions with some amount of (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005). In addition, Schwartz (1992) explicated that individuals’ or a specific group’s values are organized in relevant importance to one another, whereas attitudes and behaviors are not. Several scholars have noted that values showed a significant impact on individuals’ behaviors that provides guidelines to judge the people, and their reactions (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992).

Indeed, a long and narrow way, classically the values like having walls both sides, that permits to enter a building or to various rooms within a building. As discussed above that individuals may vary regarding their preferences on specific values (Rokeach, 1973). Similarly, all the values are not equally important for all individuals at the same time in a certain context (Rokeach, 1968; Schwartz, 2012). It depends on the context, specific values trigger when they are relevant to the particular context (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz 2012). Schwartz (2012) further explained by taking an example, that individual who values freedom may trigger this value at

the time when an individual perceives his freedom is at stake, and values function at individual and collective levels of identity (Meglino & Ravlin 1998; Hofstede, 1998; Schwartz, 1999).

According to Dose (1997) values overlap across these levels; some values are extensively communal by a collective, whereas some values are conventional rendering to the inclinations of individuals. Since, literature postulates that personal values influence individual's behavior and choices as people use values as a guide in their lives (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992), thus, the current research investigates stressor (unfairness) and strain (outcome of stress) relationship articulating the moderating effects of personal human values that guide individuals in reacting unfairness at workplace. Similarly, individual's behavior may affect the relationship between individual's values and resource appraisals. This is anticipated as an individual's reaction to the threat or actual loss is likely to fluctuate depending on values that individual has been connected with the specific resource that is threatened or actual loss (Hobfoll, 1989).

However, Hobfoll (1989) indicated that personal resources including attributes personal values such as (importance of success/achievement/accomplishment), personality trait (generalized self-esteem, self-efficacy, locus of control, dispositional optimism, as well as some other characteristics, includes positive affect (e.g., Nelson & Simmons, 2003; Cooper, 2012). On the other hand, there are values acting as a motivational goal that guides individual's behavior. At the outset, as we discussed that we strive to answer the question that why individuals respond differently, even a group of individuals face similar unfairness at the workplace. Taken the theoretical foundations of personal human values in the current research, we propose that individuals' preference plays an important role in shaping their outcome at the workplace. Since, personal values guides behaviors and attitudes, with that, said, when a group of employees faces unfairness at the workplace, these values guide them to react, and a specific value activates depending on individual's preferences.

1.6.2 Equity Sensitivity

As such, we also contribute to fairness research and, more precisely, to research on individual differences in their reactions to unfair treatment of organizations' authorities. In doing so, we intended to include, equity sensitivity as an individual difference construct hoping that equity sensitivity, may influence the relationships of unfairness and individuals' responses (in terms of variety of stress outcomes). The main reason for choosing equity sensitivity because of its

importance in its respective theory. As equity sensitivity has received an increasing attention as a construct that enhances not only theoretical but also practical grounds of the social comparison processes from which they stem (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987).

When employees perceive unfairness in organizations, researchers and practitioners have noted the negative consequences of unfairness (Colquitt et al., 2001). While scholars have examined that situational and individual's personal characteristics help to enhance our understanding of employees' attitudes and behaviors at the workplace (Terborg, 1981; Schneider, 1983). Based on equity theory (Adams, 1965,1963) individuals evaluate their fairness at work by comparing the ratios between individuals' outcomes (tangible rewards, promotion, etc.) and inputs (organizational assignments, goals, targets, etc.) and then by comparing these ratios with their colleagues or co-workers. In the case of the inequitable situation; individuals perceived that their outcomes are not equating their inputs (i.e., under-reward or over-reward). As a result, individuals are expected to be motivated in restoring the equity using cognitive or behavioral strategies.

Though features of Adams' equity theory are largely accepted in various field of studies and has appeared as one of the key motivational models in organizational behavior and human resource management (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2007), yet, the scholars have noted that individuals may react differently to the situation perceived to be equitable or inequitable at workplace (Liguori, Taylor, Choi, Kluemper, & Sauley, 2011). Different outcomes in response to the inequity at work show the contrary results from the basic conceptualization of equity theory (Adams, 1965), which presumed that individuals are universally preferred equity. Simply, equity theory demonstrates that an individual or employee are concerned with the equity between his outcomes/inputs to the ratio of outcomes/inputs of a referent other, and if there is inequity, the individual experiences uneasiness and strive to bring this equation back into balance. In its place of perceiving that all employees prefer to have equal response/outcome ratios comparing to others, equity scholars have documented individuals may vary in their sensitivity to the violations of fairness at the workplace (e.g., Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1985). However, taken the perspective of individual differences, Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1985,1987) have given a new stance on individuals' equity preferences is termed "equity sensitivity" (see Figure 1.7). In addition, scholars have also claimed that increasing attention of organizational scholars in using theoretical concept of equity theory is because of the development of equity sensitivity variable, which has enhanced the analytical

usefulness of theory (King, Miles, & Day, 1993; King & Miles, 1994; Bing & Burroughs, 2001; Roehling, Roehling, & Boswell, 2010).

Since the origination of this concept, scholars have given a considerable attention in studying equity sensitivity during the last three decades (Bynum & Davison, 2014). Indeed, researchers have realized that individuals may perceive and response to unfairness at work in different ways (Hayibor, 2015; Jeon & Newman, 2016). Equity sensitivity may be explicated by stable feature and personality traits of the victims of unfairness. Based on individual differences in equity preferences, in this research, we intended to examine whether individuals who are more outcome oriented (i.e. get from the organization) are expected to respond more negatively to unfair events than those who prefer to develop a strong relational bond with their organization (i.e. by contributing towards organization). In the following sections, we further explore the dynamics of equity sensitivity to further understand this individual difference construct.

In general, the main theme behind the equity sensitivity is that individuals are different regarding their level of equity preferences in terms of their judgments about outcomes/input ratios. The term equity sensitivity (Huseman et al., 1985,1987) describes a specific taxonomy of individuals' preferences into three categories such as benevolent, equity sensitive and entitled (see Figure 1.7). The equity model proposes that all the individuals are equally sensitive concerning equity; they have their preferences relating to equal outcomes ratios and inputs with the comparison to others. In addition, scholars have demonstrated three categories of individuals' preferences besides presenting the continuum. First, in "benevolence" the individuals focus on outputs/input ratios are less than with comparison to co-workers, and generally concentrate on giving rather than receiving (Huseman et al., 1985). Later on, scholars have considered benevolence, those who are more tolerant for under-rewards (King et ., 1993; O'Niel & Mone, 1998). Individuals who are at high level of benevolence seems to be more interested in investing and believe in long-term relationships with their organization. However, based on the more tolerant nature (altruism) of individuals may be considered "givers" (Hatfield & Sprecher,1983).

$\frac{O}{I} < \frac{O}{I}$	$\frac{O}{I} = \frac{O}{I}$	$\frac{O}{I} > \frac{O}{I}$
P O	P O	P O
Benevolents	Equity Sensitives	Entitleds

P = Person
O = Comparison other

Figure 1.7: Equity Sensitivity

Source: Huseman et al. (1987)

Previous research provides evidence that benevolent, being on the getting end of social exchanges are very unpleasant, in contrast being a giver or "giving" are extremely pleasant (Greenberg & Westcott, 1983; Huseman et al., 1985). Individuals falling within the mid-range of the continuum are termed "equity sensitive", and adhere more sensitive to comparing the outputs/inputs ratios to the others and want equity between investment and gain (Huseman et al., 1985). Equity sensitives are expected to behave similar to former equity principles, perusing to equate their outcome/input ratios, and also remain unpleasant in both over-reward or under-reward situations. Finally, the third category at the other extreme, individuals are known as "entitled" prefer their ratios of outcome to be greater comparable to input ratios (Huseman et al., 1985). Scholars have argued that entitled are more concern about the outcomes "getters" and were likely to be distress when they failed to exceed their requires ratios, and thus want over-reward.

Different Perspectives on Conceptualization: To assess, individuals' equity sensitivity Huseman and colleagues (1985, 1987) developed as a forced distribution scale, called equity sensitivity instrument (ESI), which allows respondents, that they distribute a total of 10 points between benevolent and equity sensitives. It was the first measuring scale developed by Huseman and colleagues (1985,1987) and remain popular in organizational research studies. the past research provides evidence that scholars have used ESI in a number of research studies to explain the relations between individual variations in equity sensitivity and several other variables including, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, self-esteem, turnover propensity, equity perceptions, Machiavellianism, and threshold for anger and guilt (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987; King et al., 1993; King and Miles, 1994; Bing & Burroughs, 2001). Though, the idea of equity sensitivity was conceptualized as unidimensional personality trait (Woodely

& Allen, 2014), however, the authors have stated that equity exists, when situation equalizes individuals' own parameters of equity sensitivity and it is compatible with their preferences regarding the comparison others (Huseman et al., 1987). Based on past research recently, Tylor, Kluemper, and Sauley (2009) have argued that equity sensitivity concept has shown inconsistencies in this conceptualization. Similarly, other scholars such as Allen and White (2002) have reported inconsistent results in their studies, that entitled are more fervent about the outputs/inputs ratios and even confront with such inequalities, on the other hand, benevolent showed low concern about outputs/inputs ratios and avoid confronting but also exhibited high tolerance even if inequities are occurring. Despite, the authors have struggled to describe these inconsistencies by reconceptualising the equity sensitivity construct as a tolerance for, yet the results are inconsistent (e.g., Miles et al., 1989; Zellars & Kacmar 1999; Allen & White 2002). Considering equivocal findings, of equity sensitivity the scholars have started to reconceptualise this concept and have tried to expand its operationalization through improved measurements (Foote & Harmon 2006; Davison & Bing 2008).

Based on scholarly criticism on equity sensitivity instrument appropriateness of sample- specific scoring as well as trichotomization of scores (see Sauley & Bedeian, 2000; Bynum & Davison, 2014). Lately, Davison and Bing (2008) have conceptualized equity sensitivity as a two-dimensional construct claiming it might be appropriate conceptualized as a multidimensional construct: a “benevolence” input focused dimension and an “entitlement” outcomes-focused dimension. Moreover, scholars have also claimed that it is more consistent with original equity theory of Adams (1965), as considers outcomes and inputs as distinct parts of the equity ratio. For example, the scholar has demonstrated that individual who put more emphasis to contribute towards organizations are known as benevolent (input focus), on the other hand, those individuals who prefer to get from the organization are referred as entitled (outcome focus). Accordingly, scholars echoed equity sensitivity two-dimensional construct first input focused (benevolence) and the second outcome focused (entitled).

Davison and Bing (2008), explicate that high inputs and low outcomes, preference would result in benevolent whereas, high outcomes and low inputs would result in an entitled prototype (see the Figure 1.8). Equity sensitivity will arise in the case of high tendency of focus on both inputs and outcomes. The scholars further claimed that benevolence and entitled as distinct dimensions in the existing model may allow in improving the estimation of appropriate organizational criteria, because it may interact to explain the individuals'

behavior. The latter measuring scale uses the same items to assess the equity sensitivity as the initial equity sensitivity instrument, nevertheless, it permits for two dimensions of this construct (instead of initial ESI's single dimension) using a Likert-type response scale. Based on this recommendation we used a Likert-type scale to assess individual equity sensitivity (see chapter-4 measures section).

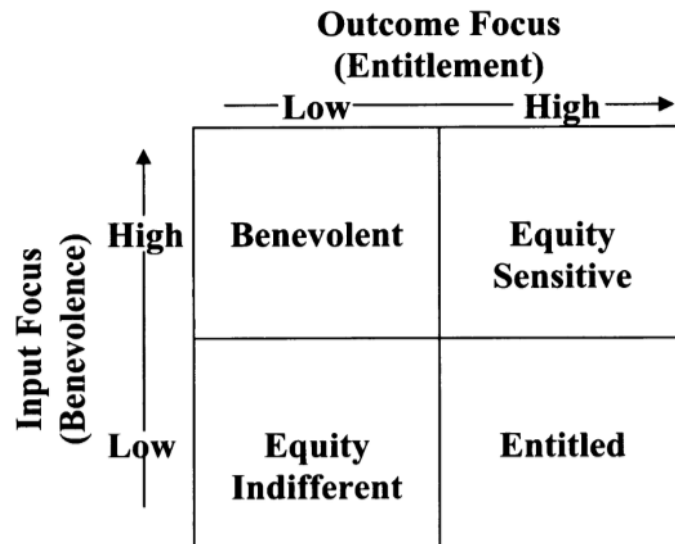


Figure 1.8: Equity Sensitivity Two-Dimensional Construct

Source: Davison and Bing (2008)

Organizational scholars have examined that the equity sensitivity showed positive association with organizational commitment (King & Miles 1994; O'Neill & Mone 1998), employees' job satisfaction (King et al. 1993), organizational citizenship behaviors, (Akan et al. 2009), ratings of job performance (Bing & Burroughs, 2001) (O'Neill & Mone 1998), employees beliefs about their workplace assignments and rights (e.g., Raja et al. 2004). In addition, Restubog, Bordia, and Bordia (2009) have examined the positive relationship of equity sensitivity with affective commitment as well as civic virtue behavior. However, Kim, Yang, & Lee, (2013) have has investigated the relationship between gender differences and equity sensitivity. Past research has further suggested that both benevolent and entitled exhibit a high level of job satisfaction whenever they were rewarded subject to the both types of individuals (O'Neill & Mone, 1998). While, Miles, et al. (1989) empirically noted the inferences of equity sensitivity concerning performance, relating benevolence preferences; individuals prefer lower outputs to inputs ratios as compared to the entitled and equity sensitives, these results support the model of equity sensitivity. Further, researchers have empirically examined that benevolent found

more productive even they get low (outputs) rewards as compared to the entitled and equity sensitivity. Benevolent (giving to an organization) proved themselves to be more productive although they receive low salaries in contrast to the entitled (getting from the organization) as well as equity sensitives. Exceedingly, another research study (King, Miles, Day, &1993) has produced the similar results with the Miles, et al. (1989), indeed their study had two parts in sequence. Nevertheless, the first part focuses on the individuals' performance in relating to the rewards, whereas, the second part placed emphasis to explain that how individuals' ideologies exchanges. Consequently, they observed that benevolent were placed at the highest level of importance to the work performance in contrast both entitled and equity sensitives were more concerned for their payments/salaries.

Taken the perspective of individuals' difference, Woodley, and Allen, (2014), have shed the light on equity sensitivity in explaining that individuals may differ in their perceptions the "norm" of equity. Several scholars such as O'Neill and Mone (1998) have conceptualized equity sensitivity as a personality trait (Huseman et al., 1987) which is grounded on an individual's preference regarding input to outcome ratio and categorized into three different to capture individuals' equity sensitivity: benevolent, entitled, and sensitives. To illustrate these distinctions, consider, for example, individuals who are at high level of "benevolent" prefer to give more than receiving. Second, individuals who are more "equity sensitive" those individuals are most closely to the previously described the benevolent, therefore, such type of individuals behave like the benevolent. Whereas those individuals who tend to prefer in receiving (Entitled) more than in giving, therefore, they consider at low level on equity sensitivity (Huseman et al., 1987). Further, Huseman et al. (1987) theorized that equity sensitivity helps in to better understand the employees' behavior at the workplace. For instance, equity sensitivity is associated with pay satisfaction (Miles et al., 1989) and significantly impacted the performance of prosocial behaviors in collective work assignments (Akan, Allen, & White, 2009). The scholars have concluded that individuals who are equity sensitives are more satisfied with their jobs while their outcomes/inputs ratios were equated with the others and their satisfaction level, experienced comparatively low whenever they were under-rewarded or over-rewarded.

Along the different conceptualizations, scholars have also used equity sensitivity construct as a moderator of several organizational predictors and outcome relationships. For example, the equity sensitivity played a moderating role between, fairness perceptions and

organizational citizenship behaviors (Blakely et al., 2005). Similarly, equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between individual self-efficacy and work attitudes (O'Neill & Mone, 1998). More precisely Huseman et al. (1987) suggested that equity sensitivity (as individual difference variable) is offered moderate the relationships between perceived fairness and outcomes variables. Taken into account, we presume that equity sensitivity has been appeared to be a, however, important construct that can be helpful to understand the individuals' attitude and behaviors at the workplace (Woodley & Allen 2014). With that said, past research has also shown the mixed track record related to this predicted pattern (Blakely et al., 2005), however, above mentioned arguments enforce organizational scholars that more research is needed in particular, individuals' equity sensitivity construct as a moderator of the relationships between potential work stressors (e.g. unfairness) and related work outcomes. Based on earlier discussion and existing literature we can expect that equity has appeared to be important to enhance our knowledge of individuals' work attitude and behaviors. More specifically, individuals' equity preferences can have important consequences for how individuals' response differently to an unfair event at work. By the same token, this research includes unfairness at work as work stressors that leads to strain (stress outcomes) with the moderating role of equity sensitivity and personal human values.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter discusses the concept to fairness perceptions at workplace and employees' responses to these perceptions in terms of personal and organizational outcomes. Since this research considered unfairness as stressor that can have a deleterious effect on employees' strain (outcomes of stress), however, for better understanding these relations, we have discussed some prominent and relevant stress frameworks to integrate the relationship between fairness as a stressor and its effects on workplace outcomes in the light of previous research. Further, a question remains that if a group of employees faces an unfair event at work, although they face a similar unfairness event, why the similar responses do not emerge. However, scholars have suggested that individual differences and contextual variation can influence the stressor (unfairness) and strain (outcomes of stress) relationships, thus we also provided the theoretical basis and dynamic role of individual differences constructs such as personal human values and equity sensitivity.

Next, findings from the previous empirical research commonly pointed out that unfairness as stressor has been found to induces the negative feelings among employees that lead to negative work outcomes including reduced commitment, well-being and increased strain (outcomes of stress). To investigate a global perspective of unfairness we discussed two competing models such as organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance and their relationship with the variety of work outcomes in next chapter.

2

Models of Unfairness and Outcome Relationships

Occupational stress and its potential consequences for employees' well-being issues are frequently been studied over the past six decades. Accordingly previous chapter provided the link between stressors and strain, and found that unfairness is a crucial stressor that needs to be studied. We also discussed that relationship between stressors and strain outcome is influenced by personal characteristic values and equity sensitivity play vital role to understand these relations. Therefore, a brief overview of past studies allowed us to explore the central concepts and theories relevant to the two competing approaches such as: organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance to study the role of unfairness on stress outcomes in this chapter. Afterwards, the next section lays emphasis on the outcomes variables—job-burnout (JBO), turnover intention (TOI), organizational commitment (OC), employees' performance (EMPS) and employees' in role behavior (EIRB) as well as their relationships with main predictors (organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance) of this research. The outcome of the literature in the shape of theoretical framework and study hypotheses will be reported in chapter 3.

2.1 Two Competing Approaches of Unfairness

In preceding chapter, we have discussed the concept of unfairness at work in a broader perspective as well as its negative consequences for organizational members. Based on stress frameworks we also have considered unfairness as a work stressor that has deleterious effects on stress outcomes. Further, the individual differences factors which can reduce the negative effects of unfairness on stress outcomes were also discussed. Existing literature describes that scholars have introduced several stress frameworks in explaining stressors and strain relationships. However, there are two competing models: organizational justice (OJ) and effort-reward imbalance (ERI) have taken a prominent place in organizational behavior, applied and medical sociology literature to examine the health outcomes in various occupational groups (Colquitt et al., 2001; Siegrist et al., 2004). Based on their unique features, both approaches claim that they have stronger predictive power than other. Taken this, we intend to examine empirically that which model wins out, for the said purpose we extensively reviewed the both OJ and ERI approaches in the following section.

2.1.1 Organizational Justice

Organizational justice defines the individual subjective perceptions of fairness with which organizational management treat them (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012; Whitman, Caleo, Carpenter, Horner, & Bernerth, 2012; Ouyang, Sang, Li, & Peng, 2015). A Higher level of employees' perceptions regarding fairness in organizational authorities can lead to a positive work attitude and behavior. For example, organizational justice is positively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Silva & Caetano, 2014; López-Cabarcos, Machado-Lopes-Sampaio-de, & Vázquez-Rodríguez, 2015). On the other hand, lower degree of employees' perceptions regarding fair treatment of authorities can have harmful effects on physical and psychological well-being, and a variety of stress outcomes (Silva & Caetano, 2014).

Further, as we have discussed in chapter 1, much of research has been conducted over the 50 years for the predictive role of unfairness and variety of work outcomes. For example, individuals who perceive fairness at work, remain satisfied, show commitment with their organization and will be less likely in quitting the organizations (e.g., Loi et al., 2009). On the other hand, individuals who perceive that their organizations/ manager do not treat justly will

be showing negative attitude such as reduced personal well-being, low performance, and remain dissatisfied with their jobs, that ultimately affects the organizational functioning (Bobocel & Hafer, 2007). In line with the previous findings, we argue that organizational justice is widely recognized as a useful concept for predicting individuals' work behaviors and attitudes. However, hundreds of research articles published in top tier journals since 50 years, have shown that perceptions of fair treatment are different from the feelings of outcomes satisfaction (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Skitka, Winkler, & Hutchinson, 2003). Further, those research studies have demonstrated that fairness perceptions explicate exclusive variations in employees' attitude and behaviors including organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, counterproductive behavior, task performance and trust in management (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Existing research shows a common agreement that organizational justice is a multi-faceted construct, with those facets reflecting different rules identified in important theorizing (Colquitt et al., 2015).

2.1.1.1 Premises of Organizational Justice Theory

There are several theories in the literature and the researchers have tried to integrate these theories with the idea of organizational justice and similarly we discussed various theories to explain the crucial role of organizational justice.

2.1.1.2 Organizational Justice and Social Exchange Theory

In 1958 an American sociologist George Homans proposed an influential theory called social exchange theory (SET) to understand the workplace behavior (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). George Homans, explains in his book "Social Behavior as Exchange" that social exchange as the exchanges of activities, both tangible and intangible, and rewarding or costly, between two parties. Further, SET explains that how relationships grow over time into trusting, loyal, and mutual commitments (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Therefore, both parties have to fulfill the requirement of "rules" of exchange. Rules of exchange formulae a "normative definition of the situation that forms among or is adopted by the participants in an exchange relation" (Emerson, 1976: 351). Accordingly, these rules and norms provide guidance to both parties for exchanging process. Therefore, based on these certain rules and norms of exchange researchers

use SET in models of organizational behaviors to understand employee-employer exchanges. Generally, management scholars have emphasized on the basic prospect of reciprocity, yet, several exchanges rules have been defined in social exchange theory.

SET can be viewed as a viable theoretical framework to examine the relational processes in employee-employer relationships. The basic tenet of SET is that individuals (employee-employer) in relationship motivated by the goodness of outcomes they expect to bring (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959; Blau, 1964). In workplace settings individuals (employee and employer) who receive favorable outcomes from each other—the reciprocity between rewards and costs are distributed in a fair ratio to each other—are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs (Homans, 1974). SET further suggests that when (rewards-costs) employee-employer exchanges are perceived as equitable, this tends to be a development of fairness between the employee-employer relationship. More specifically, scholars have argued that fairness can foster a high-quality of social exchange, which involves an agreement between both parties.

Moorman (1991) demonstrated that fair treatment would cause employees to reevaluate their working relationship as one of social exchange. However, Konovsky and Pugh (1994) argued that fairness would convey the sort of trust that made social exchange relationships more viable, thereby encouraging organizational citizenship behaviors. As we discussed in the previous section that organizational justice refers to an exchange between the employer and its employees. Past research indicates that formal procedure (procedural justice) are generally made by top management and written on behalf of the organization (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001). When employees presume that these procedures are fair, in return they try to “repay” the firm, by shaping positive attitude and behavior toward the organization (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999; Masterson, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). For instance, past research demonstrates that both distributive and procedural justice are positively related to employee performance (Folger & Konovsky, 1989).

Moreover, scholars have argued that a little but consistent body of research has also developed different relationships between the specific facet of fairness and seemingly corresponding social exchange relationships. For example, procedural justice, which is the fairness of the formal procedures underlying organizations’ decisions about their employees (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), inclines to predict perceived organizational support (POS), a social exchange relationship between employee and employer (Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). Whereas, interactional justice, that refers to fairness of the

interpersonal justice exhibited during the performing of the procedures underlying top management decisions (Bies & Moag, 1986), inclines to predict leader-member exchange (LMX), a social exchange relationship between an employee and his or her immediate manager (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002; Masterson et al., 2000).

2.1.1.3 Organizational Justice and Equity Theory

Early literature, demonstrates that researchers have mainly focused on the fairness of decision outcomes, termed distributive justice. Based on earlier work done by Homans (1961), Adams (1965) revealed that people respond to outcome received by evaluating their proportions of outcomes with comparing others. In case, individuals' outcomes do not match with the ratios received by others, resultantly the individuals will be feeling a sense of inequity. Further, equity theory (Adams, 1963, 1965) that has linked within social exchange theory, introduced by George Homan (1958) explaining that formations of all human relations are rooted in the subject of cost-benefit analysis and the appraisals of the substitutes (Colquitt et al., 2013). Foundation of social exchange theory has connections with sociology, psychology, and economics. Equity theory provides a mechanism, where a person's fairness perceptions depend on his evaluations, on what he or she consider to be fair when compare with others (Redmond, 2010). In workplace perspectives, equity theory lays emphasis on employees' input-outcome relationships and that fair or unfair perceptions lead to a variety of outcomes. Since equity theory explains the social relationship and fair/ unfairness, therefore, the researcher also calls it a social comparisons theory or inequity theory (Gogia, 2010). Individuals strive for a fair balance between what they contribute towards the organizations and what they get in turn.

According to Adams, we can call them inputs (efforts, loyalty, hard work, commitment, skills, abilities, adaptability, flexibility, tolerance, determination, heart and soul, enthusiasm, trust in our boss and superiors, support of colleagues and subordinates, personal sacrifice etc.) and output (financial rewards: pay, salary, expenses, perks, benefits, pension arrangements, bonus and commission; intangibles: recognition, reputation, praise and thanks, interest, responsibility, stimulus, travel, training, development, sense of achievement and advancement, promotion etc.). We evaluate of what constitutes a fair balance of inputs-outputs by comparing our circumstances with others at the workplace. In addition, our evaluations are also influenced by co-workers, friends, and parents in forming these standards and our own reactions to them

relating to our own ratios of inputs-outputs. It can be further demonstrated by the help of equation given below:

$$\frac{\text{Individual's Outcomes}}{\text{Individual's Own Inputs}} = \frac{\text{Relational Partner's Outcome}}{\text{Relational Partner's Input}}$$

If individuals, consider that their efforts are fairly rewarded by outputs (comparing to others) then they would be happy at their workplace and would remain motivated to continue inputting at the same level. In contrast, if individuals perceive that their inputs are not rewarded fairly comparing to the others, thus individual would become demotivated in relation to their jobs and employers. However, outcomes of unfairness may be in terms of, demotivation, unhappy or disruptive, intentions to leave for alternative jobs, in fact, the individuals make efforts to find ways how to cope with inequitable treatment (Mowday, 1991). Past research concerning to the organizational justice discusses that an individual care about the processes, outcomes and the perceived fairness regarding his distributions. Conventionally, the concept of justice and fairness started with Adams' equity theory (Adams, 1965), however, the idea of fairness or justice can be traced back as far as the ancient Greek: Socrates and Plato (Ryan, 1993). As one of the main issues in the fields of organizational behavior and human resource management, is organizational justice, the perception of fairness in the organization has been considered equally important among various aspects of organizations' processes such as performance, evaluation, compensation and discriminations.

2.1.1.4 Justice and Employees' Evaluations

In general, we observe that an individual is much concerned about justice even his early age of his life cycle, akin to the workplace an employee appraise about his fair treatment in the organization (Adams, 1965). The members, who perceive that they are treated with justice, develop a sense of modesty and decency which serves as a glue and help them to work jointly in an effective and efficient way. Justice presents the real sense of the association with the employer. On the other hand, it could act as an acerbic agent if the climate of injustice felt and could be destructive for both employees and the employers (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Moreover, Cropanzano et al. (2007) reported that organizational justice as a personal appraisal

of an individual in essence of the moral and ethical status of the managers in the in the organization.

In accordance with this approach, the management has to produce the justice retrospectively taking into account of an employee. Greenberg (1987) also viewed organizational justice in reference to the employees' behaviors and attitudes; they reveal depending upon their perceived judgments/evaluations about justice and fairness. Greenberg (1987) further argues that organizational justice reflects the members' view whether they are satisfied with the outcomes or not. Commonly, scholars have been conceptualized organizational justice comprise to three factors includes distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2005), and most of the scholars have focused on procedural justice, comparing to other factors. However, many research scholars concur with the classification (Greenberg, 1993) who considered organizational justice as four factor construct, distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Goldman et al., 2007; Crawshaw, Cropanzano, Bell, & Nadisic, 2013). In addition, a seminal study (Colquitt, 2001) explains that four factors of organizational justice are empirically different, thus, it should be differentiated from each other.

2.1.1.5 Justice and Employees' Emotions

If we browse the literature, the several scholars have discussed that how the negative behaviors and emotions arise because of justice perceptions (e.g., Folger, 1986; Rutte & Messick, 1995). Many research articles postulate that employees' perceptions of injustice lead to higher levels of organizational retaliation behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997). To study the different facets of emotions, cognitive experiences, behaviors and attitudes of the individual's many approaches have been considered (see Strongman, 1996 for discussion). Previously it was remained problematic to extend the study on one boundary condition of justice (Colquitt & Greenberg, 2003), therefore the researchers suggest that in future the research may be conducted with the boundary conditions of justice to understand the phenomena that when the justice does matter and for whom. In addition to that, the researcher also suggested for finding out the other theories within the domain of organizational justice for identifying the other moderators to precise the justice effects. The future research may be included in other broad range of outcomes like stress, strain, mood and emotions and trust as well. Negative affectivity was also discussed by Watson and Clark (1984) who viewed it as an aspect of personality

which explains the intensity and frequency of the persons' emotions including stress, anxiety, resentment, Fear, aggression, and anger. They deduced that people having higher levels of negative affectivity are more prone to the negative moods and emotions. The high level of negative affect is related to the injustice and leads to the deviant behavior at the workplace (Aquino et al., 1999).

2.1.2 Debate on Dimensionality of Organizational Justice

Commonly, justice perceptions of individuals are viewed in three dimensions i.e. distributive fairness, interactional fairness and procedural fairness. Although, scholars have been considered interactional justice as a subcomponent of procedural justice, yet a number of studies have operationalized interactional justice as distinct facet of organizational justice (Bies, 1987; Bies & Moag, 1986; Blodgett, Tax, & Hill, 1997; Folger & Bies, 1989; Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Mossholder, Kemery, & Wesolowski, 1998; Tyler & Bies, 1990; Corner, 2003).

Past research shows that researchers have mainly focused on procedural justice than distributive, interactional or informational justice (e.g., Greenberg, 1990; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997). However, scholars' less attraction instead of in studying other dimensions does not mean that rest are unimportant. However, several researchers also highlight the importance of four-dimensional construct: Distributive, Procedural, and Interpersonal and Informational justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Shapiro, 1994; Colquitt, 2001).

Following Table 2.1 depicts a brief description of each component. Nevertheless, distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice serve as antecedents of overall fairness, with overall fairness then serving as an antecedent of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Colquitt, 2012). Additionally, this dissertation discusses each dimension of organizational justice in next section.

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Table 2.1: Dimensions of Justice Approach

Justice Components	Author's Name	Description
Distributive Justice	Leventhal (1976)	Refers to employees' perceptions regarding the distribution of organizational rewards in terms of pay or promotion.
Procedural Justice	Thibaut, & Walker (1975) Leventhal (1980)	Refers to employees' perceptions regarding the fairness of formal procedures that are used to the distribution of the rewards.
Interpersonal justice	Bies, & Moag, (1986)	Interactional justice focuses on employees' perceptions regarding the fairness of how the procedures are put into action.
Informational justice	Bies, & Moag, (1986), Greenberg, (1993), Shapiro, (1994), Colquitt, (2001)	Refers the degree of justification and truthfulness offered during procedures

Dimensions of Organizational Justice: By scanning the literature, we have found are several dimensions of organizational justice. Accordingly, researchers divide organizational justice into four different dimensions-distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justices (e.g., Tyler & Lind 1992; Colquitt, 2001). Adams (1965) explained that distributive justice is the fairness of reward allocation, employees evaluate the outcomes by comparing their outcomes ratios with the outcomes of the others. On the other hand, whether Levnthal (1976) said that whether reward receives from the organization match with the appropriate norms. Employees perceive that their manager shows fairness in allocation reward in terms of pay and promotions and as well as some other financial benefits.

The studies at the micro level found that individuals consider their inputs and efforts of vital importance as compared to relevant others (e.g., Messick & Sentis, 1979; Messe, Lawrence, Hymes, & MacCoun, 1986). When individuals think that they performed, they always prefer equitable distributions but when their performance is of the lower level, they favor equal distribution of rewards (Cook & Hegtv edt, 1983). It was also witnessed that when they are at a beneficial side they consider that fairness prevails but considers the situation unfair when they are in a losing position.

There is a debate that most of the literature is available on the interactional justice and procedural justice on the cost of distributive justice as stated by Lefkowitz (2009), but the author did not explain how? Is the distributive justice is preoccupied with the things other than three facets of organizational justice; it is to be less than what they did as argued by Greenberg (2009). In fact, the managers are more determined to apply interactional justice in the workplace due to the reason that they consider its potential facet of justice and they can uphold it by making the individual efforts. In addition to that, the employees are well-aware now about both forms of justice, distributive and procedural justice and how they address whether injustice in these forms (Greenberg, 1986) moreover how these forms of justice determinately breaking of the regulations (Conlon, Meyer, & Nowakowski, 2005). Therefore, coming at the end it suggested that not only the distributive justice and procedural justice are considerable as argued by (Lefkowitz, 2009) but all other forms of justice like interactional and informational justice have values fed into a function Greenberg (2009). Following the different constructs of organizational justice, tend to review the fairness/justice literature comprises on four components: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal, and informational justice separately.

2.1.2.1 Distributive Justice

Extant research has indicated that the first dimension of organizational justice is called distributive justice (Cropanzano, 2001). Based on equity theory, a renowned scholar suchlike Adams (1965,1967) described that employees remain satisfied at work when they perceive that organizations' management distributes the rewards on an equal basis among all employees. Indeed, they evaluate their outcome ratios with the others' outcome ratios. In case, their own outcome ratios differ comparing others, in response, individuals become angry with their superiors which generate cognitive dissonance. Moreover, Colquitt (2001) defined distributive justice as the amount of rights or resources a person receives. Similarly, Sweeney and McFarlin, (1997) explained that distributive justice lays emphasizes on the "ends".

However, scholars have further suggested that employees' perceptions regarding the distribution of rewards influence their evaluations of the extent to which they are being treated by their organization (Jacobs, Belschak, & Den Harto, 2014). In fact, fairness in the distribution of rewards needs that individual sees the rewards received, and might also the inputs invested, by others. Therefore, scholars have suggested that distributive fairness is often more difficult

to measure. Accordingly, distributive fairness has received a remarkable attention of scholars, with the aim to confirm these propositions (e.g., Hui et al., 2007; Crawshaw., 2013). Understanding how distributive justice influences employees work outcomes is an important issue of the organization, therefore, has remained a topic of interest for both researchers and practitioners (Colquitt, 2001; Zapata-Phelan et al., 2009; Bernerth & Walker 2012). Past research also provides evidence that the individuals' unfair perceptions regarding the allocation of rewards influence several work outcomes such as; job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Fortin, 2008). In addition, the researchers have found stronger relationships between stress reactions and distributive justice (e.g., Vermunt & Steensma, 2003; Xie et al., 2008).

2.1.2.2 Procedural Justice

In the classification of organizational justice procedural justice has been studied widely and several researchers explained it in a different way. For example, Greenberg (1990) stated that procedural justice focuses on the employees' perceptions regarding the fairness of procedures adopted for distribution of rewards. In another undertaking, Greenberg and Cronpanzano (1997) tried to pick out and take with one's perceptions between structural and social determinants of procedural justice. They explained that formal policies, rules, and regulations those decisions which affect the employees containing the input in the decision process. Procedural justice is relevant to the perceived organizational support by tending upon to care for the betterment of employees. Similarly, other researchers explained that procedural justice has a positive relationship with perceived organizational support although Moorman, Blaekly, and Neihoff (1998) demonstrate that perceived organizational support mediates the relationship of extra role behavior and procedural justice. The justice plays a crucial role to maintain trust and respect for the organization even though the belongings go beyond their expectations, as they would have liked (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996). In a similar way another researcher endorsed that it is not necessary that for all time the matter will go as we desire but if the procedural and interactional justice will be upheld then the consequence will be less severe for the organization in case of any unfortunate. (e.g., Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Goldman, 2003). Konovsky (2000) stated that procedural justice is a foremost and usual predictor of the employees' reaction towards the organization that approaches to the decisions of outcomes.

Due to unfair procedures, the employees perceive job insecurity causing a psychological contract breach between employees and employers (see Robinson & Rousseau 1994 for discussion). Although two employees working in the organization are supposed to work in the similar environment, their perceptions about job loss may be differing. Despite, the meaning of downsizing as job loss threat is known everywhere in the organizational context, and job insecurity also emerges in the untreated job situations (Sverke & Hellgren, 2002). Another researcher reported in this connection by examining that procedural justice has a significant influence on the employees' emotional reactions whenever they face uncertain situations (Van den Bos, 2001).

If a high level of procedural justice exists in the organization, then ultimately employees evaluate any uncertain situation in low job insecurity. In contrast, if the perceptions of the low level of procedural justice, the employees feel less job security. Loi, Lam and Chan, (2012) they highlighted that the joint effect of procedural justice, ethical leadership with power distance orientation can reduce the employees' perceptions regarding job insecurity. They further demonstrated that there is a race of modernization therefore to maintain the healthy environment of the organization it is compulsory for management that negative feelings of employees about the organization must be reduced to sustainable a pleasant workplace. (Cropanzano et al., 2002) reported about the procedural justice that it is the structural part of an organization in which the decisions are made regarding inputs/ outputs and defines the process that how these decisions will be practically put into practice with precision, consistency, correctability, and bias-supersession ethically and representativeness (e.g., Leventhal, 1980; Loi & Ngo 2010). Sverke and Hellgren (2002) stated in their undertaking that procedural justice can play an effective role to cope with the uncertainty and uncontrollability with job insecurity.

2.1.2.3 Interpersonal Justice

Interactional justice describes that equal treatment in interpersonal relations during decision-making process (Bies & Moag, 1986). Researcher split interactional justice in two separate components i.e. interpersonal and informational justice. There is a debate in the literature, regarding dimensionality of organizational justice, for instance, Bies and Moag (1986) considered this construct has three dimensions. Previous research shows that the four dimensions of organizational justice have significant and differential effects on outcome

variability. Whereas, interpersonal justice appeared as a potential predictor of organizational identification and pro-change behavior, although all the four dimensions having significant impact on organizational identification and pro-change behavior but interpersonal justice plays an important role on both outcomes under discussion denoted by Fuchs, and Edwards (2012). They also stated that these findings congregate the highlights, presented by Lind and Tyler (1988) and Tyler and Blader (2000, 2003) who argue that organizational identities are linked to the perceptions of justice whereas Tyler and Blader (2000, 2003) demonstrated that how an organization can boost up the perceptions of organizational identification through procedural justice but the interpersonal justice proved a better predictor of organizational identification as compare to forms of justice Fuchs, and Martin Edwards (2012). Considering contemporary research on organizational justice, in recent years, several researchers have suggested a shift towards assessing overall organizational justice perceptions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Holtz & Harold, 2009; Schminke, Arnaud, & Taylor, 2014).

2.1.2.4 Informational Justice

Informational justice is also an important predictor (fourth dimension of justice) of employees' perceptions regarding the signals to avoid uncertainties which arise in the workplace. Therefore equality in dissemination of information is an essential part of the justice process and employees tending upon on it and they utilize this information for guidelines that how much they should pinpoint with the organization which they generally belong (Lind, 2001). Thau, Aquino and Wittek (2007), endorsed that equality of information plays an important role to decrease employees' anxiety regarding uncertainties which organizations generally exploited (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002), consequently by upholding the fair treatment in informing the management may reduce the employees' uncertainty through clear understanding that the future events are controllable and predictable (Colquitt et al., 2006). Although four dimensions are important to employees' reaction but informational (in)justice and interactional (in)justice are closest to predicting the employees' reactions about supervisors (e.g., Masterson et al., 2000; Li & Cropanzano, 2009b). Furthermore, Lind (2001) argues that it has generally been observed that before encountering output related to fairness the employees tending upon the information regarding procedure then fairness of procedures afterward they move to distributive (in)justice.

Since we have discussed each four dimensions of organizational (in)justice to understand justice and furthermore insights into the construct. However, our main purpose was not to test and compare the dimension, yet, we intended to examine an overall organizational justice to explore the predictive power of this approach in comparison with effort-reward imbalance which is our second competing approach under the umbrella of fairness at work.

2.1.3 Effort-Reward Imbalance

An increasing trend of the workforce in developed countries is facing possibly health-related psychosocial working conditions (Kompier 2006; Rugulies 2012) and work stress has become a rising concern in recent years (Bonn & Bonn 2000; Siegrist et al., 2010). Based on the notion of social reciprocity in costly transactions Siegrist (1996; 2016) developed the concept of effort-reward imbalance (ERI).

The model of effort-reward has gained a prominent place in most recent literature in occupational health research, because of its strong power to assess work-related stress (Van Vegchel et al., 2005; Hinz, Zenger, Brähler, Spitzer, Scheuch, & Seibt, 2014; Siegrist & Jian Li, 2016). The model of effort-reward imbalance has its roots in medical sociology and lays emphasis on two dimensions—efforts and reward configuration at the workplace (Marmot, Siegrist & Theorell, 2006). The model of effort-reward imbalance explains the reciprocal link between effort and financial reward. The employment contract is one such type of reciprocity where, efforts are required to delivered by employees in terms of job demands/obligations, time pressure and working overtime whereas occupational rewards are given by the employer such as financial rewards, esteem, job security/career growth etc. The graphical representation of the effort-reward model is provided as given below (see Figure-2.1).

More precisely, the model of effort-reward imbalance at work suggests that work defined by both high effort and low reward describes an exchange discrepancy/deficit between the high “cost” and low “gain” resulting in the inducement of negative feelings among employees. The Siegrist’s ERI (1996) model indicates several work conditions for the lack of reciprocity. First, “*dependency*” generally a lack of reciprocity occurs due to the scarcity of jobs when employees have less choice for alternatives. Less qualified/semi-skilled, old age employees or with restricted flexibility may be vulnerable to unfair contractual transactions. Older employees who had less opportunities to find another job position may less likely to perceive the events unfair, and therefore high rate of unemployment influences the relationship

between unfairness and stress outcomes. The second condition of the lack of reciprocity may be considered due to “*strategic choice*” in this case individuals accept the employment contract (high cost and low reward) when they tend to focus on their career enhancement, and for the being a time they agreed to work for organizations neglecting what rewards they gain.

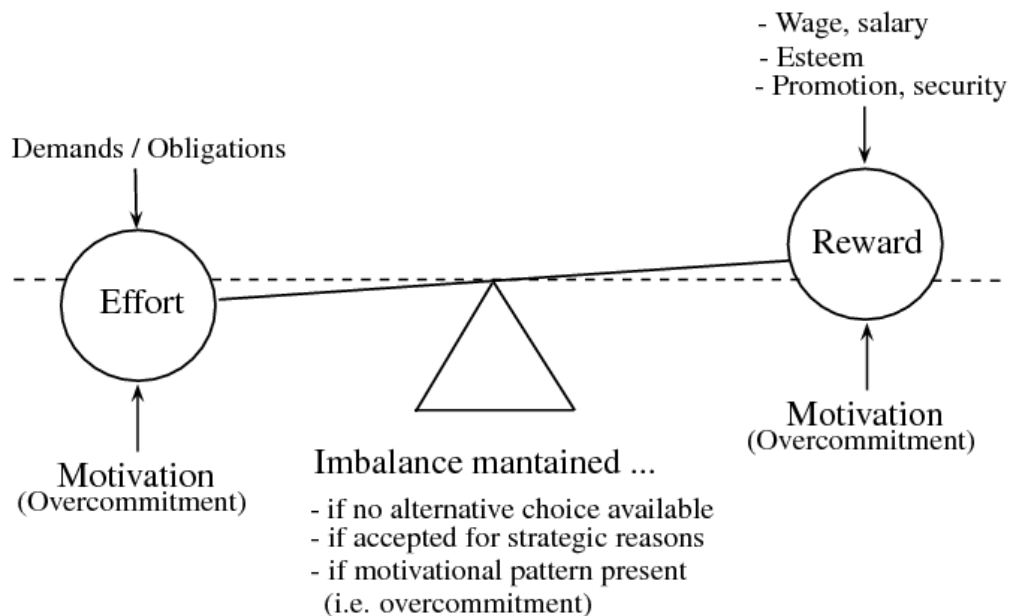


Figure 2.1: The Effort-Reward-Imbalance Model

Source: Siegrist (1996)

These conditions are generally applicable for those individuals who are at the beginning of their career stage. Since the concept of effort at work describes both intrinsic and extrinsic demands that individual has to invest at work in addition to the strong motivation to meet those demands. Accordingly, the work demands are expected to be exceeded in case of individuals are highly motivated to achieve work demands ‘*over-commitment*’. Lack of reciprocity at work will be experienced by employees who are excessively preoccupied with, and overly committed to, their work. However, individuals continuously try to make effort to meet organizational demand even in their rewards are not matching their efforts (Siegrist, 2016).

The model of ERI also deals with the individual differences in the context of effort-reward imbalance. As discussed above, another advantage of this model is the inclusion of both situational (extrinsic) and personal (intrinsic) characteristics (i.e., *over-commitment*). Over-commitment can be defined as “a set of attitudes, behavior, and emotions that reflect excessive striving in combination with a strong desire to be approved of and esteemed” (Siegrist, 2001,

p. 55). The employees who are motivated with excessive job-related commitment and high need for approval (i.e., over-commitment) will more experience to the strain responses to the effort-reward imbalance as compared to a lesser amount of overcommitted people. The author also explained that some evidence are documented of interpersonal consistency of over commitment over time that can be measured as a risk factor in itself, yet efforts-reward imbalance is absconded (Siegrist, 1996). Moreover, the author claimed that the concept of over-commitment in ERI model severs as a coping pattern of individuals that may influence the effect of effort-reward imbalance on stress outcomes (Siegrist, 2016).

Back to the concept of unfairness the model of effort-reward imbalance guides that if there is a lack of reciprocity (unfair exchanges), in terms of high efforts invested and low rewards gain, resulting in emotional distress and health effects (Siegrist et al., 1986; Siegrist, 1996). It is also expected if employees spend more efforts in accomplishing workplace assignments but they do not get adequate rewards and have a deficit between efforts and rewards, subsequently, they may not only reduce their efforts but also will invest more efforts to increase the rewards (Van Vegchel et al., 2005). Therefore, the model of ERI may play as a driver of unequal health in workplace settings. The core concept of effort-reward imbalance describes that violation of norm may induce the feelings of stress (Dragano & Wahrendorf, 2016).

The model of effort-reward imbalance has been associated with the number of adverse health outcomes, such as stress-related disorders (Nieuwenhuijsen et al., 2010) and coronary heart disease (Kuper et al., 2002). The perceptions of equal and sufficient rewards are anticipated to enhance employee wellbeing, the model explains that perceived unfairness in terms of costs (high effort invested at work) and gains (low rewards gained) are likely to be stressful and will affect health and wellbeing over the long term (Siegrist, 2005). Past research, provides the evidence on that work stress has strong negative effect on employees health, and most of the stress framework in the frame of occupational cohort studies (Siegrist & Marmot, 2006). Further, the other researchers such like Theorell (2006) also suggested that the effort-reward imbalance approach should be considered to investigate the other outcomes of related to modern working life.

Considering the strong power of explaining the numerous scholars have widely been used effort-reward imbalance approach in a variety of health-related outcome such as cardiovascular health (Kuper, Singh-Manoux, Siegrist, & Marmot, 2002). In addition, the

relationship between burnout and ERI in German teachers studied by Unterbrink, Hack, Pfeifer, Buhl-Grießhaber, Müller, Wesche, and Bauer, (2007), whereas, Derycke et al. (2010) examined the impact of the ERI on intent to quit among Belgian health care workers, just as , absenteeism (Griep, Lucia, Chor, Toivanen, & Landsbergis, 2010), work-family conflict (Willis, O'Connor, & Smith, 2008), work motivation, job satisfaction (Van Vegchel et al., 2005). Another researcher like Pomaki and Maes (2002) further explained that stressors at work causing to provoke the psychological imbalance and homeostatic ruling at work involves self-ruling processes in order to cope with such states. In a seminal study, Schaufeli and Enzmann (1998) stated that the increased workload may result in poor employee' health suck like burnout, absenteeism, psychosomatic health complaints. Moreover, Godin and Kittel (2004) demonstrated that persistent reward disappointment came across to decreasing commitment and motivation of individuals at the workplace on the other hand increase withdrawal behavior. Derycke et al., (2010) explained in their results that failed in exchange balance between the efforts/rewards was an important predictor of intention to leave the profession as well as intention to leave the organization after one year. Their findings also support the other two undertakings tested ERI model linking intention to quit by (Kinnunen, Feldt, & Makikangas, 2008; Hasselhorn, Tackenberg, & Peter, 2004). Similarly, the study of van Vegchel et al. (2001) added further contribution in a similar manner; that employees with high effort-low rewards imbalance having more likely to be of poor employee well-being. They also reported that the connection of high efforts and high rewards are very important relating to the well-being of employees.

On the other hand, several scholars have found that effort-reward imbalance to less serious outcomes such as psychosomatic symptomatology, quality, physical fatigue, alcohol consumption, absence and turnover (Bobak, 2005; Van Vegchel et al., 2001; Siegrist, 2005). Further, the role of over-commitment in examining strain is also unclear (Kinma & Jones, 2008). However, these studies have shown a mixed track record in findings while investigating ERI and work outcomes (e.g., van Vegchel, de Jonge, Meijer, & Hamers, 2001; Oren & Littman-Ovadia, 2013).

2.1.3.1 Effort-Reward Imbalance and Equity Theory

There are some theoretical overlapping among the ERI model (Siegrist,1996) and equity theory by (Adams, 1963, 1965) and social exchange theories by (Homans, 1961; Emerson, 1972), for

instance, ERI model envisions the working condition as a reciprocal relationship—describing that employee's efforts are presented as the work for employers and in return the employee obtains rewards from the employer, Whereas equity theory distinguishes the two level of comparison (equity in the shape of procedural and intrapersonal), equity of rewards utterly as a role of working hard (Siegrist et al., 2004).

It is arguably discussed that people will not submissively stay in the situation of high effort and low rewards, they will try cognitively and behaviorally to decrease their efforts or increase their rewards (Van Vegchel et al., 2005). This could be taken as balanced or homeostatic ruling process (Vancouver, 2000). ERI model rewards include perceived sufficient salary, promotion, job security and esteem (Hanson, Schaufeli, Vrijkotte, Plomp, & Godaert, 2000; Siegrist et al., 2004). By considering methodological viewpoint this model might be taken as a particular application of the idea of equity or distributional fairness to work-related health context. Some further linkages between effort-reward imbalance and social exchange theory are also discussed in next section.

2.1.3.2 Effort-Reward Imbalance and Social Exchange Theory

The idea of effort-reward imbalance was initiated based the notion of social reciprocity (Siegrist, 1996) to explain that social reciprocity is essential for an employment contract. For example, a clear description of the specific tasks to be performed in an exchange for the rewards—money, esteem, career enhancement, and job security etc. Actually, reciprocity followed by mutual exchanges, for which efforts (job assignments) invested by an employee and equitable rewards (salary) gain from employers. The effort-reward imbalance model guides that if there is a lack of reciprocity (unfairness), in terms of high efforts invested and low rewards gains, it is expected to result in emotional distress and health effects (Siegrist et al., 1986; Siegrist, 1996). Indeed, the supremacy of equilibria to enhance individuals or collective actions to administer social norm is perhaps one of the important implications of reciprocity. Equally, positive reciprocity is profoundly rooted in many social exchanges. Again in line with the social exchange theory, employees strive to maintain an equilibrium between their inputs and the outcomes in their relations (Adam, 1965), or if an individual's own efforts equal to his own outcomes (Pritchard, 1969), and those employees who expect themselves as unbalance in their social exchanges will experience distress, hence they will strive to maintain a balance by doing more efforts in this relation (Adams, 1965).

2.1.4 Similarities and Differences Between OJ versus ERI

Based on existing literature on OJ and ERI, we identify several common and distinct features between these two approaches. First, scholars postulate that both approaches: OJ and ERI are the foundation upon social exchanges to the relationship between employees and their employers. In both OJ and ERI establishing of strong interpersonal relationship is fostered by the quality of exchanges between employees and related authorities (Greenberg, 1990; Siegrist, 1996; Konovsky, 2000). Organizational (in)justice and effort- reward imbalance incorporate the exchange of inputs_(oj) or efforts_(eri) and outcomes_(oj) or rewards_(eri), promoted by the reciprocity norm, as an important aspect for determining the perceptions of fair/unfair exchanges between employees and their employers. In OJ model employees compare their inputs and outcomes ratios, with their co-workers and shape the perceptions of fairness or unfairness. Whereas, in the ERI model, employees determine fairness or unfairness based on ratios between their own efforts (work related assignments) and rewards (financial rewards) gain.

Based on certain features OJ and ERI models claim that they are a potential predictor of employee' work outcomes. Nevertheless, the classical *managerialist approach*, OJ is now recognized as a common approach and frequently been used in management and occupational research to predict work outcomes. On the other hand, ERI is relatively new approach and widely been used in medical sociology, for measuring psychological and physical stress (Li et al., 2006). OJ approach focuses on the fairness of procedure and interactions, whereas ERI lays emphasis on work contract on high effort and low reward. OJ model emphasizes on overall fairness in the workplace including fairness considering: distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational fairness. On the other hand, ERI model mainly focuses on the rewards, rather than the control structure of work (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Despite, the organizational reward is a central feature of ERI model (Siegrist,1996), yet, several research studies provide evidence that justice model heavily relied on fairness in the allocation of rewards (distributive justice: Adams, 1965).

Traditionally, researchers have divided justice OJ model into four categories, focusing: distributive (Adams, 1965), procedural (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), interpersonal (in)justice (Bies & Moag, 1986) and informational (in)justice (Shapiro,1994; Colquitt, 2001). ERI model encompasses both situational components: effort and reward and a person-specific component: over- commitment. Further, in the ERI model, most researchers have studied the combination

of high effort and low reward as a core hypothesis of the model (van Vegchel et al., 2005). Although scholars have highlighted the strength of ERI model based on its simplicity, yet, literature also shows scholars' criticism of ERI model. For instance, ERI model only lays emphasis on a partial component of the (psychological) working situation (Sparks & Cooper, 1999; Houtman & Smulders, 2003; De Jonge, Dormann, & Van Vegchel, 2004). Further scholars have argued that simplicity does not always lead to reality (cf. Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Many scholars have considered both OJ and ERI as critical and primary work stressor (Vermunt & Steensma, 2001; Greenberg, 2004; Robbins et al., 2012). Accordingly, OJ model explains that perceptions of injustice can lead to adverse psychological reactions in at workplace (Kahn & Byosiere, 1992) and further has the capacity to incrementally adding to the strain experienced by an individual (Zohar, 1995; Spector, 1998; Fox et al., 2001). Siegrist's, ERI model claims that lack of reciprocity at work may lead to emotional strain and stress-related physiological reactions (Bethge, Radoschewski, & Müller-Fahrnow, 2009, Bethge & Radoschewski, 2012; Bostrom et al., 2012; Prochnow et al., 2013). Equally, positive emotions evoked by appropriate social rewards promote well-being, health, and survival. Supporting the idea, occupational and management research literature suggests that unfairness at work is another social exchange construct that may make a useful contribution to the work stress literature (e.g., Noblet & Rodwell, 2009). Accordingly, we presume that both OJ and ERI are potential constructs in stress models. However, based on above-mentioned similarities and differences of both models allows us a comparison of the OJ and ERI to test which approach is better than other in predicting stress outcomes.

2.2 Outcomes of Unfairness in a Stress Perspective

As we discussed earlier and research supported that individuals may respond differently to perceived unfairness with varying degrees of impact on personal and organizations.

To completely articulate the contributions of this research to the idea of fairness, it is essential to plainly discuss the related constructs. The below noted table 2.2 exhibits the general responses of individuals in case there are perceptions of they being treated fairly. Admittedly, there are many other stress outcomes could have been well thought-out for exploration.

Table 2.2: Overview of Stress Outcome of Unfairness (stressor)

Outcomes	Study References
1. Turnover intention	e.g., Lee, Murrman, Murrman, and Kim, (2012) e.g., Davoudi and Fartash (2013)
2. Performance and organizational commitment	e.g., Masterson, et al., (2000)
3. Employee in Role Behavior and Task Performance	e.g., Samuel, Budhavar, & Chen, (2002)
4. Supervisory Satisfaction, Feedback Satisfaction, and Job Performance	e.g., Masterson et al. (2000), Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, (2002)
5. Workplace Deviance, Antisocial Behavior, Organizational Aggression, Retaliatory Behavior, Incivility, Employee theft, Absenteeism, and Withdrawal	e.g., Robinson and Greenberg (1998)
6. Backlash to Low Payment Inequity	e.g., Greenberg and Scott (1996)
7. Retaliation, Retaliation Theft, Aggression, Anger and Detrimental	e.g., Jermier, Knights, and Nord, (2001)
8. Career Issues, Exhaustion	e.g., Akremi, Guerrero, and Neveu (2006)
9. Motivation	e.g., Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Vroom, 1964
10. Citizenship Behavior targeting the Organization	e.g., (Organ, 1988, p. 4)
11. OCBS	e.g., Williams & Anderson, 1991)
12. Organization-targeted Sabotage	e.g., (Crino, 1994, p. 312)
13. Organisational Retaliatory Behavior	e.g., (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997
14. Employee theft	e.g., Greenberg, 1990
15. Organization-targeted Counterproductive Work Behavior	e.g., (Martinko, Gundlach, & Douglas, 2002
16. Organizational Deviance	e.g., (Robinson & Bennett, 1995, p. 556

Considering the psychological / personal and organizational outcomes (Ivancevich, Matteson & Cynthia Preston, 1982), this research included five outcome variables: employees' performance, employees in role behavior, organizational commitment, job-burnout and turnover intention.

Along with the two core constructs (organizational (in)justice & effort-reward imbalance) of this research we decided to use these outcomes variables for several reasons: First, a number research studies have supported the relationship between fairness perceptions and job burnout, turnover intentions organizational commitment and employees' performance as well as employees in role behaviors (e.g., Cropanzano et al., 1997; Scott & Colquitt, 2007;

khan, et al., 2015). In addition, Luthans (2002) has demonstrated that previous literature of stress shows that mostly researchers focused on physical consequences of stress; yet psychological consequences of stress are less examined. However, mental problems causing stress may have effects on organizational performance as well as employees' psychological well-being which are comparable to physical effects. Psychological stress-related consequences comprise for example depression, annoyance, sudden and frequent mood changes, bad temper, powerlessness, apprehension, boredom and touchiness (Dormann & Zapf, 2002). However, Chen and Spector (1992) stated that archetypal responses from individuals are associated with psychological problems to stressful conditions include: negative and destructive actions (retaliation behavior) suchlike damages, hostile, baseless quarrel and complaints and rule violence. Luthans (2002) further clarifies that robust evidence is documented outcomes of psychological problems connected with stress on decision-making, employees' performance and satisfaction among others.

Concerning to behavioral problems which are related to stress that comprises of, increasing attitude towards drug usage, alcohol, or smoking abuse, exhaustion, and instability in the diet. In addition to that more chances of accidents at workplace and violent behavior also increases in relating to stress: stressed employees may be argumentative or inflexible. Usage of alcohol is a common approach to managing stress which is access to absenteeism and turnover (Luthans, 2002, p.414). Similarly, several researchers demonstrated that regular responses to stress at work were found the employee's intention to change the employment or remaining absent from work (Chen & Spector, 1992). On the other hand, several researchers like Moorhead and Griffin (1989) stated that avoidance behavior ostensible response to the stressful situations. In such cases an individual behaves in a passive way, individual tries to avoid all the stressful conditions which may cause to produce taxing, be them significant or not, up to the position being powerless. Both physical and mental decreased health due to stress at work might have negative implications for the organizations not only in terms of absenteeism but also increased employee's turnover as well causing low productivity of employees—ultimately affect the organizations' productivity. Based on strong connections of unfairness with these outcomes and recommendations of Luthans (2002) we have chosen psychological and behavioral variables as mentioned above.

2.2.1 Job-Burnout

Work can be an exhausting effort, in particular for those who feel burnout before they even start. However, in previous years, the construct job-burnout has been explored in a wide variety of service settings and occupations. Maslach (1982) stated that job-burnout is an outcome of job stress and is supposed to show a unique and frequent response to intense client interactions (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Empirical research has revealed that job-burnout has dysfunctional consequences, for both individuals and organizations, resulting in employees' absenteeism, high turnover, reduced organizational productivity (Jackson, & Maslach, 1982; Leither & Maslach, 1988, Shirom, 1989). Accordingly, we argue that employees who face an imbalance between efforts/rewards (stressors) invest high efforts at the workplace but gain low rewards will face poor physical and mental health outcomes (van Vegchel et al., 2005). Recently, Weigl, Schneider, Hoffmann, and Angerer (2015) found a strong association positive between effort-reward imbalance and emotional exhaustion as well as reduced quality of care. Although the scholars have demonstrated the salience of ERI model in relation to behavioral outcomes, so far, in our knowledge few has been done related to employees' work outcomes, therefore, a full understanding of its effects is elusive.

According to Shirom (1989), burnout is a distinct facet of stress and it has been explained primarily as a configuration of responses to work-related stressors. In a similar vein, Kristensen et al., (2005) stated that work-related burnout as a degree of psychological and physical fatigue and exhaustion of an individual to her/his work. Thus, from above definitions, we stress that our focus is an individual's attribution of symptoms related to her/his work.

In contrast, Maslach and colleagues have accepted and used a three-component conceptualized definition of burnout (Pines & Maslach, 1980; Maslach & Jackson, 1981; Maslach, 1982). One of the key aspects of burnout is emotional exhaustion, that is when employees feel less energy and psychological no longer able to work, as their emotional resources are threatened or depleted. Another component is depersonalization that is dehumanized perception of employees in which they treat their clients as objects rather humans. The third component of burnout is a personal accomplishment, is a tendency to evaluate oneself negatively, particularly it happens when employees feel unhappy at the workplace and dissatisfied from his/her job accomplishments.

Using conservation of resources theory (COR) of stress (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993) suggests that job burnout occurs when employees are unable to meet job

demands due to a certain loss of valued emotional resources. For example, heavy workload, role conflict, stressful situations that are effort-reward imbalance and organizational justice. The COR theory provides a framework for understanding that how stressful situations correlated to job burnout, absenteeism, and depression (Neveu, 2007). Leiter and Maslach (1988) proposed that job demands and lost resources are possible sources of stress in the stress-strain-coping-self-evaluation process (Cummings & Cooper, 1979; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

2.2.2 Turnover Intention

In the past studies, researchers have argued that the intention to quit is the most accurate and instant indicator for an actual turnover (e.g., Mobley, 1977; Steel & Ovalle, 1984; Neveu, 1993). In voluntary turnover intentions' studies, several scholars (e.g., Shore & Martin, 1989; Tett & Meyer, 1993) explained that intention to quit is related with actual turnover. Further, the intention to quit appears just before employee actually leaving organization and the job. However, Johnsrud, Heck and Rosser (2000) mentioned intention to quit as a predictor of an actual turnover. Accordingly, organizations have a potential to be hurtful, therefore it does not support the turnover intention. Because, it emphasizes that employees may have feelings of insecurities related to their jobs which has been left to be continue. Such type of insecurities may result into stress, low organizational commitment, or lessen employee morale. Employee with these repercussions of leaving insecure will lead to decreased organizational commitment, job-burnout, and eventually turnover.

Loveday (1996) stated that if employee feel insecure and have decreased their morale, ultimately it results into turnover intentions and try to find an alternative option/job. According to the Sager, Griffeth, and Hom, (1998) turnover intention is related to the individuals' mental decisions and attitudes intervening about a job and intention to quit or stay with the organization. In other words, turnover intention can be defined as when an employees' movement to leave an organization. When employees' turnover in an organization increases it would be really destructive for organization because organization has spent a lot of cost on employee training, recruitment, and in different programs to enhance his/her performance to deal different projects efficiently. It also effects the quality of products whether service or goods delivery as well as may decrease organization image (Loveday, 1996). Moreover, changing working conditions can create the conflicting situations between two domain of

work-family interactions (e.g., Byron, 2005). That may lead to dissatisfaction, reduced health, and increase in intention to quit (Kinnunen, 2008; Li et al., 2015).

One of the reason to use turnover intention as outcome variable is findings of Krausz, Koslowsky, Shalom, and Elyakim, (1995) they studied variable turnover, actual as well as intentions and have indicated that actual turnover can be predicted by turnover intentions. At the same time, they argued that research studies using turnover intentions have more advantages as compare to using behavioral variable that is actual turnover. Further, they elaborated that behaviors can be influenced by economic conditions, organizations policies and procedures which is not controlled by the researcher but may influence the results. Similarly, Steel and Ovalle (1984) explored that individual's intentions which are self-expressed are good indicator for turnover, so this can also be used as dependent variable. However, when employee is expressing his/her feelings to leave the job, it is actually their own emotional response due to some insecurities related to the job and career (Price & Mueller, 1981). Therefore, if employees are satisfied, they will not leave the job as well as organization. Thus, the intention to use this variable is to contribute to the extensive body of turnover intentions, and organizational commitment with regard to the employees' perception regarding turnover and commitment.

Past research had confirmed the relationship between organizational justice is associated with a variety of outcomes such as organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior and job satisfaction (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Cropanzano & Randall, 1993). However, Alexander and Ruderman (1987) also have examined the relationship between organizational (in)justice and outcomes variables including job satisfaction, turnover intentions, tension/stress. More precisely, turnover intentions had a stronger link with distributive (in) justice than with the other dimensions of organizational (in) justice.

2.2.3 Organizational Commitment

The term organizational commitment refers the employees desire to be associated with organization and creates indicator of how important the organization is for the employees (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Over the years, organizational commitment remained important topic for organizational behavior as well as for industrial and organizational psychology (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). For managerial point of view, scholars put more attention to give importance to organizational commitment which reveals and interpret the organizational

outcomes related to employees such as turnover intention, absenteeism, and deviance (e.g., Angle & Perry, 1981; Mowday et al., 1982). According to Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) organizational commitment is a strong binding with and receptive of the organizational values and goals, on the behalf of the organization, keenness to put high effort and willingness to remain in the organization. Organizational commitment is related with employees' need and willingness to continue job within the same organization to escape the different costs which are associated with quitting job.

Issues related to organizational commitment varies from organization to organization in different types of organizations, which also have different fundamental environment may effect procedure of management, as well as the attitude of employee related to organizational commitment, still there is need to create employees' commitment. Therefore, organizational commitment can be defined as attitude and behavior of employees associated with organization (Pratt, 1998; Riketta & Landerer, 2005), and it is a different from organizational identification, which is related to self-concept of an individual (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), whereas organizational commitment is not linked with self-concept. Several scholars (e.g., Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986; Mayer & Allen, 1997) consider that organizational identification as a positive and uplifting attitude like job satisfaction towards the organization. These positive and uplifting attitudes will ultimately lead employees towards the organizational commitment. Different scholars have their own perspective to define the organizational commitment because it varies from person to person even within organization where some employees may feel proud to work with the organization but some may not. Some employees become loyal with particular organization in which they are working, thus eagerness to give their best performance to the organization in order to achieve their valuable goals effectively and efficiently. Meanwhile, they also try to achieve the targeted goals in required time period which has assigned by the organization.

In accomplishing the goals and objectives of any organization, it is most crucial to focus on the employees' commitment and to enhance their capabilities so they can produce significant results for an organization by being part of it. Therefore, if there is a lack of justice less justice or imbalance between employees efforts and rewards it influences their commitment towards the organization. According to the Tang, Robertson and Lane (1996) every organization need commitment from their employees in shape of different organizational commitment. Scholars have reported that commitment between management and operations of

different project is important such as credible commitment. This type of commitment refers to the system of sustainable reward according to the performance of the employees. Rewards can be income, which is extrinsic reward and may will increase organizational commitment. In contrast, if there is no organizational commitment which may result into low level of job satisfaction, absenteeism, psychological withdrawal and turnover. Further more, in the literature, Mowday and Porter has provided the two approaches of organizational commitment which has been classified as:

1. Attitudinal
2. Behavioral

Attitudinal refers to employees' attitude towards an organization. Behavioral refers to the employees' behavior towards the organizational commitment which is different form employee job satisfaction. Previous research (e.g., Grusky, 1966) investigated that employee shows their willingness not to leave organization where they have calm environment and being treated fairly. Actually, the relations between organizational support and these reactions are explicated as a social exchange process, where employees may return management's support with the high organizational commitment (Campbell et al., 2013; Vardaman, Allen, Otondo, Hancock, Shore, & Rogers, 2016) and remain intact with the organizations (Allen & Shanock, 2013). Further, the researcher also have demonstrated a clear link between fairness perceptions at work and organizational commitment. For example, fairness perceptions positively affect organizational commitment (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Fortin, 2008). Therefore, in this study, we intended to examine the links of organizational commitment with unfair event.

2.2.4 Employees' Performance

Extant literature has been shown that there are several definitions of Employees' performance; it can be defined as "behaviors or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization in question.... [and it] is multidimensional" McCloy, Campbell, and Cudek (1994: p.493). The scholars explained that performance may be working manners that ultimately leads to the outcomes. For example, a professor delivers lecture related to a particular subject to the students is professor's behavior while learning of students from that lecture is students' behavior. The knowledge grasped during that lecture and when a student performs well in the examination to secured good marks. It ultimately reflects the performance of both professor and specific group of students. In this scenario, a potential factor is a motivation a professor

shows motivation to deliver his best in the class so the students could secure good marks and students' motivation to work hard by learning that lecture and performing well in the examination. Previous research indicates that fairness perception at work is strongly related to performance. For example, Whitman et al. (2012) have been examined that distributive fairness is strongly related to related to unit-level performance. Some other researchers like Motowidlow and Van Scotter (1994) considered job performance as multifaceted construct and recognized its two dimensions "conceptually satisfying" basically dimensions were: task performance and other contextual performance (p. 475).

The scholars explained that task performance is the behavior that is related to the overhauling and upholding the organization's technical core. Furthermore, task performance as straightforward converting the unprocessed material of an organization into the material and services that it produces. If we take an examples of it, would be a person working in a call center, operating a power plant in an energy generation center or planting tree. On the other hand, contextual job performance which is related to an individual's interpersonal skill knowledge provides support in a broader social setting in which the task or technical core must function Motowidlo, and Van Scotter (1994). More precisely, contextual job performance is closely associated with the helping and supporting elements of required organizational behavior. Similarly, (Robbins, 2001) stated that higher rewards (distributive justice) will lead to high employees' performance.

2.2.5 Employees' in Role Behavior

Contextual performance represents a voluntary, in-role behaviors in the sense that they involve engaging in task-related behaviors at a level that is beyond minimally required or generally expected levels (Demerouti, Bakker, & Gevers, 2015). Past research shows that in-role behaviors share the idea that the employee is going "above and beyond" the call of duty (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000).

Despite, Katz (1964) raised the distinction between extra role behavior and in role behavior over the 50 years ago, it has not been shown that survey the measures in role behaviors provided by a supervisor is tapping something different from traditional performance or in role activities. There are two main studies provided some evidence concerning the difference between in role behavior and OCB dimensions of performance as assessed by supervisors. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) included in factor analysis self-report items proposed to measure

in role performance. In another study concerning to this question, Puffer (1987), tested the impact of six variables representing individual differences and attitudes towards work contexts of three forms of work performance.

Accordingly, Puffer found significant correlations between supervisor ratings of prosocial behavior and objective scale performance. However, the main purpose may not be a good indicator of in role behavior because other important required activities are not captured with a sales performance measure and because sales are determined by many factors than salesperson efforts or skills inkling extra role behavior. Whereas, Williams and Anderson (1991) stated that in role behavior is a distinct type of employees' performance and can be considered potential work outcome. The researcher has found the positive association between fairness perceptions at work and employees' performance (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Fortin 2008; Bernerth & Walker 2012; Schminke et al., 2014). In addition, recently He, Zhu, Zheng, (2014) found that fairness perceptions at work are an important motivator for employee and performance. Based on the aforementioned discussion we anticipate that fairness perceptions at work have a strong association with employees attituded and behaviors, accordingly we included above-mentioned positive and negative constructs that may influence by the fairness perceptions.

2.3 Chapter Summary

Based on the idea of fairness and its relations on stress outcomes we provided a comprehensive discussion on fairness, for examining the unfairness we selected two internationally established alternative theoretical models of unfairness at work, and strived to explore the links between these two models and outcome of stress in this chapter. We also provided an overview of justice related theory, as organizational (in) justice and effort imbalance in the light of past research. We also discussed the outcome variables that may have influenced from unfair practices of the managers. Past literature is given in chapter one and two allowed us to establish our hypothesized model which has been given in next chapter 3.

3

Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

This chapter outlines the conceptual framework, however, by summarizing the main arguments we offered the study hypotheses. While the foundational proposed model highlighted direct effects of unfairness as stressors (organizational (in)justice & effort-reward imbalance) on five outcome variables (job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees in role behavior). Based on different theoretical frameworks discussed in previous chapters related to the unfairness, personal human values, equity sensitivity and stress outcomes (attitudinal/behavioral) we strive to examine that how the combined effects of personal human values and equity sensitivity might influence individuals' reactions in response to the unfair event. Thus, considering the multi-disciplinary approach, we opted to employ existing theories includes: conservation of resources COR (Hobfoll, 1989) as a broad-spectrum theoretical framework on which to base this equity theory and their associated concepts from organizational behavior literature. The conceptual model has been developed for comparing two competing approaches (OJ & ERI) for validation of their predictive capacity in examining the stress outcomes.

Our theoretical expansion builds a conceptual track of knowledge to view the relationship of predictors and criterions through several stress frameworks. Further, this chapter describes the objectives and hypotheses for this study, each of which is related to the dimensions assessed in this study. However, proposed competing theoretical models (OJ & ERI) are compared based on statistical inferences, which are presented in chapter 5.

3.1 Conceptual Model and Hypothesized Relationships

Based on theories outlined in the previous chapters, we extend research on unfairness at workplace and its relationship with the variety of outcomes and propose a broad range of the model by introducing two individual differences variables as presented in figure 3.1. The research contributing to this framework included this research on an overall fairness perception, which has examined using two competing models and work-related outcomes. As figure 3.1 visualizes the guiding structure used to formulate the two studies, accordingly, the framework demonstrates that employees face a variety of stressors in the workplace, in this study, we included unfairness (organizational (in)justice & effort-reward imbalance) as a stressor.

We anticipate that unfair treatment of organizational authorities (in terms of OJ or ERI) create a stressful environment that can influence perceptions of fairness at work which in turn can lead to increase the job-burnout, turnover intention, and reduced the employees' commitment, employees' performance and employees in role behavior. While it is originally viewed that high efforts combining with the low rewards result in a strain (stress outcomes), equally, individuals at the high level of perceiving unfairness report high levels of stress (e.g., Siegrist, 1996).

Therefore, following our theoretical model the organizational (in)justice has been chosen for this study, explaining that justice engages the breach of some expectations or perceptions of fairness; we anticipate that organizational (in)justice can affect the stress outcome. Based these expectations we established the model of this study (See figure-3.1). This model also reflects the findings of Judge and Colquitt (2004) who uniquely dealt with (in)justice as a stressor, and they consider (in)justice were thought to be associated with stress perceptions.

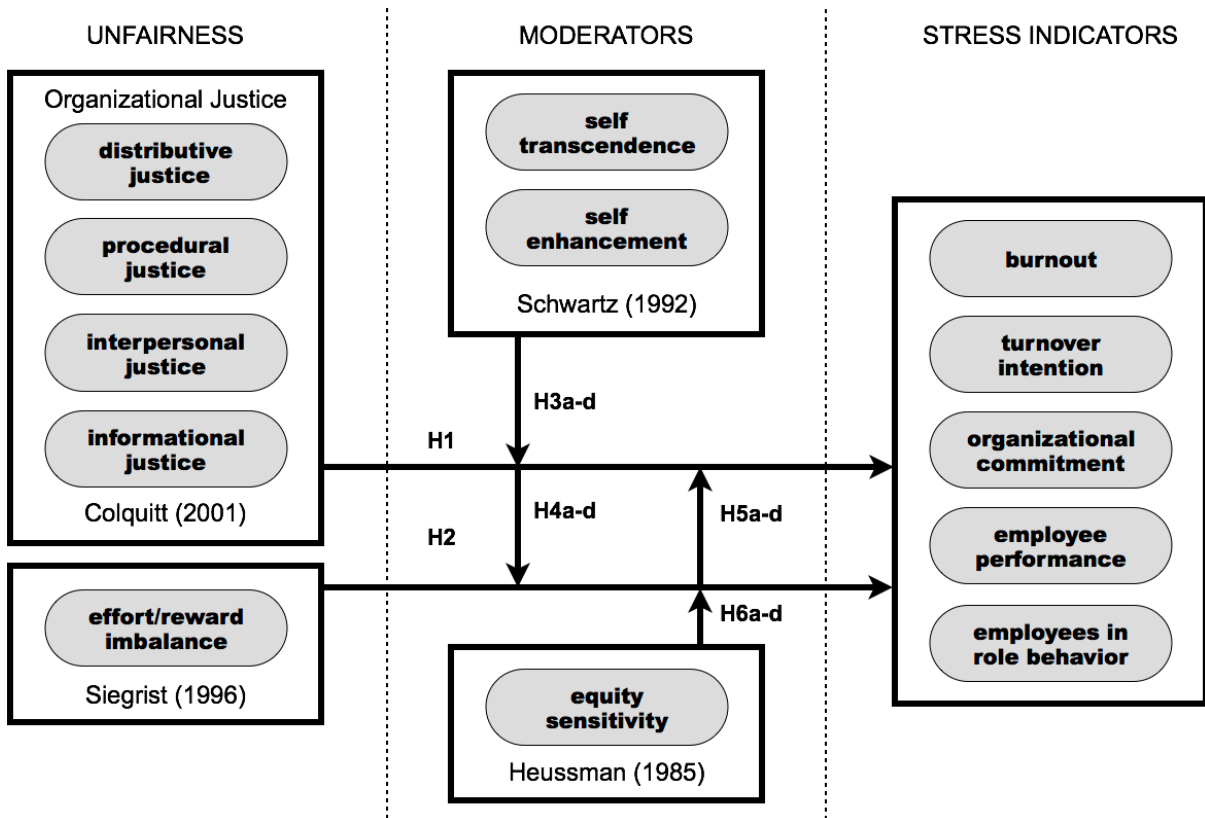


Figure 3.1: Proposed Conceptual Model of Study

Correspondingly, effort-reward imbalance (Siegrist, 1996) provides a comprehensive conceptual basis for studying job strain; this model combines the individuals’ psychological perspectives with social circumstances as well as fundamental economic authenticities, consequently, it can be used for a broad range of occupational situations (Siegrist, 1990). Taken the aforementioned remarks of Siegrist, (1990) and based on past studies we also proposed that effort-reward model and its relationship with behavioral and attitudinal stress outcomes (see Figure-3.1). Further, figure-3.1 specifies the relationship among study constructs particularly the independent variables (organizational justice & effort-reward imbalance), and dependent variable (stress outcomes—job-burnout, turnover intention employees’ commitment, employees’ performance and employees in role behavior) with two moderators—personal human values (self-enhancement and self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity.

3.2 Effects of OJ and ERI on Stress Outcomes

A major issue in occupational scholarship is the concern that how to establish organizational behavior where the employees are both healthy and eager to perform at their best level for the benefit of their organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Although empirical findings of past research are fruitful to enhance the knowledge of unfairness as an important predictor of employees' work outcomes (Greenberg, 1987, Colquitt, 2004, Colquitt, 2012), yet, the question remains that why employees behave differently in response to the unfair event at work. Similar concern over the limited knowledge regarding fairness in procedures have been raised by several scholars as well (Blader & Tyler, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2005; van Dijke et al., 2014). With that said, past research seems to be laden with reliance on stress models in investigating the relationship between the feature of the work environment and well-being (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Hobfoll, 1989; Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Edwards, 1998; Luszczynska & Cieslak, 2005). Accordingly, unfair behaviors are situational factors (lack of reciprocity between efforts put in the organization and rewards received gain or discrepancy in employee-employer exchanges between expected and actual transactions) in the work environment divert their skills, abilities and other resources away from achieving their goals (Felblinger, 2008). The occurrence of unfairness is likely to result in losses to financial, and interpersonal relationship quality that triggers the individuals psychological and behavioral responses (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Penney & Spector, 2005).

Since this research focuses on describing the relationship between stressors and strain relationship, however, stressor as an event that threaten loss of resources, or difficulties in regaining them (Hobfoll, 1989). Similarly, our study constructs: organizational (in)justice and effort-reward imbalance are among the most widely used in examining the stressors and strain relationships (Colquitt et al., 2001; Siegrist et al., 2004). Despite, both organizational (in)justice and effort-reward imbalance claim that they have strong predictive power in examining stress outcome, however, at the same time, existing research shows controversies regarding the influence of unfair practices of organizations' authorities on work outcomes across culture (Colquitt et al. 2001; Colquitt, 2004; Shao et al. 2013; Khan et al., 2015). In addition, past research provides evidence that the notion of fairness is known to vary depending on individuals' personal and cultural values (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997). For example, reward allocation among employees varies in Chinese, Japanese, American, and Korean samples (e.g.,

Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Leung & Bond, 1984). However, Triandis, (1995) stated that societies' culture is best defined as a highly complex, frequently changing system of meaning that is learned, shared, transmitted and transformed from one generation to another. Further, Li and Cropanzano (2009) demonstrated that generalizability of fairness perceptions in North-America, and Asian settings still unclear. In the light of aforementioned research, we expect to find more regularities among cultures to understand different interpretations of unfairness (OJ & ERI) that generally has harmful effects on organizational employees' behavior and attitude in Pakistan and France, thus we hypothesized as follows:

Hypothesis 1: Organizational justice is negatively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance, employees' in role behavior.

Hypothesis 2: Effort-reward imbalance is positively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas negatively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees' in role behavior.

3.3 Individual Differences as Moderator of Unfairness Perceptions

As we previously noted, that individual differences variables play an important role in stressors and outcomes of stress. This is the main reason that stress frameworks compel to examine the role of the factors, (coping resources) that mitigate and avoid negative effects of stressors (unfairness) on employees and employers' outcomes. That said, several mechanisms were offered such as: emotion regulation; attention regulation; decreased attachment/aversion to feelings enhancement of acceptance and exposure to sensations, emotional intelligence, thoughts and emotions (Coffey & Hartman, 2008; Baer, 2010; Graboavac, Lau, & Willett, 2011; Ouyang et al., 2015). Taken this Lazarus & Folkman, (1984) explained that the individuals' personal differences regulate the appraisal process. COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) also puts emphasis on resource influence gains and losses and bring or not to stress outcomes. As we have found in previous chapters during the review of stress theories (Dewe et al., 2012) that scholars shed a light on the features of these theories and argue that most of the approaches are grounded on a person-environment transaction. When individuals perceive themselves the victims of unfairness, they tend to decide how to respond.

Therefore, stress frameworks enable us to apply cognitive appraisal theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) to understand the stressor-strain relationship in workplace settings. Cognitive appraisal theory of stress focuses on circumstances and individuals' evaluations whether the situation (unwariness) is stressful (primary appraisal) and whether sufficient resources (secondary appraisal) are available to cope with the stressful situation. People evaluate the situation to determine the degree of potential harm, threat, or challenge to the self (e.g., Lazarus, 1999), which, in turn, guides their response.

As we discussed previously, Cox and Ferguson (1991) also argued that individual differences factors have usually been considered as either mediator or as moderators in the stress phenomenon. In addition, from a self-regulation viewpoint, however, there must be protective/guiding factors that attenuate the negative effects of unfairness (stressor) on employees' outcomes (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004; Rueda, Posner, & Rothbart, 2005). On the other hand, cultural context individuals from collectivistic societies used unlike rules of equity and equality than individuals in individualistic societies. Rules of distributive fairness appear to vary as a meaning of individuals personal and cultural backgrounds. Likewise, Lind and Tyler (1988) argued over the epic nature of procedural fairness effects have been indicated as well. What role, then, do individual personal and cultural preferences play in shaping what actions and behaviors are and how it relates to fairness perceptions.

Accordingly, we presume that individual differences in value preferences and equity sensitivity are likely to have this guiding function and we examine prospect, and contribute to the management and psychology literature, and more precisely, in two different studies. In this research, we included two type of moderator, the results of past research on stressor (unfairness) and strain (outcome) might be explained by differences in personal human values and individual sensitivity about equity. The relationship between unfairness and outcome may depend on the personal priorities. That is some personal priorities may be more dominant and more strongly related to unfairness. Conversely, the relationship between unfairness and outcome may depend on individuals' equity sensitivity. In other words, some individuals may be more sensitive regarding the distribution of rewards or low at equity sensitivity. However, further discussion regarding moderating role of individual differences variables used in this study and hypothesized relationships are provided in the following sections.

3.3.1 Moderating Role of Personal Human Values

In relations with the study objectives and discussed above, Schwartz (1992; 1994) stated that values serve as guiding principles and people use these principles in their personal as well as professional lives for shaping behaviors and attitudes. However, according to Sagie and Elizur (1996) values are assumed to have an influence on employees' physical and psychological well-being. Individuals are more likely to exhibit a state of well-being when their values are matched with the environment than those they are not (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Several scholars have found that any mismatch between individuals' personal values and environment around them (organization or reference group) induces the feelings of stress (e.g., Boehnke, Stromberg, Regmi, Richmond, & Chandra, 1998) that can negatively influence the organizational stress outcomes such as reduced organizational commitment (e.g. Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000; Parkes, Bochner, & Schneider, 2001; Carrier-Vernhet, Commeiras & Desmarais (2014). On the other hand, when individuals' personal values are compatible with organizational values (reference group) then negative effects of strain is considerable reduced (Levy & Guttman, 1976).

Lately, Anderson et al (2014) have discussed that personal human values provide ways of thinking about actions, and they provide as standards or specific criteria for evaluating the events, policies, choices and justifying individuals' actions (e.g., Rokeach 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky 1987; Hoorn, 2015). Rokeach (1973) further stated that individuals may vary regarding their priorities on certain personal values. Likewise, all the values are not important to an individual as well in each context (Rokeach, 1968, 1973; Schwartz, 2012). It varies based on specific context, explicit values trigger when they are relevant to the specific context (Rokeach, 1968, 1973, 1974; Leao & de Mello, 2007; Zinas & Jusan 2011; Schwartz, 2012). On the other hand, Hu et al. (2016) postulated that although individuals may vary regarding their value preferences and it depends on a specific context yet the values should not be considered idiosyncratic.

Previous research on human values (e.g., self-enhancement—achievement and power; self-transcendence—benevolence and universalism) have found that individuals' personal preferences are as important factors in shaping their behavior and attitudes (Schwartz, 1992, Shin & Zhou, 2003, Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi, & Zhang, 2009, Anderson et al., 2014). Individuals evaluate among other things what is illegitimate or unfair based on probable consequences for their preferred values (Schwartz, 2012; Enoksen & Sandal, 2015). For

instance, employee's high personal human value (value preference: conservation) reacted more significantly and positively in impacting transformational leadership by displaying greater creativity (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Therefore, it seems to be supporting the idea that personal human value will influence the stress outcomes which has generated by unfair practices of organizations' authorities. Since, Hobfoll, (1989) considered personal values as personal resource and individual use personal resources to deal with stressful events.

Accordingly, following the COR theory scholars have expected that coping behaviors of individuals are likely to be influenced by the connection between that individuals' values and resource preference appraisals (Morelli & Cunningham, 2012). The reason behind this expectation is the individual's response to the threat or actual loss of resource is likely to be varied based on the personal value that an individual has connected with the specific resources that are threatened (Hobfoll, 1989). Since this research is articulated to examine the stressor (unfairness) strain (outcomes) relationships, accordingly, we presume that features of COR theory are appropriate to the conceptualization of stress phenomenon, particularly to our predictors concerning to individual characteristics as resources to handle the stressful situations in the workplace. We emphasized on resource based coping behaviors as the consequence of interest because the coping behaviors are targeted in protecting or regaining the lost resources that an individual's values most preferred.

We presume that personal human value serves an important self-regulatory function (coping behavior) and using this perspective for this study, resource-related coping behavior might be a function of an individual's personal values and the impact of those values on the individual's resource-appraisal procedure. Further, individuals are motivated to protect, invest, regain, their psychosocial resources considering past stressful events (Hobfoll, 2001). When individuals face environmental stressors (unfairness) they strive to cope with these stressors to maintain their valued resources (fair-treatment) which have been lost due to environmental stressors (see Hobfoll & Freedy, 1993; Hobfoll, 2011). In this manner, individual may be expected to proactively involve in restoring harm to resources and invest remaining resources for protective purposes leading up to or following a stressful event. Therefore, it is quite possible to establish a connection between the motivational nature of values and resources: Values may be articulated through resource-guided behavioral actions that are in response to an individual experience to stress-inducing events. It is further argued that an individual's coping behaviors are inspired to protect the resources that are most important to that person

based on that individual's values system (Feather, 1995; Hobfoll, 2001; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Since there is a growing consensus that personal human values serve as guiding principles to evaluate the actions, events, and people are good or bad (Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz, Piurko, & Davidov, 2011), however, using the lens of COR theory, individuals' resource-related coping strategies against (un)fairness resource loss, may be guided by the personal priorities (personal human values) for taking decision, to invest, protect, re-gain resource lost and gain new resources for future investment. More precisely, since individuals who report a higher level of the self-enhancement values (power and achievement) likely to put more emphasis to enhance their own personal interests even at the expense of others and accordingly may be more concerned with personal or individual resources (Schwartz, 1994).

Past research also suggests that personal human value (conformity value) moderates the curvilinear relation between a number of weak ties and creativity (Zhou et al., 2014). Building upon above-mentioned discussion, and the notion as presented, individuals experience unfairness at work (stressor: (in)justice & effort-reward imbalance) when there is a violation of their preferred values, and consequences of unfairness are may be guided by the basic values. This research focuses on the first dimension (self-enhancement versus self-transcendence) because of the stronger connection between this dimension and unfairness perceptions (Lipponen et al., 2004). Moreover, existing research shows mixed results regarding personal human values, for example, Choi and Price (2005) found relative effects of value fit and ability fit on a commitment to implementation and implementation behavior. Therefore, considering the values as guiding principles in employees' professional and personal lives and has a strong effect in achieving their goals and actions, it is fruitful to systematically investigate the dynamic role of human values in examining the stressor (unfairness) and employees stress outcomes. Accordingly, we hypothesized the following:

Hypothesis 3: Personal human values will moderate the impact of organizational (in)justice on job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees' in role behavior. The impact will be (+/-) depending on the values for those individuals who impute relatively more importance to personal human values than that low importance.

Hypothesis 3a: The negative relationship between organizational (in)justice and job-burnout as well as turnover intentions will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Hypothesis 3b: The positive relationship between organizational (in)justice and organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Hypothesis 3c: The negative relationship between organizational (in)justice and job-burnout as well as turnover intentions will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

Hypothesis 3d. The positive relationship between organizational (in)justice and organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

Hypothesis 4: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees' in role behavior. The impact will be (+/-) depending on the values for those individuals who impute relatively more importance to personal human values than that low importance.

Hypothesis 4a. Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intentions such that the positive relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Hypothesis 4b: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior such that the negative relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Hypothesis 4c: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intentions such that the positive relationship will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

Hypothesis 4d. Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior such that the negative relationship will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

3.3.2 Moderating Role of Equity Sensitivity

This research seeks to examine the stressor (unfairness) and strain (outcomes) relationship, whereas, considering the scholars' recommendations we have included individual differences construct (equity sensitivity) that can markedly influence the individuals' behavior within organizations (Huseman et al., 1987). Past research suggests that the construct of equity sensitivity was established based on equity theory to better understand the research to parsimoniously support a broader spectrum of individual differences (Huseman et al., 1987; King, Miles, & Day, 1993; Hayibor, 2015). Scholars have acknowledged that the influence of inequity perceptions, and the reactions to it, may vary across individuals (King et al., 1993): indeed, individuals are different regarding their equity sensitivity (Parnell & Sullivan 1992). In other words, the Huseman et al. (1987, p. 223) stated that 'individuals react inconsistent but individually different ways to both perceived equity and inequity because they have different preferences for (i.e., are differentially sensitive to) equity''. Huseman and colleagues (1987) stated in their pioneering research whether equity sensitivity (individual difference) is a state or a trait. If it is a state, then individuals' degree of sensitivity would vary according to a specific situation. On the other hand, if equity sensitivity is a stable trait then individual's sensitivity would remain to determine from one situation to another situation.

In a seminal study, Scott and Colquitt (2007) have arguably considered equity sensitivity as a stable trait that moderates the individual's reactions to inequity, henceforth, such reactions are perceived to vary in systematic traditions across individuals. Accordingly, we presume equity sensitivity (individual difference) as a personality trait that may vary across individuals but remain persistent. However, if equity sensitivity is considered as a personality trait then taken the perspective of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989) equity sensitivity such as others traits (e.g., internal locus of control, hardiness, dispositional optimism, generalized self-esteem) may be considered as a personal resource that may help to evaluate whether, event is fair or unfair.

Previous research shows strong links between variety of behavioral attitudinal outcomes such as perception of organizational politics (Adams, Treadway, Stepina, 2008), organizational commitment (King & Miles 1994), job satisfaction (Ahmad, 2011; Kickul & Lester 2001), employees in-role performance (Bing & Burroughs 2001), ethical decision-making (Mudrack, Mason, Stepanski, 1999), negotiating behaviors (Yiu & Law 2011), and selection of employment sector have examined by Sass, Liao-Troth and Wonder (2011).

The main reason for choosing equity sensitivity is due to its links with fairness in input/outcome ratios at the workplace which is the potential theme of this scholarship. However, equity sensitivity conceptualizes (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987) equity perceptions as a function of individual differences in whether employees prefer their outcome/input ratios to be less than, equal to, or greater than comparison others' ratios (Hayibor, 2015; Jeon & Newman, 2016). In case there is a mismatch between individuals' actual and expected outcomes (organizational rewards) at work (e.g., under-rewarded, over-rewarded) and individual's favored reward condition, then low equity perceptions will follow (Huseman et al., 1985). Generally, unclear findings for equity sensitivity construct as well as several scholars (Huseman et al., 1985; Blakely et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2006; Seitz, 2006) have reported that equity sensitivity typically seems a paradox to fairness perceptions. Whereas, recently Jeon and Newman (2016) conceptualized and considered equity sensitivity as a dispositional propensity to perceive stimuli as fair or unfair.

This point of view provided a different conceptualization than original equity sensitivity definition by (Huseman et al., 1985). For example, (a) focus on an individual's desired outcomes, (b) involve comparison with others' outcomes, or (c) classify individuals into three categories as a part of either the measurement or systematic procedure (Jeon & Newman, 2016). The scholars have given a conceptual distinction claiming that it is equity sensitivity—not egoism—that governs how likely an individual is to perceive work events as fair or unfair. Therefore, they have conceptualized equity sensitivity as an individual dispositional tendency to evaluate stimuli as fair or unfair.

Past research has also provided evidence that equity sensitivity affects employees pay satisfaction, and performance of prosocial behaviors in a team environment (Miles et al., 1989; Akan et al., 2009). Scholars also demonstrated that individuals vary in their sensitivity to violations of Adam's equity theory (1963, 1965; Scott & Colquitt, 2007). Accordingly, scholars have also considered equity sensitivity as a moderating variable (Scott & Colquitt, 2007; Andiappan & Trevino 2010).

Past research has shown equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between fairness and organizational citizenship behaviors (Blakely et al., 2005). On the other hand, equity sensitivity research indicated that entitled (prefer to get from the organization) are expected to be more concerned about unfairness—and will respond a strongly negative way (Scott & Colquitt 2007; Andiappan & Trevino, 2010; Hayibor, 2015). For example,

equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between psychological contract breach and both organizational citizenship and workplace deviant behaviors (Lloyd et al., 2007). In another study, Kickul and Lester (2001) examined equity sensitivity as a moderator between psychological contract breach and employee attitudes and behavior. Further, equity sensitivity also moderated the relationship between self-efficacy and work attitudes (O'Neill & Mone, 1998). Contrary to this evidence, Scott and Colquitt (2007) did not find moderating support between organizational justice dimensions and work outcomes. As discussed above, equity sensitivity may play as an important construct to our understanding of individuals' work attitudes and behaviors whereas equivocal evidence in existing research findings (Allan, & White, 2002; Shannon et al., 2009) requires more research in this domain. Accordingly, this research is also one step ahead, to seek to examine, the perplexing results providing empirical evidence whether equity sensitivity does moderate the relations between unfairness and outcomes. Therefore, we hypothesized as under:

Hypothesis 5a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational (in)justice on job-burnout as well as turnover intention, such that the effects of organizational justice will be more negative for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

Hypothesis 5b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational justice on organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior, such that the effects of organizational justice will be more positive for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

Hypothesis 6a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intention, such that the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

Hypothesis 6b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance, as well as employees' in role behavior, such that the negative relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

3.4 Chapter Summary

Based on previous literature and discussion in this chapter we strived to established our conceptual model and offered the study hypotheses. This chapter started with the guiding map highlighting the direct effects of unfairness as stressors on five outcome variables. Based on several theoretical frameworks discussed in previous chapters strived to arguments that how individual difference variables: personal human values, equity sensitivity may influence individual reactions in response to the unfair event. To compare the two competing approaches (OJ & ERI) for validation of their predictive capacity in examining the stress outcomes we offered direct and moderating hypotheses which have been analyzed in next chapters.

4

Research Methodology

Following our study objectives, the previous chapter demonstrates a proposed conceptual model and study hypotheses. The intent of this chapter is to discuss the research methods which were used in two studies to explore the influence of injustice on employees' stress outcomes. In addition, the moderating role of personal human values and equity sensitivity, whether both variables may or may not moderate the relationship between predictor and outcome variables. First, this chapter describes the methodological approach used in the current study in which all relevant measures were generated prior to data collection. Next, we addressed the research context, especially ones that are relevant to Pakistani sample. Research setting and data collection were discussed by addressing sampling and translation of measurement instrument. In this section, the original version was kept in the data collection in Pakistan and the French translated version in France. Next, we discussed the measures included in this present research concluded by addressing the control variables. Results of pilot study were discussed next by addressing the issue of constructs' measures validity and reliability. This chapter is concluded by addressing the ethical concern in the data collection process.

4.1 Positivist's Methodological Approach

This research is a quantitative study in nature, which offers to address the questions that how individuals' preferences influence the choice of behaviors and attitudes when individuals facing unfair event at the workplace? In addition, personal human values and equity sensitivity may operate as moderators of the relationships between the unfairness and stress outcomes? In this chapter a detail description regarding survey design, setting and subject selection criteria, measurement tools used to measure study variables and various methods for analyzing the data are also described. The approach for this study is explanatory and encompasses quantitative tools and techniques. In fact, based on the hypo-deductive approach in this study we adopted quantitative research method to find out a scientific inquiry of phenomena due to salient features of this approach.

Despite, the fact that organization research has long lasting history, at the same flow, several researchers (e.g., Zald,1993) highlight basic questions regarding nature of research in the field for example—what constitutes relevant research questions, basic theories, feasible methods, convincing evidence and bigger objectives for the particular investigation? proponents of Zald's (1993) like Andrew and Edward (1998) stated that it needs to be considered foundations of organization studies by increasing interdisciplinary work include—prominent role of humanities as a technique to enhance the literature and help chart a different course of the field.

The hypo-deductive approach has generally been used by social scientists in their scholarships, yet this approach has maintained its position even in recent scholarly published work in the field of social science. Positivism is based on the ontological assumptions of objective reality (see Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Positivism is associated with variables, which holds several assumptions regarding the social science domain as well as how it ought to be examined. The assumptions of hypo-deductive are as—first it presumes that social world can be studied as similar to the natural world; second, there is corresponding unity of scheme between the natural and social world and the third assumption of hypo-deductive is the social world can be value-free.

According to Lee (1991), this approach is rationally associated with pure scientific laws and stands on facts and figures with respect to satisfying the four requirements of falsifiability, logical consistency, relative exploratory power, and survival. Furthermore, the requirements of

positivism are also demonstrated by Lee (1991), in order to explain the researcher stated that; first, theories must be having characteristics not only validate to experiential observations but also ought to be falsifiable. Second, theoretical propositions must be connected to one another. For instance, a certain theory must be having the ability to explain or forecast opposing theory. Therefore, these requirements—falsifiable, consistent, and explanatory theory must have the ability to carry on through experimental tests.

According to Levin (1988), positivists believe in a constant authenticity which is observable and purposeful that others can repeat them without extra efforts through simply repetition. However, Koch and Harrington (1998) also considered that research ought to be value-free. Thus, positivist research is a “systematic and methodological process” (e.g., Koch & Harrington, 1998 as cited in a walker, 2005) that lays emphasis “rationality, objectivity, prediction and control” (see Streubert & Carpenter, 1999, p: 7). Elements taken out from these concepts of rationality, prediction, objectivity and control included the methodological or instrumental positivism. The concept of positivism is based on atomism, quantification, and operationalization. Atomism entails that an occurrence survives as a unit alienated from the whole world (experiments) with different components. Quantification identifies the variables that can be utter in the shape of numbers and rate of recurrence.

This concept also uses mathematical tools to express importance for a portrait the conclusions. Several other researchers further explain that operationalization strives to explain social phenomena as simple behaviors (see Lee, 1991; Salomon, 1991; Walker, 2005). Such argument advocates that the epistemological viewpoint of any type of research describes instruments of data collection and analyze this data. Whereas, Worrall (2000 p. 354) argues that quantitative approach in research has pervasive keen admiration in the discipline “lies in the predictive advantages his method of inquiry possesses. In fact, the ability to make correct predictions is one of the more outstanding characteristics of quantitative methodology.”

The others researchers having the same ideology like Worrall (2000) they were required to confirm that prediction is essentially a quantitative task. Whereas, an individual surely can calculate past and present occurrence in the social experiments, by considering what is and has been and stemming from these forecasts what will be in future so, it does not require statistical analysis for achieving these purposes. The ability to forecast that what type of results is expected is recommended as the innermost significance of the quantitative research. Based on

as mentioned in the discussion, this study follows a positivist approach to explore the relationships between predictors and criterion variables.

4.2 Individualism–Collectivism

Scholars have found that there are several cultural differences in social behavior (Rhee, Uleman, & Lee, 1996). This research comprises two different samples from two different countries: Pakistan and France. However, the scholars have found that it is a difficult task to handle cross-cultural data. Triandis (1995) stated that to conduct the cross-cultural study, collectivism and individualism are suggested as probable underlying variables. We intended to conduct this research in Pakistan and France considering the cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2001), Pakistan generally scores high on values such as collectivism, with a high score on power distance above 55, uncertainty avoidance dimension (70) and a low score on individualism (less than 20), similar score on both masculinity (50) and long-term orientation (50), however, with an extremely low score of indulgence “0”. In contrast, France is characterized as an individualistic country with a high score on individualism (71), power distance (68), relatively low level of masculinity (43), level of uncertainty avoidance score (86), long-term orientation (63) with a medium score on indulgence (48). Based on different scores on Hofstede’s (2001) cultural dimensions, we argue that Pakistani respondents are quite different in values and tradition from French respondents.

4.3 The Context of Pakistan

In the following section we provided a detail about the context of Pakistan, because the majority of the respondents were belonging to that population. Islamic republic of Pakistan was created in the name of Islam, with the main religion of (97%), Islam, which is the second largest religion in the world (Lewis & Churchill, 2008) and it is the 6th most populous country in the world as well as 2nd most populous in the Muslim countries (1st is Indonesia and 3rd is Bangladesh). Pakistan comprises four provinces, namely, Sindh, Punjab, Balochistan, and Khyber-Pakhtunkhwa, along with the Tribal areas named as Federally Administered Tribal Areas (FATA) and a disputed territory, namely, Azad Kashmir. The Kashmir part is always remaining a reason for territorial conflict primarily between India and Pakistan, (Jammu-Kashmir), since the partition of Pakistan from India in 1947. Most of the population belongs

to the Punjab province. There are many different ethnic groups living in Pakistan, i.e. 44.68% are Punjabis, 15.42% are Pashtuns, 14.1% are Sindhis, 8.38% are Saraiki, 7.57% are Mohajirs, 3.57% are Baluchi, and 6.28% are others. These are approximately 1.62 billion practicing Muslims, which represents 23% of the world's population (Pew Forum, 2010).

4.3.1 Growth and Investment

The economic growth remained broad-based. Previously, in the economy of the country agriculture sector had a major share but now a days the manufacturing and service sector has shown a significant growth. For the fiscal year 2014-15, it was found that 5.1% was set as a gross domestic product (GDP) growth target, followed by the back growth of agriculture sector 3.3%, industry 6.8%, service sector 5.2%. The growth rate was coherent with assumptions of normal weather condition, good production from agriculture crops, better investment prospects, and enhancement in energy supplies. As per provisional estimates during 2014-15 GDP growth remained at 4.24% as compared to 2013-2014 estimates 4.03%. In this study, we collected data from three different sectors, however, we also have given the overview of all three sectors in the light of information by Federal bureau of statics of Pakistan.

4.3.2 Energy Sector

The energy sector is an integral component of negotiation between the government and bilateral and multilateral development partners. The present government of Pakistan is highly focused on the energy sector. The government withdrew Pakistani Rupees 480 billion (€ 428612045.30 approximately) debts instantly in order to add 1700MW of electricity. Iran intends to expand economic cooperation with Pakistan, along with increasing regional cooperation, and also the nuclear deal between the United States, Russia, China, Britain, France and Germany discussed in meeting with the seated prime minister of Pakistan. National power policy 2013 also determined for the present and future needs of the energy. Prime minister went for a visit to Turkmenistan, energy and security was his main emphasis in the meeting along with Afghanistan-Pakistan-India (TAPI) Pipeline.

4.3.3 Education

Education is a way of learning and to convey knowledge, skills, abilities, and habits of individuals from one to the other generation through different activities like training, teaching,

and research. When education process will be efficient and effective it will make a knowledge society. Thus, this endeavor will sustain the foundation for the socio-economic development of the country. Therefore, its role has become central to develop the knowledge economy since literate and skilled citizens play an essential part in the development of the economy. As per latest PSLM (Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement) Survey 2013-14, literacy rate remained (74%) higher in urban areas as compare to rural areas (49%). The data shows that province wise Punjab is on 61% with leading literacy followed by the 56% of Sindh, 53% of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, and 43% of Baluchistan. In addition, higher education commission is also playing a remarkable role by providing different scholarship programs for all levels of students on merit basis for all provinces with specific criteria. Total, 10,376 scholarships have been awarded in different disciplines during 2008-14. Prime Minister's fee reimbursement scheme has been awarded to almost 5000 students in less developed areas during 2014-15 with emphasis on human resource development through need-based and merit scholarships to improve the literacy rate.

4.3.4 Health

The government of Pakistan is taking various steps to improve the nutrition and health of the peoples by providing access and coverage to the health services to obtain social benefits from economic success in Pakistan. The coverage of health services has enriched over years and the current health facilities consist of 1,142 hospitals with the availability of 118,041 beds, 5,499 dispensaries, 669 Rural Health Centers (RHCs) and Basic Health Units (BHUs). Along with these facilities, there are 175,223 doctors, 90,276 nurses and 15,106 dentists in the country as compare to France where 206, 159 doctors. During the current year the ratio of medical facilities in terms of doctors is estimated as 1,073 persons per doctor with the availability 1,593 persons per one bed in the hospital, and 12,447 persons per dentist. The GDP works out 0.4% during July-March 2014-15 along the expenditure approximately Pakistani rupees. 114.2 billion (€1017668007 approximately) in the health sector. To further improve the health sector new facilities has been added during 2014-15 consist of 3500 doctors, 3,300 nurses, 350 dentists, and 3,900 hospital beds. Different control programs have been carried out to overcome and lessen the side-effects of various diseases like Malaria, TB, and AIDs in the hospitals. Although, Pakistan is developing the country, and Government is investing a huge portion of the budget, yet is insufficient to meet the demands of the huge population. Comparing to France

there are many differences in the health sector, in terms of, qualified staff, advanced technology, and medical research centers.

4.3.5 Per Capita Income

Per capita income (PCI) is an important economic indicator which measures the average income of the individual each year and also differentiates well-being among different countries of the world. According to the economic survey of the Pakistan (2014-15), PCI showed significant growth from 3.83% in 2012-13 to 9.25% in 2014-15. PCI in terms of a dollar raised from 1,333 in 2012-13 to US\$ 1,512 in 2014-15. However, this increased in PCI include remarkable GDP growth, low rate of population and the consistent of the Pakistani Rupee.

4.3.6 Inflation

Inflation provides an insight regarding the economy of any country, it can occur in any country of the world with different price and intensities. Price stability remained as an integral component of government due to the socio-economic rate of inflation. Consumer Price Index (CPI) is a measurement tool for inflation rate and CPI remained at 4.8% as the lowest level of inflation during July-April 2014-15 as compared to the 8.7% in the July-April 2012-13. During July-April FY15 the inflation rate for the food estimated at 3.6% from 9.3% and for non-food 5.7% from 8.2 as compared to previous year period. Some reasons of high inflation rate during previous years could be consecutive floods in 2010, 2011 and 2012, which destroyed the food crops and disturbed the supply-side. However, the inflation rate remained quite subdued due to the better pursuance of fiscal and monetary policies, exchange rate, and the streamlining of the supply chain.

4.3.7 Population, Labor Force, and Employment

Population growth and development of any country are linked with each other. Different economic development policies produces and resources of the country can be used to develop education, health, and energy sector. According to the Pakistan Labor Force Survey 2014-15, the population is estimated as 188.02 million in 2014, 191.71 million in 2015, and 195.4 million in 2016. The urban population is estimated as 72.50 million in 2014, 75.19 million in 2015, and 77.93 million in 2016 as compared to rural population 115.52 million in 2014, 116.52 million in 2015, and 117.48 million in 2016. Whereas, the total population growth rate is

slightly decreased from 1.95 % in 2014, 1.92 % in 2015, and 1.89% in 2016 (Ministry of Planning, Development, and Reforms, The year 2007-2030). Pakistan has remarkable youth structure, which exerts a considerable stress in the economy of Pakistan. If proper training and resources cannot be given to the young peoples of Pakistan, it creates a large burden and loss of education, health, and jobs. Consequently, this would be deteriorating for both social and economic situations. In contrast, to build a power force for social and economic development, there must be a need for effective government policies for all sectors like health, energy, and education.

The labor force shows the total number of labor supply in the economy and as well as the ratio of participated people in the labor force of the country. The participated rate of the labor force in the Pakistan is estimated through Refined Activity Rate (RAR) and Crude Activity Rate (CAR). According to the Labor Force Survey 2014-15, Pakistan has 61.04 million labor force as compare to survey 2013-14 60.09 million (Labor Force Survey 2014-15). Therefore, the rate of participation is estimated as 32.3 % in 2014-15 against 32.9% in 2013-14 with a slight reduction. According to the Labor Force Survey 2014-15, the participation rate of Female labor force slightly increased from 15.6% in 2012-13 to 15.8% till present in 2014-15. In contrast, the participation rate of Male labor force slightly decreased from 49.3% in 2012-13 to 48.1% in 2014-15. From a total number of the labor force in Pakistan, employment got by 56.52 million people only and 3.58 million people remain unemployed. The government is really taking steps to increase employment level and as a result to decrease the ratio of unemployment. Resultantly, during the survey in 2013-14 percentage of unemployment decreased from 6.24% to 6.0%. Agriculture is one of the most prominent sectors of Pakistan and most of the labor force works in agriculture in rural areas which decreased from 43.7% in 2012-13 to 43.48 % in 2013-14. In other sectors like manufacturing, there was no change in labor force participation in 2013-14 but in the transport sector has increased to 5.44% in 2013-14 from 4.98% in 2012-13.

From a total number of the labor force in Pakistan, employment got by 56.52 million people only and 3.58 million people remain unemployed. Since the impact of employment ratio can play an important role in forming the stress outcomes. The government is really taking steps to increase employment level and as a result to decrease the ratio of unemployment.

4.3.8 China-Pakistan Economic Corridor (CPEC)

Baluchistan is one of the important provinces which is area wise big among all four provinces and also a rich with the natural resource. There is third largest seaport in the world namely Gawadar, exists in Baluchistan. This has been accountable for economic growth and name has been given as Gawadar port in 1965. It is the deepest port around the whole port of Karachi and also recognized the place for wind power generation on the top of the list in the Pakistan. Despite, China is the biggest country by population and economic growth as well as has one of the biggest seaports, yet, China wants to have a connection with Pakistan through Gawadar port for further economic success. Therefore, this China-Pakistan economic corridor is the way to make more strong relations between China and Pakistan. The total expenditures of this CPEC are around 45 billion in Dollar. This contract would not only be benefited for import export but even will be benefited from the economy of the Pakistan. Presumably, it will generate a lot of opportunities for the unemployed people in the Pakistan. Therefore, it can be a golden opportunity for the Pakistan to enhance the economic situation and increase GDP rate.

4.3.9 Synthesis of Pakistani Context

Since, the majority of the respondents were belonging to Pakistan, which has some specificities that enhance the importance to study this culture, as well as different context not only the classical western countries context. Pakistan offers an interesting phenomenon to conduct this research because of not only in terms of economic, geography and demography, but also critical issues of human resource management such as minimum service bond, compensation, job security, late working hours, tangible rewards, a lack of supervisor's support, a chain of command, performance appraisals and a most critical issue are terrorism.

Therefore, it is essential to examine what factors are involved in improving the fairness perceptions at work in both public and private organizations in Pakistan.

Generally, the employees remain dissatisfied with their jobs because of working hours and fewer rewards. Poor working conditions are the normal features of a large number of the workplace. In addition, less occupational safety and health hazards, in terms of job security is considerably important for organizational members. Individuals who hired for temporary jobs, may not be appeared on organization's payroll, and have no job security or equal benefits as well as they can be fired without prior notice when there no work. Besides, the state is the main employer in numerous countries and hence has a strong impact on the formation of normative

values of employment (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000). The population rate of Pakistan is too high and it is a critical challenge for the state to produce appropriate jobs for unemployed people. Due to a high rate of unemployment, the individuals accept the job offers, even those jobs do not match with their qualifications. However, in private sectors there is no job security, therefore employees remain stressed because they believe their services can be terminated at any time. Further, in private sectors employer may demand an employees' services by assigning heavy workload and no extra rewards and recognitions. Although social security benefits play a major role in employees' well-being, unfortunately in Pakistan social security plans are relatively weak. Even some public sector organizations do not offer appropriate such plans, ultimately the employees have to move to a private hospital which is too costly.

The most important and a critical issue is terrorism. Karachi is the big city of Pakistan and also called an economic hub, yet there are many administrative issues, and the peace of Karachi has been ruined for many years. The hidden internal and external elements adversely affect the peace of that city. In addition, Pakistan has badly affected due to unrestrainable terrorism. Furthermore, a critical cause of unemployment may also be considered terrorist attacks in Karachi, because due to terrorism the routine life badly disturbed and people want to stay in their houses. Whereas, foreigners stop to invest in such situations and no further job openings. Based on aforementioned facts, we anticipate that employee may experience stress, therefore, it is important to conduct research in Pakistan, that how individuals cope with the stressful situations.

4.4 Research Setting and Data Collection

The purpose of this current research was to address the questions and supporting hypotheses regarding links among unfairness (organizational injustice and efforts rewards imbalance) stress outcomes (Job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employee's performance and in role behavior) in the presence of moderating variables (self-transcendence, self-enhancements and equity sensitivity) building upon the perceptions of employees' selected in Pakistan and France (see Appendix for the survey instruments). Since this research contains, constructs of interest were about employees' perceptions, values, and individual's personality differences.

A cross-sectional survey design was selected in examining the under-discussed relationships. A cross-sectional self-report methodology is suitable for collecting information

regarding employee's perceptions related to their jobs as well as in informing the researchers regarding inter-correlation between these perceptions (Spector, 1994). Moreover, the information collected through the cross-sectional survey can be insightful and "useful for a driving hypothesis about how people react to jobs" (Spector, 1994, p. 390). Thus, most of the organizational researchers were found to follow cross-sectional research methodology.

4.4.1 Sampling

This study aimed to conduct likely to be a cross-cultural context in two countries includes Pakistan and France. Survey respondents were engaged from a heterogeneous sample of different cities of Pakistan. Although we obtained data from different cities of Pakistan yet, Lahore and Faisalabad had a major portion of the respondents who participated in this survey. For Pakistani sample we obtained data from, both public and private universities (n=191); energy sector (n=189) and hospitals (n=203) operated in Faisalabad, Rawalpindi, Islamabad, Lahore, and Gujrat. A total 742 questionnaires were distributed, however, 608 were received back and the response rate for Pakistani sample was 81% seems quite high is not unusual in Asian settings. As mentioned above mainly we collected the data from two big cities of Pakistan: Lahore and Faisalabad, however, the reason for choosing these cities as Lahore is the second and Faisalabad correspondingly 3rd populous and industrial city of Pakistan.

In addition, employees had a diverse geographical background. The large numbers of employees working in these cities belong to nearby villages and travel for the jobs. Accordingly, there are many differences (living standards, mental, liking, and disliking) that underlie the employees who live in villages and those who were the inhabitants of those cities. In addition, we had personal contacts in institutions located as aforementioned cities. Each of three sectors were visited personally and the survey questionnaire were distributed directly among full time employees includes: Teaching (Professor, associate professors, assistant professor and lecturer) and non-teaching staff (administrative, secretarial, exams, admission staff and IT related staff), sector-2 includes: Doctors, Paramedical staff and administrative staff and sector 3-includes: white collar (General manager, director, assistant director, accounts officer, audit officer and project based officers), blue collar (Assistant, personal assistant, head steno, head clerk, upper divisional clerk, lower divisional clerk, IT administrator, line superintendent, reading supervisor and billing supervisor). Similarly, for French sample includes Teachers, researchers and administrative staff in both public and private universities,

research laboratories, located in Marseille, Aix-en-Provence, Avignon, and Paris. For French sample, we used both online and face-to-face survey techniques, in addition, we sent the emails by using the personal contacts for receiving a maximum response. We distributed 357 questionnaires and 247 were received back and the response rate was 69%, which is also sufficient for data analysis.

4.4.2 Translation of Research Instrument and Pilot Testing

The questionnaire was administered in two languages—English and French as this survey was required to be conducted in two countries. Pakistani institutes adopted medium of instruction is the English language, therefore, we presumed that Pakistani respondents have no problem to understand by filling out the questionnaire. Secondly, before circulating the survey questionnaires, two natives of English speaker reviewed this English version of the questionnaire. Accordingly, native speakers had suggested some descriptions regarding survey items. However, following the instructions of native speakers, we included a short description of variables along with the survey questionnaire.

Our survey questionnaires were consisting in two languages French and English. Initially, we decided to search both English and French questionnaires from different research databases. We succeeded to find all the study's measurement tools of English version but, we could not succeed to find all measuring tools for French sample except some of the variables. So, we decided to translate English version into French. For the purpose of translation English to French, two French natives contributed translating the questionnaire, initially, one expert studied the questionnaire and translated into French language and whereas, another French native reviewed for proofreading of the French version.

After completing the French translation of measurement tools, we decided to launch the questionnaire for pilot testing. A pretest offered two purposes in our study. The first purpose is to examine the clarity and reliability of the measuring tools and second is to test the internal consistency of constructs includes in this study. In fact, pre-test provides a true picture for minimizing the errors which occur due to inappropriate design or ambiguous wording (Zikmund, 1997). After introducing ourselves we personally distributed 90 questionnaires at Paris and a research lab located in Avignon, among faculty members, administrative staff and Ph.D. students who work part-time in addition to their studies. Although a cover letter had information about the survey, in addition, we personally explained the purpose of survey and

questionnaire's items and asked to pilot participants to pay careful attention to understanding each item containing this survey and show record their responses by making circle among one of the given options. Almost all the respondents promised for filling out the questionnaire within a week time.

As per schedule, we re-visited the respondent's places and asked about the questionnaire, while receiving back the questionnaire the respondents discussed some difficulties regarding understandings of technical language used in the questionnaire. When participants had completed their questionnaire, we discussed whether they found any difficulties /confusion if there was anything that we could improve the questionnaire. In this, connection the respondents filled out the questionnaire after some clarifications in the language used in the survey. A pilot study was conducted with 51 participants. One of the major aims of pilot testing was to ensure that the proposed predictors, criteria and intervening measures had well-built psychometric properties, pilot testing also offered an opening to confirm the functionality and worth of the survey.

Table 4.1: Results of Reliability Test of Pilot Study for French Sample

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach α	Reference
Distributive Justice	04	.84	Leventhal (1976)
Procedural Justice	07	.69	Leventhal (1980)
Interpersonal Justice	04	.74	Bies and Moag (1986)
Informational Justice	05	.89	Bies and Moag (1986) and Shapiro (1994)
Employees' Efforts	03	.69	Siegrist (2009)
Organizational Rewards	07	.65	Siegrist (2009)
Equity Sensitivity	05	.89	Heuseman (1987)
Self -Enhancement	07	.68	Schwartz (1995)
Self -Transcendence	10	.87	Schwartz (1995)
Job-Burnout	07	.79	Borritz. and Tager S. (2005) (CBI)
Turnover Intention	03	.71	Mobley (1978)
Employee's Performance	03	.67	Tessema and Soeters (2006)
Organizational Commitment	06	.69	Mowday et al. (1979)
Employee in role Behavior	07	.73	William and Anderson (1991)

In the period of approximately one month, we collected 53 questionnaires out these 90, two questionnaires were not filled with attention so, with the exclusion, these two questionnaires remaining 51 were of use. Although the preferred sample size for exploratory factor analysis

is a ratio of 5 responses for each variable is being measured (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Burns and Grove (2005) make no specific recommendations for pilot testing. On the other hand, Lackey and Wingate, (1998) recommended approximately 10 percent of the final sample size, yet the decision is guided by the time and resource constraints. Considering low response rate (56%) during pilot testing we performed analysis based on 51 respondents which are minimum recommended sample size (50) for exploratory factor analysis. However, based on 51 respondents I conducted reliability test for calculating internal consistency of the measures and reported the results (Cronbach's alpha) of the pilot study are showing in table 4.1.

Several participants had given valuable remarks on survey formatting, questionnaire wording and some clarification regarding technical language for better understating. During the pre-test, some of the participants had mentioned that the survey consumes long time to fill out the questionnaire, but most of the participants had no issue because, an estimated time was 15-20 minutes per survey, which is quite normal. Based on survey feedback we concluded that the respondents also viewed this survey as an interesting and instructive. The prior distribution of final survey, we considered respondents' suggestions and made some formatting changes, and strived to overcome the language issues. Some changes were also made in demographic details, however, before, launching the questionnaire for final survey, the other time, two university professors read the whole questionnaire and recommended some additional changes in formatting and language improvements used in the questionnaire. Therefore, following the experts' instructions we made all changes before distribution of the questionnaire.

4.4.3 Scaling Option

A famous sociologist Rensis Likert (1932) initiated a psychometric rating scale, later on, it was called as Likert-type scale, and it is commonly engaged in research studies that may use questionnaire. The scholars have widely used a rating scale to capture information on a range of phenomena. They have tried to use different options, rating scale points items for receiving a better alpha reliability. The scholars reported inconsistent results of these studies.

A Likert scale is an ordered scale from which participants of particular survey select one option whatever they want that best describes their point of view. It is commonly used to determine participants' preferences or degree of agreement by asking the extent to which they agree/disagree with a particular statement by way of an ordinal scale given in the questionnaire

items. The format of a traditional Likert item scale might be “*strongly disagree to strongly agree*”. Previous studies postulate that the choice of response categories for odd-numbered scales whether 5-point or 7-point scale is not an optimal number of response categories, there is no one right way, so the choice between a 7-point over a 5-point scale can be considered on either case. However, the seven-point scale has more discrimination as compare to the Five-point scale, so the scholars can observe real difference athwart the scale. It can offer an exclusive operational definition across the wider scale. On the one hand, the scores set out across the scale or gather at the middle point. In general, we can say that a seven point Likert scale offers the eminence and thus better decision-making.

The scholars have argued that if the questionnaire administers over the telephone it would be better that response categories might be fewer to avoid the difficulties. We administer the survey questionnaire as a hard copy that the respondents can read and easily understand by viewing to the more options option may be fine. Keeping in view we preferred 7-point Likert scale over the 5-point in our study and converted all items from 5-point Likert (*1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree*) scale to 7-point Likert scale (*1-strongly disagree to 7-strongly agree*).

Example Likert-type scale

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

4.5 Measures

In this study, nine measuring tools were used to calculate the predictors, criterions and intervening variables. Measuring tools includes: four facets of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional and informational justice), perceptions of efforts/rewards imbalance (efforts and rewards), equity sensitivity, personal human values and this study included five stress outcomes—job-burnout, employees’ performance, turnover

intentions, organizational commitment and retaliation behavior. For getting demographic information this study includes demographic variables—gender, age, married/unmarried, educational level, job title, basic pay scale and organizational tenure. Details about independent, dependent and moderating variables are as under:

4.5.1 Independent Variables

Proposed model of this study includes two independent variables—perceived organizational injustice with its taxonomy of four components (distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and informal justice) and efforts/rewards imbalance (ERI) with the classification of two-dimension model (efforts and rewards) to examine the relationship with outcomes variables. The detail of items includes in each class of study measures are given separately.

4.5.1.1 Organizational Justice

There are four various dimensions to measure organizational justice we will describe each in detail accordingly.

Distributive Justice: We measured Distributive justice by using a four-item scale developed by of Leventhal (1976). Items include (1) “Do those outcomes (organizational rewards) reflect the effort you have put into your work?” (2) “Are those outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?” (3) “Do those outcomes reflect what you have contributed to your work?” (4) “Are those outcomes justified, given your performance?”. The items were scored on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. Alpha reliabilities were measured 0.91 Pakistani sample and 0.92 in the French sample.

Procedural Justice: Perceptions of procedural justice were measured with 7-items scales developed by Leventhal (1980). The participants were asked to demonstrate their opinion by choosing an option given in the questionnaire. Items include: (1) “Are you able to express your views during those procedures?” (2) “Can you influence the decisions arrived at by those procedures?” (3) “Are those procedures applied consistently?” (4) “Are those procedures free of bias?” (5) “Are those procedures based on accurate information?” (6) “Are you able to appeal the decisions arrived at by those procedures?” (7) “Do those procedures uphold ethical and moral standards?” Responses were made on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1-*strongly*

disagree to 7-strongly agree. Cronbach's alphas were 0.81 in the Pakistani sample and 0.89 in French sample.

Interpersonal Justice: Employees' perceptions of interpersonal justice were assessed using four items scale developed by Bies and Moag (1986). To what extent the items were included (1) "Has your boss /supervisor treated you in a polite manner?" (2) "Has your boss /supervisor treated you with dignity?" (3) "Has your boss /supervisor treated you with respect?" (4) "Has your boss /supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments?". Each item was rated using a 7- point Likert scale, ranging from 1 *strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. Cronbach's alphas were 0.87 in the Pakistani sample and 0.86 in French sample.

Informational Justice: The fourth dimension of organizational justice (informational justice) was measured using five items scales developed by Bies and Moag (1986) and Shapiro (1994). The items include (1) "Has your boss /supervisor been candid when communicating with you?" (2) "Has your boss /supervisor explained decision-making procedures thoroughly?" (3) "Were your boss's /supervisor's explanations regarding procedures reasonable?" (4) "Has your boss /supervisor tailored communications to meet individuals 'needs?" (5) "Has your boss /supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?". All the items were rated using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. Cronbach's alphas were 0.91 in the Pakistani sample and 0.87 in French sample.

4.5.1.2 Effort-Reward Imbalance

Effort-reward imbalance was measured with following two following dimensions. Initially, a long version was developed by introducing 23-items to measure ERI later on a shortened version developed by Siegrist, Wege, Puhhofer, and Wahrendorf, (2009) in order to that we adopted the latest version to measure ERI. The shortened version of ERI contains 10 items includes 1-3 (3 items) related to **employees' effort**, items include (1) "I have constant time pressure due to a heavy workload", (2) "I have many interruptions and disturbances while performing my job", (3) "Over the past few years, my job has become more and more demanding" 4-10 (7-itmes) related to **organizational reward** and items include (1) "I receive the respect I deserve from my superior or a respective relevant person"(2) "My job promotion prospects are poor" (3) "I have experienced or I expect to experience an undesirable change in my work situation" (4) "My job security is poor" (5) "Considering all my efforts and achievements, I receive the respect and prestige I deserve at work" (6) "Considering all my

efforts and achievements, my job promotion prospects are adequate” (7) “Considering all my efforts and achievements, my salary/income is adequate”. Items 6 and seven were reverse scored.

All items were anchored using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. Cronbach’s alphas for employee’s efforts were 0.90 in the Pakistani sample and 0.86 in French sample, similarly for organizational rewards were 0.87 in the Pakistani sample and 0.81 in French sample. The responses are summed for each scale, and the effort-reward ratio (ER ratio) was calculated with the formula (R): $E / (R \times C)$. In this formula, the reward (R) was multiplied by the correction factor (C) that accounts for different numbers of items in nominator and denominator. As a result, individuals who had an effort/reward ratio score larger than 1 experience severe imbalance (Peter, Alfredsson, Hammar, Siegrist, Theorell, & Westerholm, 1998).

4.5.2 Dependent Variables

This study includes five dependent variables— job-burnout, organizational commitment, employees’ performance, turnover intention and organizational retaliation behavior that have influenced by the independent variables as discussed in previous literature. The items include all dependent variables are described one by one in a subsequent section.

4.5.2.1 Work-related Burnout

Work related burnout was measured by using Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen, and Christensen (2005) (Copenhagen Burnout Inventory) 7-items measure of work-related burnout and items include (1) “Is your work emotionally exhausting?” (2) “Do you feel burnt out because of your work?” (3) “Does your work frustrate you?” (4) “Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?” (5) “Are you exhausted in the morning at the thought of another day at work?” (6) “Do you feel that every working hour is tiring for you?” (7) “Do you have enough energy for family and friends during leisure time?” The reliability of the scale was 0.92 in the Pakistani sample and 0.89 in French sample.

4.5.2.2 Turnover Intention

Turnover intention scale has been identified by Mobley, Horner, and Hollingsworth (1978) as the degree to which respondents view regarding their attention to quit the present organization, with this regard they proposed 3-items scales to measure employees' intention to leave the organization. The items include (1) "I often think about quitting my present job" (2) "I will probably look for a new job in the next year" (3) "As soon as possible, I will leave the organization". The items were rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. The coefficient alphas for this scale were 0.89 in the Pakistani sample and 0.91 in the French sample.

4.5.2.3 Organizational Commitment

We used six-item scale developed by Mowday, Steer, and Poter (1979) to assess employees' perceptions with regard to their commitment and items include (1) "I tell my friends that this is a great organization to work for" (2) "I feel little loyalty to my employer" (3) "I find that my values and the employing organization's values are very similar" (4) "I find that my values and the employing organization's values are very similar" (5) "I find that my values and the employing organization's values are very similar" (6) "I am proud to tell people that I work here" each item was rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree* and Item 2 is reverse scored. The coefficient alpha for this scale were 0.90 in the Pakistani sample and 0.92 in French Sample.

4.5.2.4 Employees' Performance

Two classes of employees' performance were assessed both employees' and supervisors remember, team member we used perceptions of employees and employers and in order to that we adopted three-item scale developed by Tessema and Soeters (2006) with regard to performance as perceived by the respondents as subordinate and items include (1) "My performance is better than that of my colleagues with similar qualifications" (2) "My performance is better than that of employees with similar qualifications in other ministries" (3) "The performance of my ministry is better than that of other ministries". The reliability of the scale for employee's performance was 0.88 in the Pakistani sample and 0.87 in French sample.

4.5.2.5 *Employees' in Role Behavior*

Based on the fair practices of management, the supervisors were required to be asked that how these fair perceptions reflect their team performance. We intended to collect the information about employee's performance directly came from their supervisors. However, during the pre-test we found, it is hard to collect the responses from two levels employees self-report performance and performance directly came from a supervisor. Therefore, we did not collect the data from supervisor-subordinate dyad. However, team and team performance have gradually acknowledged in today's work settings, and organizations continue to rely on teams as a means of structuring work (Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford, 1995; Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999; Akan et al., 2008). Taken these lines of thoughts, we still strived to know that how a supervisor/team member (co-worker) describes an overall in-role performance about his team even someone has a single team member. In addition, we approached the respondents with the instructions "please fill these items about the overall performance of your team/subordinate even if he/she has a single team member" who have at least one or two team members.

For measuring employees' in role behavior, we adopted 7-items scale developed by William and Anderson (1991) the items include (1) "Adequately completes the assigned duties" (2) "Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description" (3) "Performs tasks that are expected of him/her" (4) "Meets formal performance requirements of the job" (5) "Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation" (6) "Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform" (7) "Fails to perform essential duties". All the items were rated on a 7-point rating scale from 1-*strongly disagree* to 7-*strongly agree*. The alphas reliabilities for employees' in role behavior were 0.87 for Pakistan, and 0.92 for French Sample.

4.5.3 *Moderating Variables*

One of the main purposes of this study examines the relationship between unfairness perceptions and stress outcomes through the lens of two moderators—personal human values which are further broken down into two categories (self-enhancement and self-transcendence) and similarly equity sensitivity considering three categories (benevolence, equity sensitivity

and entitled) therefore, this research demonstrates a detail of all items include moderating constructs in the following section.

4.5.3.1 Personal Human Values

Personal human values were measured by using a 17-items scale similar to those developed Schwartz (1995, 2005). Existing research has shown the Schwartz' motivation in refining the model of basic human values and establishing various measuring scales on his theory.

Initially, a measuring scale which was included 56-57 items and known as the Schwartz Value Survey or SVS (see Schwartz 2009). Latter the scale called portrait value questionnaire (PVQ) was offered for cross-cultural studies and other specific purposes. Since this research is motivated to include two samples in two different countries therefore, we are interested in the PVQ. We have adopted the items from longer version contained 40 items based on instrument guide (Schwartz personally provided on request in 2013). Although, a widely used 21-item PVQ also exists. However, we followed the same longer version instead of short version of PVQ, since its starting, value orientations have been examined with the PVQ by Schwartz (2003b).

Originally, Schwartz (1995) established 40-items for different four dimensions—openness to change, self-enhancement, self-transcendence, and conservation. However, we focused on two dimensions of personal human values includes: self-enhancement and self-transcendence. Based on the circumflex nature of personal values theory that may raise the issues of multicollinearity, therefore, Schwartz (2011) has suggested that personal human values should not be submitted all dimensions into a regression equation to avoid the inaccuracy and uninterpretability of the regression coefficients. Schwartz (2011), has also recommended that values can be included in the model based on theoretical grounds. Accordingly, we included self-enhancement and self-transcendence, based on prior conceptualization and further operationalization of distributive and procedural fairness which reflect opposite values types on a continuum of Schwartz's circumflex model.

Further, past studies suggest that distributive fairness has been operationalized based on the equity rule, the extent to which outcomes are evaluated fair if the distribution is constructed on individual's contributions (e.g., Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Moorman, 1991). Individuals who valued self-enhancement clearly demonstrate the importance of

outcomes (such as pay rises and promotions). Accordingly, self-enhancer put more emphasis on in distributing equity as it makes possible to stand out from others.

In addition, we also, presume that for these individuals (self-enhancers) distributive fairness is a strong factor influencing their emotions as well as turnover intentions. Whereas self-transcendence is on the opposite continuum, the extent to which individuals prefer ‘to promote the welfare of others’ (Schwartz, 1992, p. 44). Individuals more focus on the enhancement of the well-being of those with whom individuals are in a close contact (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000), therefore, we presume that these individuals (self-transcendence) interpersonal relationship is a strong element that can influence individuals as well as organizational outcomes. Therefore, we included two dimensions of personal human values: first dimension—***Self-enhancement*** was measured using 7-items (4, 13, 24, 32, 2, 17, 39) include (1) “It's very important to him to show his abilities. He wants people to admire what he does” (2) “Being very successful is important to him. He likes to impress other people” (3) “He thinks it is important to be ambitious. He wants to show how capable he is” (4) “Getting ahead in life is important to him. He strives to do better than others” (5) “It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things” (6) “It is important to him to be in charge and tell others what to do. He wants people to do what he says” (7) “He always wants to be the one who makes the decisions. He likes to be the leader”. The coefficient alphas for this scale were 0.93 in the Pakistani sample and 0.90 in the French sample.

The second dimension of human values—***Self-transcendence*** was measured using 10-items (3, 8, 19, 23, 29, 40, 12, 18, 27, 33) scale include (1) “He thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. He believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life” (2) “It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him. Even when he disagrees with them, he still wants to understand them” (3) “He strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to him” (4) “He believes all the worlds’ people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to him” (5) “He wants everyone to be treated justly, even people he doesn’t know. It is important to him to protect the weak in society” (6) “It is important to him to adapt to nature and to fit into it. He believes that people should not change nature” (7) “It's very important to him to help the people around him. He wants to care for their well-being.” (8) “It is important to him to be loyal to his friends. He wants to devote himself to people close to him” (9) “It is important to him to respond to the needs of others. He tries to support those he knows” (10)

“Forgiving people who have hurt him is important to him. He tries to see what is good in them and not to hold a grudge”. The coefficient alphas for this scale were 0.91 in the Pakistani sample and 0.93 in the French sample.

4.5.3.2 Equity Sensitivity

Equity sensitivity was assessed by using a five-item scale developed by Huseman et al. (1987) to gather the necessary data from targeted respondents. This scale was established to measure how individuals vary from each other in their allocations of their outcomes. The standard scale was slightly modified in ranging scores. Participants of this study responded to all scale 5-items using a 7-point with anchors ranging 1 *give to an organization* to 7 *get from organization* and respondent assigns 1-7 points between two sensitivity—a benevolent and an entitled response option instead of conventional standard scores (0-10 points). The purpose of the modifying the scale is due standardization of all measuring scales on ranging 1-7 Likert scales included in this study. The items include (1) “It would be more important for me to (1 = Give to organization to 7 = Get from organization)” (2) “It would be more important for me to (1 = Help others to 7 = Watch out for my own good)” (3) “I would be more concerned about (1 = What I give to organization to 7 = What I get from organization)” (4) “The hard work I would do should (1 = Benefit for organization to 7 = Benefit for me)” (5) “My personal philosophy in dealing with the organization would be (1 = It’s better to give than to receive to 7 = If you don’t look out for self-nobody, else will)”. The coefficient alphas for this scale were 0.89 in the Pakistani sample and 0.87 in the French sample.

This measurement scale has shown a very high internal consistency, unidimensional is also consistent with the theoretical perspective, it is derived from and is based on employees’ samples (Foote, & Harmon 2006). However, there is criticism on equity sensitivity scale founded on its dichotomous response pattern in place of benevolent and entitled (Restubog, Bordia, & Bordia, 2009). On the other hand, Foote and Harmon, (2006) recommended the response selection to include three continuums. Whereas, Blakely et al. (2005) empirically examined that benevolent and equity sensitives reacted in similar ways (Restubog et al., 2009). Accordingly, we have selected to use the measuring scale in its original form of two responses. One of these options exhibits an emphasis on a way of maintaining a long-term employment relationship with the organization (benevolent). while the other focuses personal outcomes (entitled). The construct of equity sensitivity has included examining the narrower individual

prospect about their preferences how individuals behave in response to the unfair event who more prefer to contribute towards the organization or to get from the organization.

4.6 Control Variables

Prior research suggests that the influence of fairness perceptions on employees' health and well-being may vary among different occupational groups (Herr, Bosch, van Vianen., Jarczok, Thayer, Li, & Loerbroks, 2015). For example, fairness perceptions have shown stronger relationships with psychological distress in temporary workers than permanent, indeed, temporary workers more likely to experience uncertainty, as compared to permanent workers (Inoue, Kawakami, Tsuno, Tomioka, & Nakanishi 2013). This study includes a number of demographic variables—designated position of the employee in the organization, organizational tenure, gender, years of education, basic pay scale, age and marital status. The purpose of considering these control variable to examine that might affect the injustice perceptions and employee behaviors. Organizational tenure has influence on employees' performance (see Sturman, 2003 for discussion), similarly age and gender indicated potential influence on employees' behaviors (e.g. Slagter, 2009; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Kohlberg, 1981). On this basis, we included under-researched variables as control variables in the regression analyses. For regression analyses gender was categorized "0" for male "1", age was coded by distributing in different age groups e.g. "1" for age interval 20-30 years, "2" for 31-40 years, "3" for 41-50 years and "4" was coded for 51years and above. Similarly, organizational tenure was coded by distributing in different intervals e.g. "1" for 5 or less than, "2" for 6-10 years, "3" for 11-15 years, "4" for 16-20 years, "5" for 21-25 years and "6" was coded for interval having 26 and above job experience.

4.7 Research Ethics

The respondents agreed to participate in this research study on a voluntary basis as well as participants were further assured that any publication on the basis of this research would not identify individuals. The entire data collected was kept in accordance with the Data Protection Act (1998). In addition to that, I have followed ethical guidelines for this study recommended by Fontana and Frey's (2000), for instance, respondents identity, any public document or any other information that identifies the respondent's identity. The general demographic

information was collected. No harm was done to the respondent physically, emotionally or in any other way, shape or form. The following chapters will in detail further outline the methods applied and the results of the empirical studies on experts' perception and understanding of injustice, employees work stress and related issues in the working context of two different countries France and Pakistan.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the targeted population, sampling techniques, measurement tools, and research methods used to examine the relations of unfairness and outcomes in the presence of moderating two moderating variables. Moreover, this chapter also has provided the results of the pilot study (alpha reliabilities) of measurement tools for French sample. Detail of each variable along with their respective items and author's name have been given. Finally, ethical considerations to conduct this research have also been provided at the end of this chapter. The next chapter discusses the statistical techniques and data analysis, which is used to test the proposed conceptual frameworks and research hypotheses.

5

Data Analysis and Results

This chapter deals with empirical results of data and testing of study hypotheses. Foremost, this chapter presents the characteristics of respondents' profile, response rate, normality test and descriptive statistics includes study sample. Secondly, this chapter provides a description of the research method used in this study. Third, we used we used structural equation modeling (SEM) to analyze the estimation of measurement model of each category of constructs and the analysis of the data addressing the research questions are discussed. This chapter continues the results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), reliability and validity of the measures used in this research are also reported includes in this research variables. Finally, in this chapter, a detailed analysis including direct and moderating effects by using is reported. Using hierarchical regression analysis we tested our hypothesized model and found both organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance were related to all stress outcomes. We also found that personal human values and equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between both fairness approaches (OJ & ERI) and stress outcome in table 7-8 for Pakistani sample and table 13-14 for French sample (see annexure F-1; pg-320 & F-2; pg-326). Statistical analyses were performed using software packages-AMOS version-22 and SPSS version-22.

5.1 Characteristics of Study Participants

The collected responses in the current study varied widely on personal and participants' organization type. Since this study used self-reported survey technique, therefore, response error was a concern because researchers had no control over how it was completed. Hence, relevant data screening approaches such as descriptive statistics, missing values, unengaged responses identifying Univariate/multivariate outliers were also reported. Table 5.1 showed the summary of the demographic profiles of the participants.

Table 5.1: Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Variables	Category	Pakistan (N=583)		France (N=241)	
		Frequency	% Age	Frequency	% Age
Gender	Female	150	26	158	65.6
	Male	433	74	83	34.4
	Total	583	100	241	100
Age	20-30	195	33.4	96	39.8
	31-40	195	33.4	80	33.2
	41-50	121	20.7	40	16.6
	51 and above	072	12.3	25	10.4
	Total	583	100	241	100
Education	Graduate and under	209	36	23	9.5
	Master	196	33	44	18.3
	MS/M. Phil	164	28	113	46.9
	Ph. D	14	03	61	25.3
	Total	583	100	241	100
Job Position	White Collar	360	62	218	90.5
	Blue Collar	223	38	23	9.5
	Total	583	100	241	100
Job Experience	1-5 years	240	41.2	142	58.9
	6-10 years	102	17.5	42	17.4
	11-15 year	73	12.5	20	8.3
	16 and above	168	28.8	37	15.4
	Total	583	100	241	100
Marital Status	Married	417	71.5	56	23.2
	Un-married	166	28.5	185	76.8
	Total	583	100	241	100

Although we retrieved **855** questionnaires, however, after removing some respondents during data screening process the final **824** respondents were retained who took part represented 433 were male in the Pakistani sample and 83 were female in Pakistani sample, however, 150 were female in the French sample and 158 were male in French sample. It shows that in Pakistani sample, the frequency of men was higher (74%) than women (26%) in contrast, female participation was higher (65.6%) as compared to men (34.4%) in French sample. This statics also describes that the majority of working population in organizations is male Pakistani sample. Breakdowns of age showed that 33% ranged in age from 20 to 30 years in the Pakistani sample, 39.8% in French sample, similarly, 33.4% and 33.2 (ranged 31 to 40), 20.7%, 16.6% (ranged 41- to 50) and 12.3, 10.4% in French sample (ranged 51 and above), whereas the average age of participants was 37.6 years in the Pakistani sample, and 36 years in French sample.

Of the participants, 36% had graduate and undergraduate degree in the Pakistan and 9.5% in French sample, similarly, 33% Pakistan, 18.3% French had master degree, 28% Pakistan, 46.9% had an MS/MPhil degree, and 3% had a Ph.D. degree in the Pakistani sample and 25.3% in French sample. The average number of years of experience was 11.1 years in the Pakistani 7.9 years in French sample respectively. This study includes both white collar (Pakistan = 62%, France = 90.5%) and blue collar (Pakistan = 38%, France = 9.5%). As can be seen in table 5.1 majority of the participants 71.5% were married in the Pakistani sample as compared to 23.2% in French sample whereas, 28.5% were unmarried in the Pakistani sample and 76.8% in French sample.

5.2 Data Screening

The procedure of scrutinizing data for errors and addressing them before starting data analysis. The data screening procedure may include inspecting raw data, identifying outliers and handling of missing values contained data set. During the data screening process, we emphasized on important issues commonly facing researchers before walking through multivariate outliers. Here are some precautionary measures are given that are necessary to be considered while proceeding on statistical analysis:

- Do the data accurately reflect the responses made by the participants of my study?
- Are all the data in place and accounted for, or are some of the data absent or missing?
- Is there a pattern to the missing data?

- Are there any unusual or extreme responses present in the data set that may distort my understanding of the phenomena under study?
- Do these data meet the statistical assumptions that underlie the multivariate technique I will be using?
- What can I do if some of the statistical assumptions turn out to be violated?

5.2.1 Missing Values Per Case

Missing data has been a challenge for the researchers since the starting of the pasture of research. The large scale of missing values reduces the quality of statistical analysis, yet, some statistical analysis cannot be run in the presence of missing values. This research involves self-reported cross-sectional data, therefore, further detail regarding longitudinal data is not necessary; however, dealing with the missing data is important in both type of research. Thus, for achieving high quality and smooth statistical analysis it is essential to gain insights into data to identify the missing values and their treatment (Hair et al., 1998; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). This research conducted two studies in two countries—Pakistan and France, similarly, data were collected ($N = 824$) from multiple sectors. The category wise responses were: Education = 191, Health = 203, Energy = 189 and French = 241.

Table 5.2: Missing Values

Number of missing data	Sector	Case #
1		22
2		88
3		140
4	Education	164
5		178
6		199
7		200
8	Health	238
9	Energy	282
10		660
11		670
12		687
13	French	601
14		603
15		604
16		680

In examining the missing values, we performed an analysis by using SPSS-22 and tested the frequency of each variable of each item and it was found 16 respondents were missing for some of the variable measurement section and these missing values are reported in table 5.2 under their unique IDs which were allotted during data entry process. It was also observed that those missing respondents contained 20% or more overall unanswered. Since we had a sufficient data set, so we decided to remove these values from dataset rather replacing these values by imputation. After omitting of 16 cases, a total 835 usable cases were retained for further analysis to identify the outliers and normality of data (Missing data Hair et al., 1998; Allison, 2003).

5.2.2 Unengaged Responses

Another category of outlier is some unengaged responses, in the data set unengaged responses are also very important, in the data set some of the respondents who responds with the same value for every single question for example, for all the questions a person responds 1,1,1, 1...or 2,2,2, 2...or 3,3,3,3,3...or...7,7,7,7...and some other unengaged respondents involve, for example, 1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4,1,2,3,4...and such type of responses are difficult to detect. However, visual inspection is useful to detect such unengaged respondents. The unengaged responses are not really useful because they have very small or zero variance in the responses. Before moving towards assessing the of normality we, performed analysis to detect unengaged responses in both datasets separately, accordingly, we checked the *Standard-Deviation* of each case of latent variables, after thoroughly scrutinizing we, observed that there is no value of *Standard-Deviation* is less than 0.5. Since all the values of *Standard-Deviation* were greater than 0.5 it shows the absence of unengaged responses in the both data set.

5.2.3 Outliers

Considering the outliers in a data set can aware calculators to experimental errors in the measurements engaged, therefore, in the next section we discuss the two categories of outliers (i.e. Univariate and multivariate) and how to best treat should any problems occurred at this stage.

5.2.3.1 *Univariate Outliers*

After the cases incorporating missing values were omitted and manual observation of the unengaged responses, an inspection of the matrix (in SPSS) was carried out for identifying the extreme values that might create some hazards in terms of distorting effects (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2001, 2013). However, according to Hair et al. (1998) outliers might be caused while data entry process errors or inappropriate quality of coding. Generally, these errors are required to be fixed during the data cleaning process. In addition, some outliers are unexplainable and are required to be deleted from the data. For achieving this objective an effort was made to identify the univariate outliers, therefore, we separately performed analysis for both samples (Pakistan & France) separately and SPSS-22 produced the box-plot for each variable and the outliers appeared at the extremes as shown (see annexure C-1; pg-291 & C-4; pg-303). The box plot showing many outliers in some variables includes in this study. Generally, the researchers suggest that it is better to omit outliers from the data set if the sample size is larger, because outliers may affect the results. On the other hand, we have less autonomy to remove the outliers if the data set is small. As the graphical representation of box-plot showing several outliers appeared on multiple variables in both samples, on the other hand, Gaskins (2016) stated that outliers are largely not a concern in Likert-scales. However, responses at the extreme (1 or 7) are not representative of outlier behaviors. Hence, we decided to keep these cases in the data. We proceed now to verifying the second type of outliers, which are the multivariate outliers.

5.2.3.2 *Multivariate (MV) Outliers*

In the family of outliers, there are multivariate outliers whose uniqueness occurs in their pattern of a combination of values on several variables, for example, unusual combined patterns of age, gender, and a number of variables. In Pakistani sample, we found some cases that exceeded the maximum range ($< 2 / -2$) of kurtosis, thereby an attempt by means of Mahalanobis distance was employed to further detect the presence of multivariate outliers. According to the Rousseau and Van Zomeren, (1990) “MV outlier identification is a robust assessment of the parameters in the Mahalanobis d^2 and the comparison with a critical value of the χ^2 ”. Mahalanobis d^2 is multidimensional of Z-Score. It calculates the distance of a case from the centroid (multidimensional mean) of a distribution, given the covariance (multidimensional variance)

of the distribution. A case would be considered as a multivariate outlier if the chi-square probability of Mahalanobis d^2 is 0.001 or less (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001). Owing to this criteria, we found 12 cases of multivariate outliers having a Mahalanobis d^2 with a probability of less than .001 in Pakistani sample. In contrast, we did not find any cases of multivariate outliers in French sample (see annexure C-2; pg-295). It was suggested that removing multivariate outliers will improve the results of Skewness and kurtosis tests (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). The following section therefore discuss the results of normality tests with the aforementioned suggestion.

5.2.3.3 Results of Normality Tests

For statistical estimation process, it is essential to test the normality of the data that is going to be used for testing of hypotheses. Hence, statistical processes require that a distribution of data to be normal or near to be normal. There are both graphical and statistical methods for evaluating normality: (1) Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test, (2) skewness and Kurtosis, (3) histogram (graphical method). We discuss now the results of these three tests of normality.

Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Test: First, we performed Kolmogorov-Smirnov and (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk (S-W) test of normality (Shapiro & Wilk 1965; Razali & Wah, 2011) in SPSS-22 whereby we found both tests reject the null hypothesis of normality, since p ($< .001$) values of both tests are less than 0.05, and it seems to depart from the population that is not normally distributed. According to these tests, the data includes in this study are non-normal (annexure C-2; pg-295 & C-5; pg-307). However, one limitation of K-S and S-W is that the larger the sample size, the more likely it is to get significant results. Since the sample size in the present study is relatively large ($N_{\text{Pakistan}} = 594$, $N_{\text{France}} = 241$), the significance of the K-S and S-W tests might indicate deviations from normality. Consequently, it is plausible to perform Skewness and Kurtosis tests owing to the pursue of normality distribution for the data in the present research.

Skewness and Kurtosis: Skewness and Kurtosis tests entails that the data distribution in either high ranges of *Skewness* and *Kurtosis* (+2 / -2) should be considered as non-normal, which may influence regression estimates (George, & Mallery, 2010). To calculate the Skewness and Kurtosis we included all items of the study variables. Annexure C-2; pg-295 & C-5; pg-307

shows the values of Skewness and kurtosis for both sample. All the values of Skewness and Kurtosis were found close to the threshold level ($< 2 / -2$) of normality distribution criteria. Considering the criteria proposed by George and Mallery, (2010), we presume data sets for both samples are normally distributed.

Histogram: In the series of normality test, we need to visualize our data (using histograms) to determine for ourselves if the data rise to the level of non-normal. For graphical presentation, we conducted an analysis for producing histograms for all constructs includes in this study. For testing the normality, we must inspect the histogram for all constructs visually, and they must have approximate a shape of the normal curve. Results from visualizing the data by means of histogram concluded that approximately all the constructs have normal curve for the rest of three variables (see annexure C-3; pg-299 & C-6; pg-310).

To ensure that our data is actually normally distributed, we conducted a final test to verify the presence of multivariate outliers, as the latter can cause problems in the normality assumption. After omitting the 12 cases of multivariate outliers (see discussion in the preceding section of multivariate outliers) from the Pakistani sample, results from the normality test (i.e. K-S and S-W test, please refer to annexure C-2; pg- 295) indicated that the significance values of both tests given the same results i.e. $p < .05$, thus no significant improvement was observed. However, when we examined the normality through several Skewness and Kurtosis tests, that is, by removing the cases of multivariate outliers, we found satisfactory values that were close to the threshold level ($< 2 / -2$). This result therefore suggested that removing the 12 cases of multivariate outliers was effective to finally conclude that our data is normally distributed. The final dataset therefore entails that we have 583 observations in Pakistani sample and 241 observations in French sample that passed the assumption of normality for further regression-based analyses.

5.2.4 Assumption of Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a situation when two or more independent variables are highly correlated with each other, and of course, the multicollinearity is not desirable in the multiple regression models. For example, in a multiple regression (see equation below) we assume that IVs (X_1 and X_2) are independent of each other, and how these independent variable impacts on the dependent variable (Y).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \varepsilon$$

In case we have multicollinearity, it means the variance our IVs explain independent variable included in the regression model are overlapping with each other, therefore, these would not have a unique variance in DVs. If, we desire to examine the unique impact of independent variable X_1 dependent variable on Y we want to be sure that is X_2 is not a disturbance. Similarly, X_2 has a unique impact on Y where is X_1 is constant means there is no disturbance of it. There are different approaches to assess the multicollinearity for example, according to Kline (2005) collinearity can be tested through bivariate correlations, roughly bivariate correlations greater than $r = .80$ would be considered the potential problem. However, (O'Brien, 2007), recommended that multicollinearity can be tested through regression analysis by calculating variance inflation factor (VIF).

The rules of thumb for the VIF are as follows:

No.	Threshold level	Description
1.	VIF < 3	No collinearity issue
2.	VIF > 3	Potential Issue
3.	VIF > 5	Very likely Issue
4.	VIF > 10	Definitely Issue

However, according to Hair et al., (1998) VIF scores less than 10 are typically considered acceptable. Thus, before moving to test our hypothesis we examined the multicollinearity test in SPSS and calculated the VIF for each independent variable includes in this study. For detecting multicollinearity among the set of independent variable we, performed several regression models by swapping all the IVs one by one and finally, an inspection of the variance inflation factor scores (VIFs) indicated that all variables were less than 1.8 for Pakistani sample and 1.4 for French sample (below the critical value of 10) are typically considered acceptable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). There were no instances of multicollinearity among any of the variables (VIF < 3) so we concluded there is no multicollinearity issue among independent variables includes in this study.

5.3 Factor Analysis

Factor analysis (FA) can be defined as a broader term representing of several statistical approaches that offer to assess the population level (i.e., un-observed) structure underlying the deviation from the observed variables with their correlation (Kim & Mueller, 1978; Gorsuch,

1983). In other words, FA is an analytical technique that tells us whether collected data is consistent with the theoretically anticipated model.

5.3.1 From EFA to CFA

Factor analysis is commonly used in the fields of education and psychology and is considered the technique of selection to interpret self-reported questionnaire. According to Byrne (2010), there are two major classes of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Indeed, based on the distinct features of these classes the researchers select one of appropriate method whether EFA or CFA. For example, in CFA one or more underlying models must be specified even the run the analysis, moreover, CFA offers errors covariance to be correlated which is not possible in EFA. However, some procedures are regular in the EFA, suchlike factor rotations which are entirely extraneous in CFA. Predominantly, CFA is an important aspect of a broader class of analysis which is called structural equation modeling (Thompson, 2004).

Typically, EFA is used earlier in the process of establishing a new theory by exploring latent factors that most excellent corresponds for the variations and interrelationships between the manifest variables (Hensons & Robert, 2006). Whereas Bandalos (1996) stated that CFA is commonly used to test an existing theory, and this technique hypothesizes a priori model of the underlying structure of the target constructs and investigates whether this model is consistent with the data sufficiently. CFA also estimates the degree of model fit, the explained variances and standardized residual for the measurement variables, and the appropriateness of the factor loadings. A certain score of model fit is essential prior examining of the general model is done (Mulaik & James, 1995). Taking the considerations of various researchers regarding the choice of EFA or CFA for this study, we decided to perform the CFA instead of EFA as the measures used in this study are well established, and scale demonstrates higher alpha reliabilities in the past literature.

5.3.2 Sample Size for Structural Equation Modeling

There is a long-standing debate in the literature with regards to sample size requirement for structural education modeling, for example, Anderson and Gerbing (1988) recommended that minimum 150 or more sample size is to be sufficient when constructing structural equation models. Whereas Boomsma (1982, 1983) suggested that at least 400 sample size will be

satisfactory, on the other hand, Hu, Bentler, and Kano (1992) argued that in some cases even the 5000, the sample size is insufficient. Kline (1988) suggested that 10 to 20 respondents will be needed to obtain parameters estimates, however, Jackson (2001, 2003) examined a very little effect of sample size on model fit, that an inadequate sample size shown poor fitting models.

The aforementioned debate seems paradox because there is no common agreement on the adequate sample size for constructing SEM. The researcher can face a conflicting situation while choosing the sample size, it depends on their different resources. To summarize, the different recommendations about sample size, Rebecca and Paul (2006) presumed that there is no problem with the sample and recommended a minimum sample size of 200 for any SEM. Before moving for testing of study hypothesis we performed a series of confirmatory factor analyses for evaluating the psychometric properties of all constructs includes in this study. Once the measurement model is specified and estimates are calculated, the next step is to validate the model fit and verify whether the model is consistent with the data or not? For gaining this objective, the researchers have been proposed several fit indices measures for determining the overall model fit of the hypothetical model. Since, the advancement and estimation of latent variable models and associated procedures, the theme evaluation of model/selection of fit indices are very important for the researchers (e.g., Bollen & Long, 1993; Austin & Calderón, 1996).

According to Ping (2004) there is no consensus on fit indices, thus, acceptable cutoff values for the Maximum Likelihood χ^2 (ML)-based in this study the adequacy of the model fit was determined by five global-fit-indices (see table 5.3) the most commonly used in the literature is [CMIN/DF] recommended by Marsh and Hocevar (1985) that explains that how model fits the data (Roussel, 2005). An insignificant value of chi-squared presents the good model fit the data and hypothesized model, however, sample size affects this fit index (Gursoy, 2001).

Past literature suggests other fit indices which are most commonly used: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA, Browne, & Cudek, 1993; Byrne, 2010]; Comparative Fit Index [CFI, Bentler, 1990; Roussel, 2005; Byrne, 2010]; Tucker-Lewis Index [TLI, Bentler, & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 2010] and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual [SRMR, Hu & Bentler, 1999; Roussel, 2005].

Table 5.3: Global Model Fit Indices with their Cut-offs levels

Measures	Fit-Index	Cut-offs
Confirmatory Factor Analysis	χ^2/df	< 2 great; < 0.30 good
	Comparative fit index (CFI)	>.95 great; > .90 good
	Tucker-Lewis Index(TLI)	>.95 great; > .90 good
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	<.05 great; < .08 good
	Standardized root mean residual (SRMR)	<.05 great; < .08 good

Source: Hu and Bentler, 1999

5.3.3 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Generally, it is assumed that the research process encompasses some flaws, it is difficult to conduct a perfect research project, yet, without research and theoretical advancements in social sciences would not happen. Resultantly, the social science scholars and practitioners required to be confident that theoretical findings are arrived at through both sound conceptual arguments and the applications of rigorous and relevant methodological techniques. Within the social science research, SEM technique has gained considerable attention of both researchers and practitioners (Steenkamp & van Trijp, 1991; Baumgartner, & Homburg, 1996). The assessment of scale is often linked with the EFA or CFA, in addition to that testing to establish the validity of measures such as convergent and discriminant validity.

To verified the convergent validity among our study constructs, in our case, we confirmed that all the six variables (distributive, procedural, interpersonal, informational justice, employees' efforts, and organizational rewards as well as with second order of OJ) convergent validity Rho, VC is >.50 regardless of sample size, it is required to have threshold level which is greater than 0.50 and averaging out to greater than 0.70 for each factor as the threshold level is shown in table 5.4. For testing of discriminant validity explains that the extent to which factors are different. The rule is that variables should relate more strongly to their own factor than to another factor, however, Maximum Shared Squared Variance: MSV should be less than Average Variance Extracted: AVE (Hair et al., 2010) accordingly results revealed that the value of MSV are less than AVE of all our constructs in their respective sections.

Table 5.4: Validity Measures Fit Indices and Threshold Levels

Measures	Fit Indices	Threshold
Reliability	Composite Reliability (CR) (Nunnally & Bernstein 1994)	>.90 great; > .80 good; > .70 fair
Convergent Validity (Accuracy of instrument)	Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Linn, 2000; Stewart, 2009)	AVE > .50
Discriminant validity	Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV)	MSV < AVE
	Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV)	ASV < AVE

5.4 Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling includes two components: first is factor analysis and second is path analysis, more precisely, SEM is a set of measurement and structural model. The measurement model demonstrates the association between observed variables and latent variables; however, the structural model describes the interrelationships among study constructs. The model may be called a full structural model when both measurement and structural model are considered together. The current study, considered the measurement model to ascertain the distinctiveness of study constructs.

5.4.1 Measurement Models

The measurement model of SEM permits the researchers to appraise how well-observed variables combine to recognize underlying the hypothesized constructs, however, confirmatory factor analysis is used in examining measurement model and hypothesized variables are called as latent variables. Further, a latent variable is described more appropriately to the degree that the measures that describe strongly related to each other. For example, if a construct has four measures and one of four is weakly correlated with three other measures it means that construct will be poorly defined. Resultantly, this model would not be specified in the hypothesized relationships among study variables. However, there are several places in the measurement model where a researcher may develop the hypothesized model. Therefore, to achieve this, we have performed CFA specify posit to the relationships of the observed variables to the latent variables.

5.5 Analysis of Data (Pakistani Sample)

We started our data analysis with a confirmatory factor analysis for Pakistani sample, to ascertain the distinctiveness of our study constructs. Several measurement models for Pakistani sample models were performed and compared as can be seen in subsequent section.

5.5.1 CFA for Four Factors of Organizational Justice

The measurement models for organizational justice entailed four factors and twenty indicators, which capture the concept of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice. We conducted a series of CFA prior to hypothesis testing to examine the distinctiveness of main study variables, particularly, one, two, three and four-factor models were tested for organizational justice. The initial model for distributive justice items was loaded onto a single factor and values for several global fit indices were examined on four global fit indices. The results for single factor were: $\chi^2(2) = 30.749$, [CFI = 0.983], [TLI = .949], [RMSEA = .157] and [SRMR = .0193].

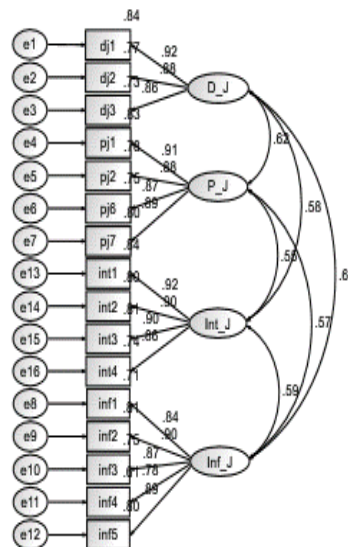


Figure 5.1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Four-Factor Model of Organizational Justice

Fit indices for two factors model having four items of distributive justice and seven items of procedural justice and values were: $\chi^2(43) = 93.062$, [CFI = .986], [TLI = .982], [RMSEA = .045] and [SRMR = .0310]. For three factor model, we again performed CFA including four items of distributive justice, seven items for procedural justice, and four items

of interpersonal justice and fit indices values were: $\chi^2(51) = 110.346$, [CFI = .983], [TLI = .978], [RMSEA = .045] and [SRMR = .0288]. we performed four factor model including distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice, to specify the model we removed some items (dj4, pj3, pj4, pj5, and inf1) and this four factor model showed a better model fit so, it was superior, single, two-factor, or three-factor, as fit indices showed adequate estimates: $\chi^2(97) = 147.206$, [CFI = .994], [TLI = .993], [RMSEA = .030] and [SRMR = .0197].

5.5.1.1 Factor Loadings of Four-Factor Organizational Justice

Factor loadings for all the items of distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice factors were above .70. Table 5.5 depicts the factor loading of all items retained after confirmatory factor analysis of organizational justice.

Table 5.5: Factor Loadings for Organizational Justice

Organizational Justice	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Distributive Justice	dj1	.916
	dj2	.878
	dj3	.855
Procedural Justice	pj1	.868
	pj2	.883
	pj6	.912
	pj7	.894
Interpersonal Justice	int1	.910
	int2	.911
	int3	.915
	int4	.856
Informational Justice	inf1	.840
	inf2	.903
	inf3	.865
	inf4	.780
	inf5	.895

5.5.1.2 Construct Validation of Four Factors

In addition to the internal consistency of the scales, the measurement model of the study variables is tested for its reliability, convergent, and discriminant validity. According to Malhotra and Dash (2011) who argued that AVE is a strict measure than construct reliability (CR). To achieve this, a measurement model was calculated using AMOS for convergent validity, we estimated the average variance extracted = AVE for four factors of organizational justice. All AVE scores showed values of the cut-off .50 or higher for all constructs and therefore, it shows there is satisfactory convergent validity (Fornel & Larcker, 1981; Hair,

Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009; Hair et al., 2010). The maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and the average squared variance (ASV) were used to test the discriminant validity of the measurement model by means of comparing correlations matrix belonging to all.

Hair et al. (2010) suggested that values of MSV and ASV must be lesser than the AVE for the discriminant validity. The above table 5.6 showed that all the MSV and the ASV values are lesser thus the AVE values which means that the discriminant values hold and the measurement model is in the same directions as we initially presumed. Since the estimates of convergent and discriminant validities have met the criteria of the appropriateness of measurement model (see table 5.6). This also shows that measurement model is suitable for further analysis.

Table 5.6: Validity and Reliability of Four Factors of Organizational Justice

Organizational Justice	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Procedural Justice	0.938	0.791	0.383	0.939
Distributive Justice	0.914	0.781	0.383	0.964
Informational Justice	0.933	0.736	0.359	0.947
Interpersonal Justice	0.941	0.799	0.353	0.953

5.5.2 CFA for Overall Organizational Justice

Considering a more generalized and global outlook, whereby each concept signifies a piece of a higher order of notion, a comprehensive concept called organizational fairness (Rosen, Chang, Johnson, & Levy, 2009). Their conception offers to test an overall organizational fairness approach, which has rarely been considered in existing research (Cohen, 2013). Although we have not included other constructs such as politics and psychological contract yet, we intended to examine the overall fairness. Since the main goal of this research is to compare two competing approaches, accordingly we interested in examining the overall effects of organizational justice on work outcomes, therefore, we also conducted a second order CFA for overall organizational justice to see if four factors did load on a single latent factor (Fig-5.2).

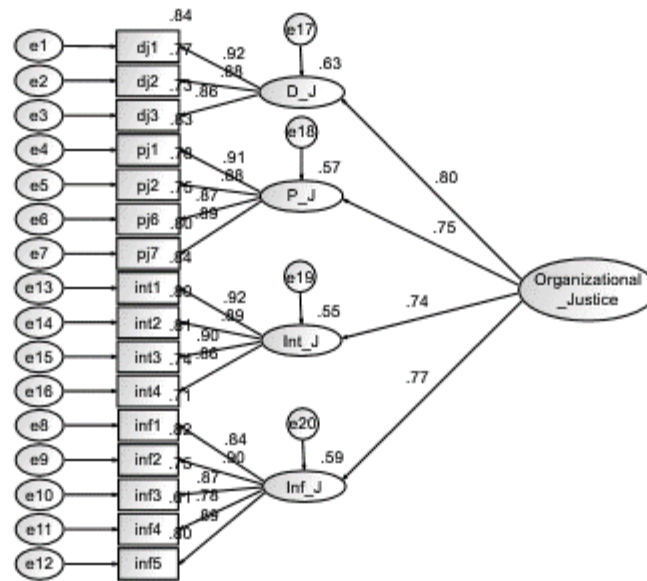


Figure 5.2: Overall organizational justice CFA (second-order)

5.5.2.1 Factor Loadings of Overall Organizational Justice

The results of higher order CFA also showed a good fit for latent single factor model: χ^2 (99) = 149.345, [CFI = .994, [TLI = .993], [RMSEA = .030] and [SRMR = .0222]. As we found all four factors were significantly loaded on a common latent construct as shown in table 5.7 however, good fit indices for overall organizational justice allows us to use additive measure by taking the average of all items to create overall organization justice that high scores reflected high perceptions of fairness. An overall summary of all fit indices for four factors of organizational justice and a higher order factor is also provided in table 1-P (annexure D-1; pg-314)

Table 5.7: Factor Loadings for Organizational Justice

	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Organizational Justice	D_J	.801
	P_J	.752
	INT_J	.740
	INF_J	.784

5.5.2.2 Construct Validation of Overall Organizational Justice

We also tested the reliability and validity of these constructs at the level of higher order, where we verified the both reliability and construct validity of organizational justice as shown in table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Validity and Reliability of Organizational Justice

	CR (Joreskog rho)	AVE (Rho VC)
Organizational Justice	.853	.592

5.5.3 CFA for Effort-Reward Imbalance

We performed CFA for ERI and results showed that the overall model fit exhibited where global fit indices showed an acceptable ranges of CFA model fit, with χ^2 (34) = 70.004, [RMSEA = .043], [TLI = .986], [CFI = .989] and [SRMR = .0260]. As per Hair et al. (2010) who suggested that at least three indices must be fitted well to specify the model fit. Accordingly, with the recommendation of Mueller and Hancocks (2008), the model fit satisfactorily since all the scores of fit indices are very good. A summary of all global fit indices for employees' effort and organizational reward is given in table 2-P (annexure D-1; pg-314)

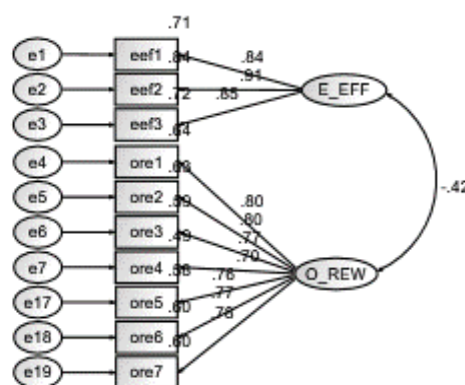


Figure 5.3: CFA for Effort-Reward Imbalance

5.5.3.1 Factor Loadings of Effort-Reward Imbalance

The factor loadings are presented in table 5.9 The results indicated that all the standardized factor loadings were greater than 0.70 only org4 has 0.692 which is also approaching to threshold level i.e., 0.70.

Table 5.9: Factor Loadings of Effort-Reward Imbalance

Effort-Reward Imbalance	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Organizational Reward	ore1	.800
	ore2	.792
	ore3	.768
	ore5	.756
	ore7	.772
	ore4	.696
	ore6	.772
Employees' Effort	eef1	.840
	eef2	.914
	eef3	.847

5.5.3.2 Construct Validation of Effort-Reward Imbalance

We also tested the reliability and validity for the construct Effort-Reward Imbalance, where we verified both reliability and construct validity of organizational justice as shown in table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Validity and Reliability of Effort-Reward Imbalance

Effort-Reward Imbalance	CR (Joreskog rho)	AVE (Rho VC)
Employees' Effort	.901	.752
Organizational Reward	.903	.571

5.5.4 CFA for Outcome Variables

Table 5.11 presents a summary of the factor analysis results for outcome variables includes: Job-burnout, turnover intention, organizational commitment, employees' performance and

employees' in role behavior. Since initial measurement fit statistics for outcome variables showed acceptable ranges: χ^2 (289) = 438.315, [RMSEA = .030], [TLI = .981], [CFI = .983] and [SRMR = .0332] however, some items (oc4, jbo7, eps1, empb1) could not have achieved the threshold level of standardized regression weight 0.70. Therefore, those items were dropped and final measurement fit statistics were: χ^2 (198) = 259.161, [RMSEA = .023], [TLI = .990], [CFI = .991] and [SRMR = .0290]. An overall summary of all fit indices for five outcome variables is provided in table 3-P (annexure D-1; pg-314).

5.5.4.1 Factor Loadings of Outcome Variables

The results of the factor analysis for the relationship among outcome variables can be seen below the noted table.

Table 5.11: Factor Loadings of Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	Indicators	Standardized factor loading
Organizational Commitment	oc1	.812
	oc2	.693
	oc3	.793
	oc5	.821
	oc6	.768
	Job-Burnout	bo1
bo2		.780
bo3		.809
bo4		.803
bo5		.817
bo6		.817
Employees' Performance	emps2	.796
	emps3	.893
Turnover Intention	toi1	.844
	toi2	.856
	toi3	.898
Employees' in Role behavior	empb2	.699
	empb3	.747
	empb4	.751
	empb5	.746
	empb6	.738
	empb7	.726

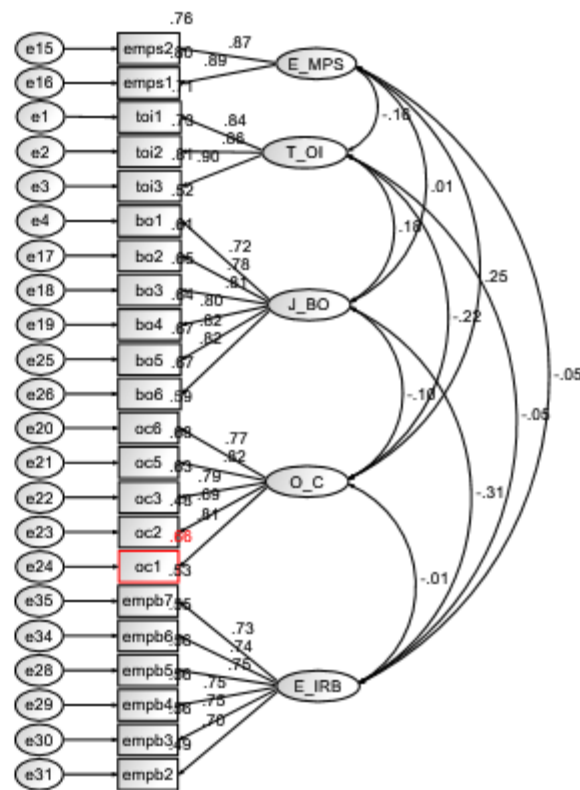


Figure 5.4: CFA for Outcome Variables

The majority of the factor loadings in outcome variables were above (.70 and .80) or approaching to (oc2 = .693 and empb2 = .699) to .70 thresholds demonstrating the convergent validity of this model.

5.5.4.2 Construct Validation for Outcome Variables

We performed analysis to examine the convergent and discriminant validity for outcome variables in AMOS using statistical tool packages and results in table 5.12 given below (AVE is greater than MSV and ASV) has supported that current study's model does not have convergent and discriminant validity issues.

Table 5.12: Validity and Reliability of Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Organizational Commitment	0.885	0.606	0.048	0.890
Job-Burnout	0.909	0.626	0.094	0.948
Employees' Performance	0.834	0.716	0.048	0.960
Turnover Intention	0.900	0.750	0.048	0.971
Employees' in Role behavior	0.876	0.540	0.094	0.976

5.5.5 CFA for Moderating Variables

To validate the moderating variable, include self-transcendence, self-enhancement and equity sensitivity we again conducted CFA, and the result of CFA yielded an acceptable fit level: χ^2 (206) = 477.176, [RMSEA = .048], [TLI = .970], [CFI = .973] and [SRMR = .0294]. Using the modification indices (MI) provided in AMOS-22, we further purified the model by removing some items (sen1, set2, set5, set8), and final measurement model yielded a better fit score: χ^2 (132) = 170.193, [RMSEA = .022], [TLI = .994], [CFI = .995] and [SRMR = .023]. An overall summary of all fit indices for three moderating variables is provided in table 4-P (annexure D-1; pg-314). As can be seen in table 5.13 given below, factor loadings of all items included in this model are adequately loaded on their respective constructs.

5.5.5.1 Factor Loadings of Moderating Variables

The results of the factor analysis for the relationship among moderating variables can be seen below the noted table.

Table 5.13: Factor Loadings of Moderating Variables

Moderating Variables	Indicators	Standardized factor loading
Self-Enhancement	sen7	.877
	sen6	.831
	sen5	.834
	sen4	.833
	sen3	.861
	sen2	.865
Self-Transcendence	set1	.814
	set3	.806
	set4	.815
	set6	.824
	set7	.794
	set9	.857
	set10	.834
Equity Sensitivity	es5	.789
	es4	.819
	es3	.827
	es2	.826
	es1	.742

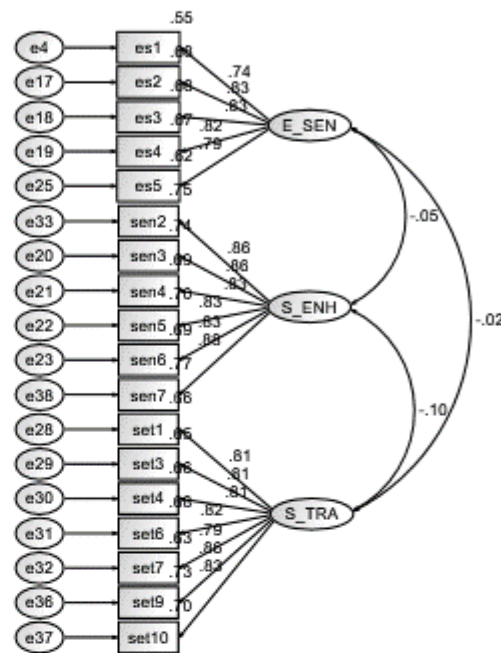


Figure 5.5: CFA for Moderating Variables

5.5.5.2 Construct Validation for Moderating Variables

As the table 5.14 given below shows that all the values of AVE, are greater than MSV and ASV, therefore, this model has no convergent and discriminant validity issues.

Table 5.14: Validity and Reliability of Moderating Variables

Moderating Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Self-Enhancement	0.940	0.723	0.009	0.941
Equity Sensitivity	0.900	0.642	0.002	0.962
Self-Transcendence	0.935	0.674	0.009	0.976

5.5.6 Simultaneous CFA for all Constructs

To test the overall fit of the proposed factor structure model, we again ran a CFA for assessing the statistics of fit for measurement model. Although values of classical global fit indices showed acceptable ranges: χ^2 (1988) = 2693.834, [RMSEA = .025], [TLI = .968], [CFI = .970] and [SRMR = .0342], yet several items were found less standardized regression weights (sen3, set9, set10, int1, inf3, inf4, bo1, bo4, empb7, ore4, ore6) from the threshold level .70. Thus, we removed those items from the model and final measurement fit indices scores were: χ^2

(1318) = 1642.126, [RMSEA = .020], [TLI = .982], [CFI = .984] and [SRMR = .0310]. An overall summary of all fit indices for all constructs is provided in table 5-P (annexure D-1; pg-314).

5.5.6.1 Factor Loadings of All Constructs

Below noted table 5.15 exhibited that all the items included in this model are adequately loaded on to their respective constructs except oc2 (.692), which are also approaching to a threshold level of 0.70.

Table 5.15: Factor Loadings of All Constructs

Indicators	Variables	Std. factor loading	Indicators	Variables	Std. factor loading
PJ	Organizational Justice	0.731	empb3	Employees' in Role Behavior	0.763
Int.J	Organizational Justice	0.743	empb2	Employees' in Role Behavior	0.713
Inf.J	Organizational Justice	0.774	oc6	Organizational commitment	0.767
DJ	Organizational Justice	0.822	oc5	Organizational commitment	0.822
int3	Interpersonal Justice	0.917	oc3	Organizational commitment	0.793
int4	Interpersonal Justice	0.854	oc2	Organizational commitment	0.693
int1	Interpersonal Justice	0.907	oc1	Organizational commitment	0.812
pj1	Procedural Justice	0.911	eef1	Employee's Efforts	0.842
pj2	Procedural Justice	0.883	eef2	Employee's Efforts	0.906
pj6	Procedural Justice	0.868	eef3	Employee's Efforts	0.855
pj7	Procedural Justice	0.895	ore1	Organizational Reward	0.791
dj1	Distributive Justice	0.914	ore2	Organizational Reward	0.788
dj2	Distributive Justice	0.878	ore3	Organizational Reward	0.766
dj3	Distributive Justice	0.858	ore5	Organizational Reward	0.777
inf3	Informational Justice	0.891	ore7	Organizational Reward	0.795
inf1	Informational Justice	0.798	emps2	Employees' Performance	0.818
sen7	Self-Enhancement	0.879	emps3	Employees' Performance	0.868
sen6	Self-Enhancement	0.836	toi1	Turnover Intention	0.841
sen5	Self-Enhancement	0.835	toi2	Turnover Intention	0.857
sen4	Self-Enhancement	0.831	toi3	Turnover Intention	0.900
sen2	Self-Enhancement	0.861	bo2	Job-Burnout	0.769
set7	Self-Transcendence	0.785	bo3	Job-Burnout	0.817
set6	Self-Transcendence	0.823	bo5	Job-Burnout	0.838
set4	Self-Transcendence	0.799	bo6	Job-Burnout	0.812
set3	Self-Transcendence	0.822	es5	Equity Sensitivity	0.789
set1	Self-Transcendence	0.826	es4	Equity Sensitivity	0.817
empb6	Employees' in Role Behavior	0.724	es3	Equity Sensitivity	0.829
empb5	Employees' in Role Behavior	0.722	es2	Equity Sensitivity	0.827
empb4	Employees' in Role Behavior	0.762	es1	Equity Sensitivity	0.743

5.5.6.2 Construct Validation for All Constructs

Considering the validity concerns, we also performed analysis to measure validates including all study variables, and values of AVE are greater than MSV and ASV therefore, this model does not have validity issues (see table 5.16 as given below).

Table 5.16: Validity and Reliability for All Constructs

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Employees' Effort	0.902	0.754	0.172	0.907
Self-Transcendence	0.906	0.658	0.082	0.951
Organizational Justice	0.852	0.590	0.051	0.962
Equity Sensitivity	0.900	0.643	0.015	0.972
Employees' in Role Behavior	0.856	0.543	0.086	0.976
Organizational Commitment	0.885	0.606	0.066	0.980
Job-Burnout	0.884	0.655	0.086	0.983
Turnover Intention	0.900	0.751	0.108	0.985
Employees' Performance	0.831	0.711	0.050	0.986
Organizational Reward	0.888	0.614	0.172	0.987
Self-Enhancement	0.928	0.720	0.056	0.989

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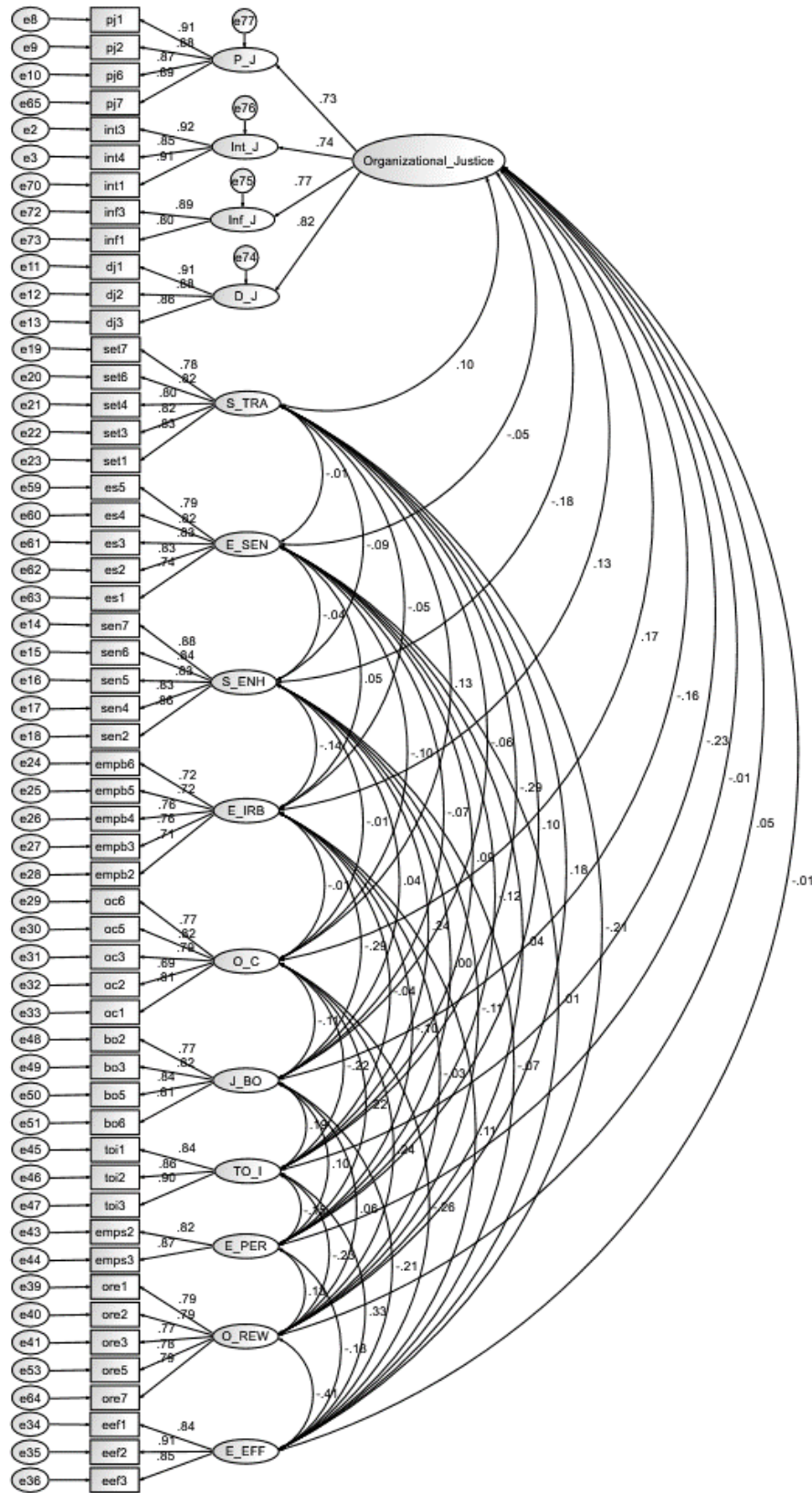


Figure 5.6: Overall CFA for All Constructs

5.6 Common Method Bias (CMB)

Common method biased is related to the degree of counterfeit correlations shared among the variables used in the model because of mono-method used to collect data (Buckley, Cote, & Comstock, 1990; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006). The research regarding common method biased has dealt with different kinds of assumed measurement techniques—self-reports, rather effects and assessment center exercises (Conway & Charles, 2010). In this study, we are more concerned about the self-report research design as the same has been used for this research. According to Podsakoff and Todor (1985), the concern of common method variance would arise when self-report measures obtained from the same sample are used MacKenzie and Podsakoff, (2012). Similarly, Organ and Ryan's (1995) reported that “Studies that use self-ratings of measures along with self-report of dispositional and attitudinal variables invite spuriously high correlations confounded by common method variance”.

It is generally assumed that common method biased shared the variance among the variables measured by self-report. In other words, data obtained for research will be having the features of both constructs as anticipated and variances from the measuring scales, which do not signify the constructs. Thus, it would be calling common method variance (CMV) and this may problematic in statistical inferences and interpretations. More precisely, CMV can inflate or deflate the relationship between the variables. Considering certain reasons, it is essential to deal with the probable effects of CMV in the data. Extant research shows that there are many approaches described by the researchers to control the common method biased includes; measuring instruments and data analysis techniques (Podsakoff et al, 2003; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). Since the designed instrument determines the quality of the data thus, the researchers put more emphasis on designing instruments rather than data analysis strategies (Baumgartner & Weijters, 2012). Various researchers also demonstrated remedies to reduce the potential CMB for example, Podsakoff et al. (2003) stated that the researchers should avoid to obtain the data for IVs and DVs from the same source, focusing on the participants' anonymity and make it sure that the participants that there is no right or wrong answer only their opinions are important for the study, provision of temporal separation when it is time lag between various measurements, improve the quality of instrument items and counterbalance the questions order.

Although Conway and Charles's view (2010) concur with the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003) but argued that data obtained through self-reported surveys are appropriate to produce the accurate results, however, a well-designed survey questionnaire is compulsory to minimize the CMB (Lance, Dawson, Birklebach, & Hoffman, 2010). Whereas adopting a well-established instrument from the past research and pilot-testing are suitable strategies to minimize the CMB (Baumgartner & Weijters, 2012). On the other hand, Spector (2006) argued that the influence of CMB is not as high as could be expected. In this study, we carefully taken into the considerations precautions suggested in preceding discussion to minimize the measurement errors.

The present study employed a cross-sectional self-reported survey for obtaining the data; the researcher used personal and professional contacts for data collection. Similarly, a well-established instrument with high alpha reliabilities were chosen published in renowned research studies for better statistical inferences and interpretation of valid conclusion.

This study follows the process of pilot-testing and tested the alpha reliabilities pre-testing before launching the final survey. The results of pre-testing were quite satisfied (see chapter 4, table 4.1) moreover, all instruments used in this study showed good psychometric properties. We also tried to make sure anonymity of the respondents, the questionnaire does not contain any item regarding the personal information, and the cover letter clearly shows that only the respondents' opinion is required and there were no right or wrong questions in this study.

Despite, various precautionary measures were taken to minimize CMB, therefore, we expect that CMB cannot be ruled out in the current study. However, to make it sure we also statistically tested the presence of CMB in our study, we used Harman's single factor test in SPSS, common latent factor in AMOS as suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2003).

5.6.1 Harman's Single Factor

For testing the presence of CMB in the current study first we used Harman's (1960) single factor technique during the EFA in SPSS where all the measures in the study were loaded onto a single factor with no rotation (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The newly factor would not be a part of the research model, the only intended to develop this factor is to find out the presence of CMB and later on omitted from the study. In case a single factor explains more than 50% of the variance then probably it shows the common method biased in the data. In this, we performed Harman's single factor analysis and the single factor is explaining 15.740 %

(annexure E-1; pg-316) of the total variance in the data which is not the majority of variance in Pakistani sample. Consequently, Harman's single factor test exhibits the absence of the CMB in this study. Podsakoff et al. (2003) refer this test as a diagnostic approach that "actually does nothing to statistically control for (or partial out) method effects". This approach also has a benefit due to its simplicity but on the other hand, there are various weaknesses of this approach.

5.6.2 Common Latent Factor (Zero-constrained Approach)

Considering the weaknesses in Harman's single factor technique in finding out the common method biased in the data we also used the common latent factor technique (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To verify the common method biased we conducted the common latent factor analysis during the CFA using AMOS-22. For testing the percentage of variance explained by a common latent factor we used our CFA model which contained all constructs and introduced a common latent factor in the model. In this technique, we developed a new latent variable and we connected all the observed variables in the model with common latent factor and constrained the paths to be equal and variance of common factor is *constrained to be zero* (see Figure-34, annexure E-1; pg-316). Most recently Gaskins (2016) recommended that zero-constrained is an accurate and more efficient technique to see the existence of common method biased in the measure, where we add a common latent factor in our model. However, then we perform the Chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) testing using Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-square technique between constrained and unconstrained model where all paths from the common latent factor are constrained (see Figure-34, annexure E-1; pg-316) to be zero (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Gaskins, 2016). Accordingly, to compare the constrained and unconstrained models we used the chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) test as:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\chi^2 &= \chi^2_{\text{constrained}} - \chi^2_{\text{unconstrained}} \\ \Delta\chi^2 &= \chi^2(1318) = 1642.126 - \chi^2(1265) = 1577.281 \\ \Delta &= \chi^2(53) = 64.846\end{aligned}$$

The results showed that chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) between constrained and unconstrained models $\Delta\chi^2(53) = 64.846$, which is statistically insignificant.

The Chi-square difference test has shown that the amount of shared variance across all variables is not significant from zero. Therefore, we conclude that the common method biased does not exist in our measure (Gaskins, 2016).

5.7 Analysis of Data (French Sample)

Similar to the Pakistani sample we, performed confirmatory factor analysis to investigate the convergent and discriminant validity of all suty measures includes in this study for French sample. For said purpose, we conducted multiple measurement models, and the same can be seen in subsequent section.

5.7.1 CFA for Four Factors of Organizational Justice

For French sample, we again conducted a series of CFA using maximum likelihood (ML) technique in AMOS-22 was used to test the test the dimensionality of our organizational justice measure. Results from these analyses are exhibited in table 5.17. we estimated CFA results using same global fit indices, which we have used for Pakistani sample. Considering the debate on justice dimension, initially we ran CFA considering single factor (distributive justice) and indicators of fit were examined: $\chi^2 (2) = 2.413$, [CFI = 0.976], [TLI =.988], [RMSEA = .041] and [SRMR = .014]. CFA including two-factor model showed fit indices: the chi-square value $\chi^2 (43) = 64.643$, [CFI = .985], [TLI =.951], [RMSEA = .040] and [SRMR = .0382].

Similarly, we repeated the same process for three factors including distributive, procedural, interpersonal justice where fit indices were recorded: the value of $\chi^2 (74) = 96.099$, [CFI = .987], [TLI =.985], [RMSEA = .035] and [SRMR = .0369]. Further, four factor model (see Figure-5.7) was performed distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice with the deletion of an item (int1) and scores for fit indices were: the chi-square value $\chi^2 (146) = 167.982$, [CFI = .995], [TLI =.994], [RMSEA = .025] and [SRMR = .0237]. CFA results of organizational justice indicated that four-factor model is superior to, one, two or three factors.

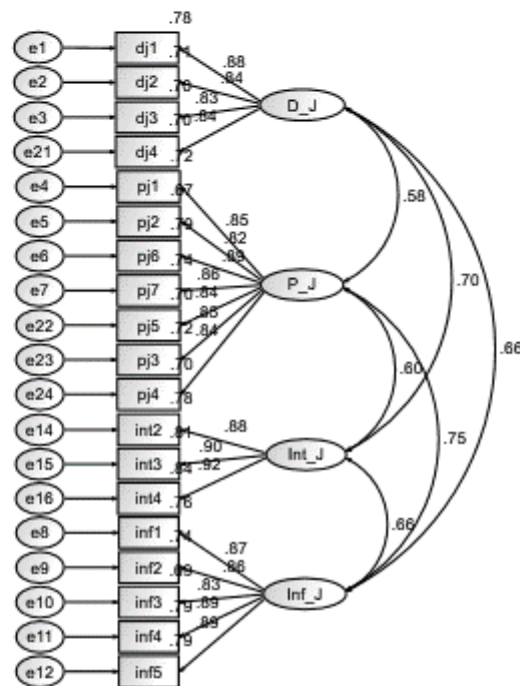


Figure 5.7: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Four Factors of Organizational Justice

5.7.1.1 Factor Loadings of Four Factors of Organizational Justice

Table 5.17 reported the factor loading against four factor of organizational justice where all the remaining items include in this analysis were above the threshold level of 0.70. Therefore, this model fits the data best.

Table 5.17: Standardized Regression Weight for Four Factors of Organizational Justice

Organizational Justice	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Distributive Justice	dj1	.882
	dj2	.843
	dj3	.834
	dj4	.838
Procedural Justice	pj1	.849
	pj2	.817
	pj6	.900
	pj7	.862
	pj5	.835
	pj3	.847
	pj4	.837
Interpersonal Justice	int2	.882
	int3	.900
	int4	.917
Informational Justice	inf1	.875
	inf2	.862
	inf3	.831
	inf4	.886
	inf5	.890

5.7.1.2 Construct Validation for Organizational Justice

Towards examining the convergent and discriminant validity, inter-item correlation standardized item alphas correlation coefficients are should be reviewed. To do so, a measurement model was estimated using AMOS and results finding reported in table 5.18 that all constructs have satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 5.18: Validity and Reliability for Organizational Justice

Organizational Justice	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Informational Justice	0.939	0.755	0.558	0.941
Distributive Justice	0.912	0.722	0.493	0.964
Procedural Justice	0.947	0.720	0.558	0.978
Interpersonal Justice	0.927	0.810	0.493	0.983

More precisely, the values of AVE ranged between .564 and .70 (> 0.5), and MSV of each construct was found between .035 to .059, as we found that AVE is greater than MSV of each construct which is an evidence of discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

5.7.2 CFA for Overall Organizational Justice

In addition, we also conducted higher order (see Fig-5.8) CFA for an overall organizational justice and score for fit indices were: $\chi^2 (148) = 185.149$, [CFI = .991], [TLI = .990], [RMSEA = .024] and [SRMR = .0327] and factor loadings as shown in table 5.19. An overall summary of all fit indices for a first and second order of organizational justice is also provided in table 1-F (annexure D-2; pg-315).

5.7.2.1 Factor Loadings of Overall Organizational Justice

Table 5.17 reported the factor loading against four factor of organizational justice where all the remaining items include in this analysis were above the threshold level of 0.70. Therefore, this model fits the data best.

Table 5.19: Factor Loadings of Higher Order Model

	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Organizational Justice	D_J	.780
	P_J	.802
	Int_J	.783
	Inf_J	.878

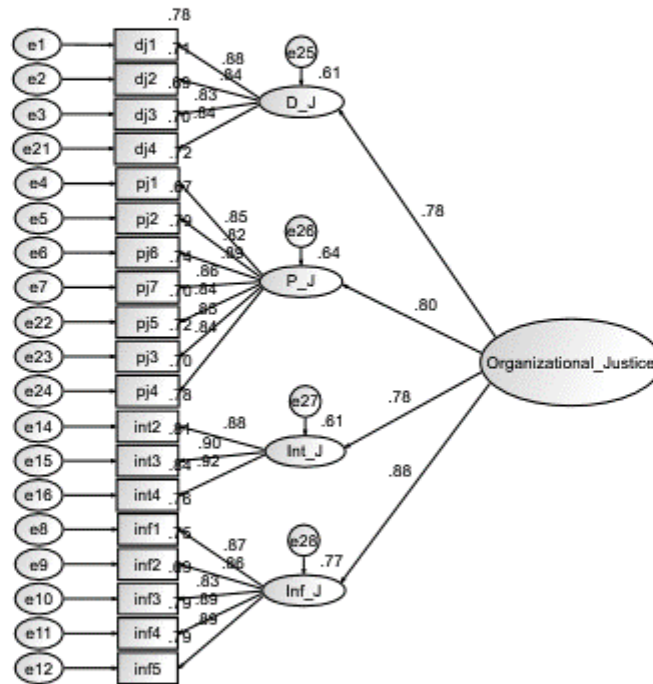


Figure 5.8: Second-order CFA for Overall Organizational Justice

5.7.2.2 Construct Validation for Overall Organizational Justice

Table 5.20 given below shows the validity measures for higher order factor, that confirms the scale reliability and construct validity.

Table 5.20: Validity and Reliability of Higher Order Model

	CR (Joreskog rho)	AVE (Rho VC)
Organizational Justice	.885	.658

5.7.3 CFA for Effort-Reward Imbalance

In continuation of the series of the CFA, we conducted an analysis to examine the distinctiveness of the main variables studied. The values of initial measurement are showing in the table given below, where fit indices for this model is good: $\chi^2(34) = 62.245$, [RMSEA = .059], [TLI = .973], [CFI = .980] and [SRMR = 0.386]. However, using the Modification indices (MI), we further purified this model by removing item (ore7) and final measurement model shows a very good fit index: $\chi^2(26) = 35.226$, [RMSEA = .038], [TLI = .989], [CFI =

.992] and [SRMR = .034]. An overview of all fit indices for effort-reward imbalance is provided in table 2-F (annexure D-2; pg-315).

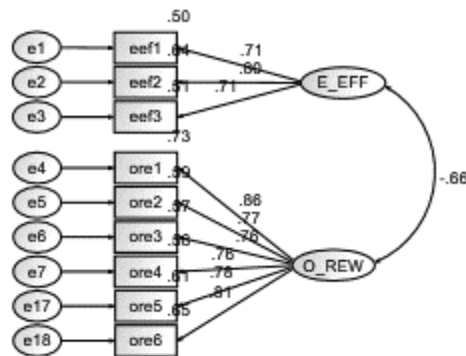


Figure 5.9: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Effort-Reward Imbalance

5.7.3.1 Factor Loadings for Effort-Reward Imbalance

Table 5.21 given below represents the factor loadings of each item appropriately loaded onto the respective constructs as all the values are above .70 the threshold levels.

Table 5.21: Factor Loadings for Effort-Reward Imbalance

Effort-Reward Imbalance	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Employees' effort	eef1	.708
	eef2	.801
	eef3	.712
Organizational Reward	ore1	.856
	ore2	.767
	ore3	.757
	ore4	.758
	ore5	.782
	ore6	.807

5.7.3.2 Construct Validation for Effort-Reward Imbalance

Towards examining the convergent and discriminant validity, inter-item correlation standardized item alphas correlation coefficients are should be reviewed. To do so, a measurement model was estimated using AMOS and results finding reported in table 5.22 that

both dimensions in Effort-Reward Imbalance have satisfactory convergent and discriminant validity.

Table 5.22: Validity and Reliability of Effort-Reward Imbalance

Effort-Reward Imbalance	CR (Joreskog rho)	AVE (Rho VC)
Employees' Effort	.785	.550
Organizational Reward	.906	.617

5.7.4 CFA for Outcome Variables

A CFA was conducted for outcome variables includes job burnout, organizational commitment, employees' performance, employees' in role behavior and turnover intention, where initial showed acceptable scores of classical fit indices: $\chi^2 (289) = 343.052$, [RMSEA = .028], [TLI = .984], [CFI = .986] and [SRMR = .0406]. Using modification indices (MI) the model was further purified by deleting an item (bo7) and final measurement model showed very good fit indices: $\chi^2 (256) = 300.691$, [RMSEA = .024], [TLI = .989], [CFI = .990] and [SRMR = .0384]. An overview of all fit indices for five outcome variables has shown in table 3-F (annexure D-2; pg-315).

5.7.4.1 Factor Loadings for Outcome Variables

Table 5.23 showed that all the items are highly loaded on their respective constructs as the all the values are above .70 and .80.

Table 5.23: Factor Loadings for Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading	Outcome Variables	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Job-Burnout	bo6	0.842	Organizational Commitment	oc1	0.824
	bo5	0.796		oc2	0.797
	bo4	0.818	oc3	0.768	
	bo3	0.819	oc4	0.812	
	bo2	0.827	oc5	0.754	
	bo1	0.786	oc6	0.828	
Employees' in Role Behavior	empb7	0.794	Turnover Intension	toi1	0.804
	empb6	0.781		toi2	0.816
	empb5	0.794		toi3	0.803
Employees' Performance	empb4	0.805	Employees' Performance	emps3	0.828
	empb3	0.768		emps2	0.841
	empb2	0.803		emps1	0.834
	empb1	0.808			

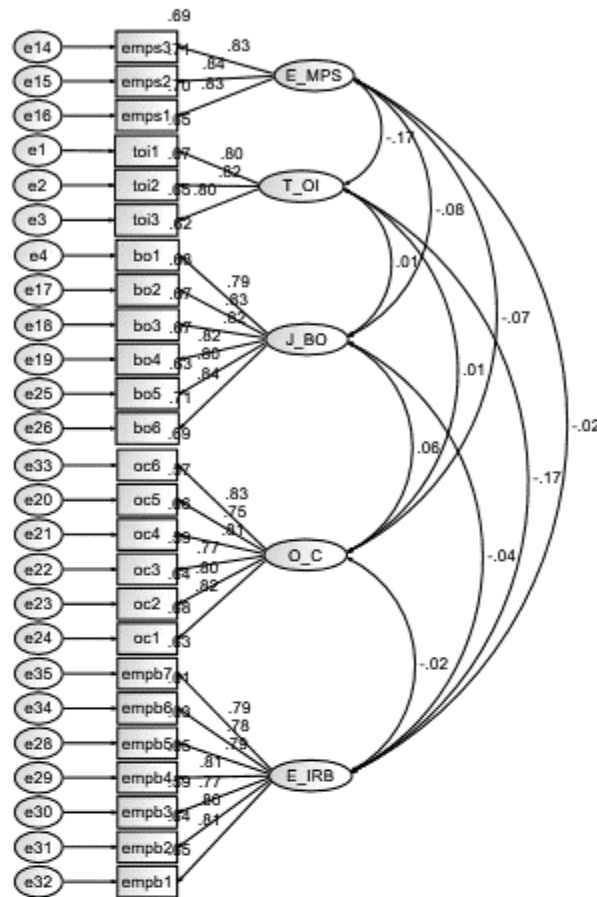


Figure 5.10: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Outcome Variables

5.7.4.2 Construct Validation for Outcome Variables

Validities and reliabilities were tested and found that all the values of AVE are greater than MSV and ASV (see table 5.24) thus this model supports the recommendations of (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.24: Validity and Reliability of Outcome Variables

Outcome Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Organizational Commitment	0.913	0.636	0.005	0.915
Employees' Performance	0.873	0.696	0.028	0.946
Employees' in Role Behavior	0.922	0.629	0.029	0.967
Job-Burnout	0.922	0.664	0.006	0.977
Turnover Intention	0.849	0.652	0.029	0.979

5.7.5 CFA for Moderating Variables

Similarly, we conducted the CFA for moderating variables initial measurement model showed acceptable values of statistics fit indices: χ^2 (206) = 235.456, [RMSEA = .024], [TLI = .0990], [CFI = .991] and [SRMR = .0407]. Using modification indices (MI) we purified this model by removing two items (sen2, sen3) and final measurement model good model fit indices: χ^2 (167) = 168.627, [RMSEA = .007], [TLI = .998], [CFI = .999] and [SRMR = .0382]. An overview of all fit indices for moderating variables is provided in table 4-F (annexure D-2; pg-315)

5.7.5.1 Factor Loadings of Moderating Variables

Table 5.25 showed that all the items are highly loaded on their respective constructs as the all the values are above .70 and .80 except sen4 (.698) which is also approaching to threshold level i.e., .70.

Table 5.25: Factor Loadings of Moderating Variables

Moderating Variables	Indicators	Standardized Factor Loading
Self-Enhancement	sen7	.772
	sen6	.807
	sen5	.733
	sen4	.698
	sen1	.745
Self-Transcendence	set4	.790
	set5	.810
	set6	.734
	set7	.812
	set8	.740
	set9	.762
	set10	.839
Equity Sensitivity	set3	.795
	set2	.798
	set1	.759
	es1	.832
	es2	.824
	es3	.818
	es4	.811
	es5	.893

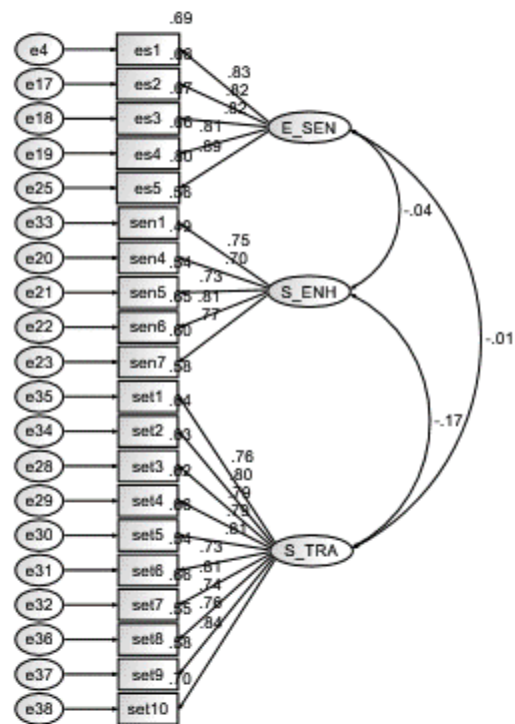


Figure 5.11: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Moderating variables

5.7.5.2 Construct Validation for Moderating Variables

Validities and reliabilities were tested and found that all the values of AVE are greater than MSV and ASV (see table 5.26) thus this model supports the recommendations of (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.26: Validity and Reliability of Moderating Variables

Moderating Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Self-Enhancement	0.866	0.565	0.028	0.870
Equity Sensitivity	0.921	0.699	0.002	0.950
Self-Transcendence	0.941	0.616	0.028	0.973

5.7.6 Simultaneous CFA for all Constructs

To test the overall fit of the proposed factor structure model, we again ran a CFA for assessing the statistics of fit for measurement model. Although values of classical global fit indices showed acceptable ranges: χ^2 (2683) = 3249.130, [RMSEA = .030], [TLI = .952], [CFI = .949] and [SRMR = .0444], yet several items were found less standardized regression weights (sen2, set5, set6, set8, ore2, ore7,) from the threshold level .70, thus we removed those items from the model and final measurement fit indices scores were: χ^2 (1770) = 2004.009, [RMSEA = .023], [TLI = .973], [CFI = .975] and [SRMR = .0454]. An overview of all fit indices for all constructs included in this study is provided in table 5-F (annexure D-2; pg-315).

5.1.1.1 Factor Loading of All Constructs

Table 5.27 given below shows the factor loading of all constructs are above 0.70 or 0.80 for French sample includes this study.

Table 5.27: Factor Loadings for All Constructs

Indicators	Variables	Standardized factor loading
PJ	Organizational Justice	.806
Int.J	Organizational Justice	.796
Inf.J	Organizational Justice	.853
DJ	Organizational Justice	.812
int3	Interpersonal Justice	.899
int4	Interpersonal Justice	.918
int2	Interpersonal Justice	.882
pj1	Procedural Justice	.823
pj2	Procedural Justice	.828
pj3	Procedural Justice	.856
dj1	Distributive Justice	.884
dj2	Distributive Justice	.842
dj3	Distributive Justice	.832
inf2	Informational Justice	.865
inf3	Informational Justice	.837
inf4	Informational Justice	.877
inf5	Informational Justice	.893
sen1	Self-Enhancement	.762
sen2	Self-Enhancement	.713
sen3	Self-Enhancement	.709
sen5	Self-Enhancement	.761
sen6	Self-Enhancement	.782

Table 5.27 Continued

Indicators	Variables	Standardized factor loading
sen7	Self-Enhancement	.736
set1	Self-Transcendence	.754
set2	Self-Transcendence	.802
set4	Self-Transcendence	.794
set5	Self-Transcendence	.826
set7	Self-Transcendence	.803
set9	Self-Transcendence	.763
set10	Self-Transcendence	.836
empb1	Employees' in Role Behavior	.808
empb2	Employees' in Role Behavior	.803
empb3	Employees' in Role Behavior	.767
empb4	Employees' in Role Behavior	.806
empb5	Employees' in Role Behavior	.793
empb6	Employees' in Role Behavior	.780
empb7	Employees' in Role Behavior	.794
oc2	Organizational Commitment	.793
oc3	Organizational Commitment	.781
oc4	Organizational Commitment	.818
oc5	Organizational Commitment	.751
oc6	Organizational Commitment	.818
eef1	Employee's Effort	.705
eef2	Employee's Effort	.810
eef3	Employee's Effort	.704
ore1	Organizational Reward	.862
ore3	Organizational Reward	.754
ore4	Organizational Reward	.746
ore5	Organizational Reward	.795
ore6	Organizational Reward	.798
emps1	Employees' Performance	.832
emps2	Employees' Performance	.843
emps3	Employees' Performance	.828
toi1	Turnover Intention	.804
toi2	Turnover Intention	.817
toi3	Turnover Intention	.803
bo1	Job-Burnout	.796
bo2	Job-Burnout	.822
bo4	Job-Burnout	.825
bo5	Job-Burnout	.801
bo6	Job-Burnout	.828
es5	Equity Sensitivity	.892
es4	Equity Sensitivity	.810
es3	Equity Sensitivity	.818
es2	Equity Sensitivity	.824
es1	Equity Sensitivity	.833

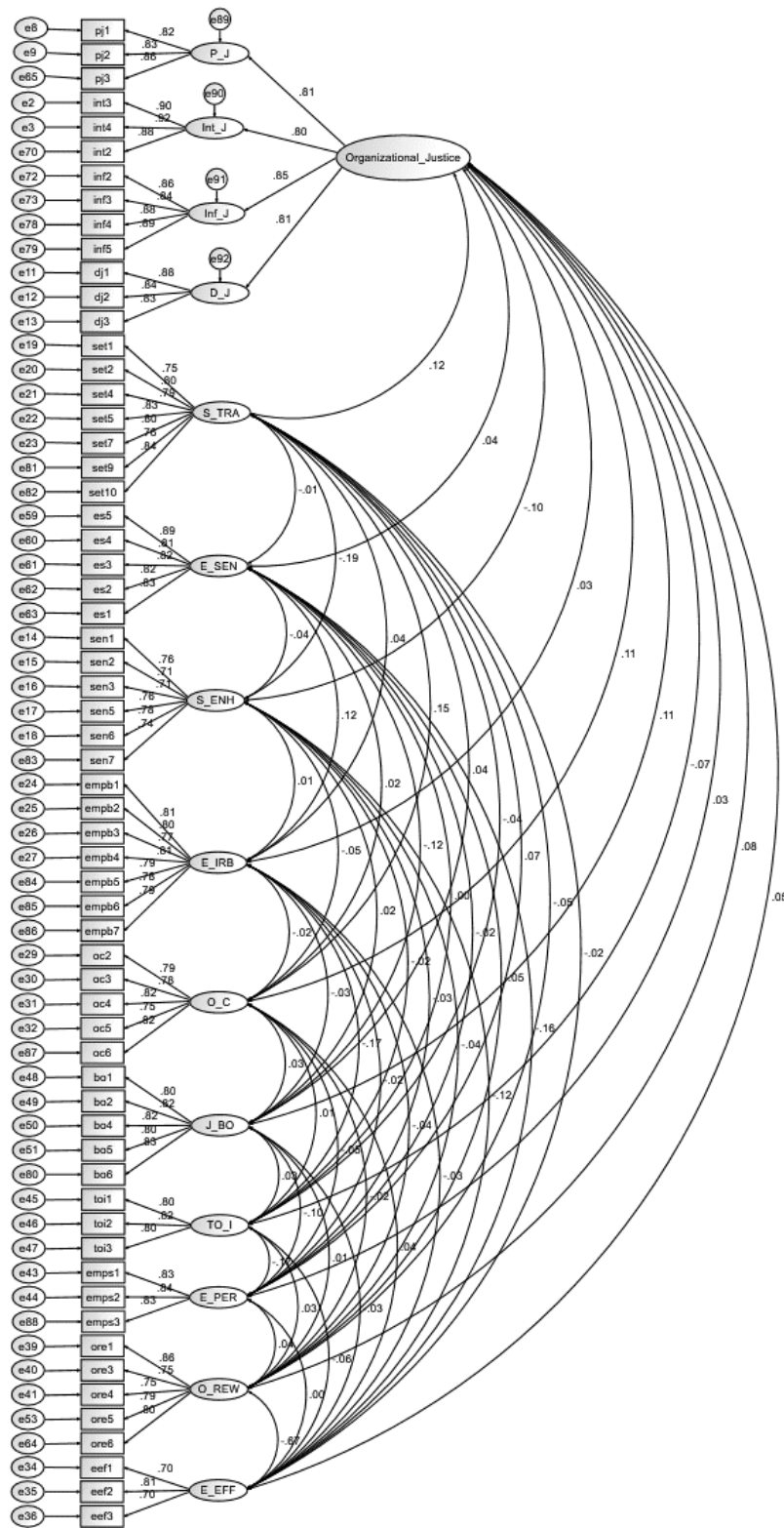


Figure 5.12: Confirmatory Factor Analysis includes all Variable

5.7.6.1 Construct Validity for All Constructs

Similarly, we tested the convergent and discriminant validity including all constructs where we found, convergent and discriminant validity was not issued for this model (see table 5.28).

Table 5.28: Validity and Reliability of All Constructs

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Employees' Effort	0.785	0.550	0.450	0.795
Self-Transcendence	0.924	0.636	0.035	0.942
Organizational Justice	0.889	0.668	0.015	0.961
Equity Sensitivity	0.921	0.699	0.024	0.974
Employees' in Role Behavior	0.922	0.629	0.029	0.980
Organizational Commitment	0.894	0.628	0.022	0.983
Job-burnout	0.908	0.663	0.015	0.985
Turnover Intention	0.849	0.653	0.029	0.986
Employees' Performance	0.873	0.696	0.028	0.988
Organizational Reward	0.894	0.627	0.450	0.979
Self-Enhancement	0.882	0.554	0.035	0.950

5.8 Common Method Variance and Common Latent Factor

For French sample, we collected data using similar method (i.e., cross-sectional: a single source) therefore, common method variance might have inflated the main effects (Fiske, 1982), however, the results of Harman's single factor (see annexure) for French sample is explaining 4.5% (annexure E-2; pg-318) of the total variance in the data which is not majority of variance in this sample. Although Harman's single factor analysis has shown that a single factor is not explaining the maximum variance in the data, yet to further confirmation we performed common latent factor in AMOS (see Figure-35, annexure E-2; pg-318). The similar procedure was followed for Pakistani sample, a comparison between constrained and unconstrained models was performed for French sample (see annexure E-2) and conducted the chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$) as:

$$\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2_{\text{constrained}} - \chi^2_{\text{unconstrained}}$$

$$\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2(1770) = 2004.009 - \chi^2(1694) = 1911.905$$

$$\Delta = \chi^2(76) = 92.104$$

The results showed that chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) between constrained and unconstrained model $\Delta\chi^2(76) = 92.104$, and P -value was statistically insignificant which shows the absence of CMV. Hence the common latent factor analysis also confirmed that common method biased is not concerned in our study (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Gaskins, 2016).

5.9 Multicollinearity

The multiplicative interactive term in regression analysis can create the problem of multicollinearity. Therefore, we calculated for multicollinearity using criteria for variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values (Kleinbaum, Kupper, & Mueller, 1988). VIF scores, which measure the extent to which collinearity among the predictors affects the precision of a regression model in each step. Variation inflation factor for all variables were less than 2.1 for Pakistani sample whereas 2.9 for French sample. VIF scores less than 10 are typically considered acceptable (Hair et al., 1998). Finally, an inspection of the variance inflation factor scores (VIFs) indicated that there were no instances of multicollinearity among any of the variables (largest VIF = 2.9).

5.10 Measurement Equivalence

Since we obtained the data from two countries—Pakistan and France and when we use the same instruments across countries, this kind of data possess the issues of measurement Equivalence (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthen, 1989; Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005; Robert, Lee, & Chan, 2006; van de Vijver & Fischer, 2009). The purpose for testing measurement equivalence is to assure that the instrument designed to measure the related construct has the same meaning across-countries (Hui & Triandis, 1985). Whereas, the lack of invariance shows that the instrument used to measure the construct has no similar meanings across countries. Further, scholars have argued that some comparison between groups is of importance, and the presence or absence of group variances has some useful practical consequences. In addition, Edwards and Wirth (2009) evaluations of measurement invariance are valuable sources of construct validity evidence. According to Billiet (2003), there are two main steps need to be considered for establishing the measurement invariance across countries. During the first step, the researchers need the similar items translated into respective languages, the sampling procedure should be similar and techniques opted for data collections are also

should be similar. The second step involves data analysis techniques in testing measurement equivalence of theoretical constructs. There are four levels: configural, metric, scalar and strict invariance (Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000) for testing measurement invariance and each of these levels build upon the previous by introducing further equality constraints on model parameters to achieve the stronger type of invariance.

5.10.1 Configural, Metric, and Scalar Invariance

For testing measurement invariance, we started with the formation of configural invariance. Configural invariance is generally denoted to as pattern invariance and is the baseline model. Therefore, in this level, we estimated both factor models at the same time. Because this is the baseline model we only required to test overall model fit to examine whether configural invariance holds. Four factors of OJ achieved configural measurement invariance across Pakistan and French samples. For configural, invariance test, we evaluated model fit using global fit indices [RMSEA, Browne & Cudek, 1993, Byrne, 2010], [CFI, Bentler, 1990; Byrne, 2010], [TLI, Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 2010]. The values of fit indices [CFI = .988, TLI = .986] were close greater than the cut-off value of 0.95, and RMSEA indices were .026 for all, which were indicative of an acceptable model fit. The Chi-square: $\chi^2(328) = 511.063$, provides the baseline value against which following tests for invariance may be compared (Byrne, 2000).

Since, we found that four-factor model achieved configural invariance between Pakistan and France, therefore, it allows us to test metric invariance. Metric invariance builds upon configural invariance. For examining metric invariance, we imposed constraints on specific parameters (Jöreskog–Sörbom, 1996; Bentler, 2004) and we tested Chi-square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$). The initial model that examined the configural invariance (Model A) has shown an acceptable fit indices and testing full metric invariance (Model B) displays the fit indices [CFI = .985, TLI = .983, RMSEA = .028] for the models that tested measurement invariance.

For testing invariance of constrained model (Model B), we compared its $\chi^2(348) = 571.587$ value for the initial model (Model A) in which no equality constraints were imposed, $\chi^2(328) = 511.063$. For model, fit difference we used likelihood-ratio (LR) test, generally known as chi-square difference (Bollen, 1989b; Byrne et al., 1989; Reise, Widaman, & Pugh, 1993;

Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). However, the chi-square difference ($\Delta\chi^2$) can be calculated as under:

$$\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2_{\text{constrained}} - \chi^2_{\text{unconstrained}}$$

as shown above $\chi^2_{\text{constrained}}$ and $\chi^2_{\text{unconstrained}}$ are the values for the constrained model and the unconstrained (or less constrained) model, correspondingly. Significance is assessed with the Δdf degrees of freedom as under:

$$\Delta df = df_{\text{constrained}} - df_{\text{unconstrained}}$$

Accordingly, using the chi-square difference test (Bollen, 1989b), we found the $\Delta\chi^2 (20) = 60.524$ value which is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Provided with this information, the significant P-value ($p < .05$) shows that we have not achieved metric invariance between two samples. We tested the configural invariance for effort-reward imbalance across two samples. The fit indices [CFI = .990, TLI = .987, RMSEA = .029] shows some acceptable ranges related to this two samples unconstrained model (Model A). The $\chi^2 (68) = 114.041$, value offers the initial base for subsequent comparison. For testing full metric invariance, the fit indices [CFI = .970, TLI = .966, RMSEA = .047] reported for constrained model (Model B) we compared its $\chi^2 (78) = 219.483$ value for the initial unconstrained model (Model A), $\chi^2 (68) = 114.041$. The comparison yielded a chi-square difference $\Delta\chi^2 (10) = 105.442$, which is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Provided with this information, the significant P-value ($p < .05$) shows that a fully constrained model for ERI is not invariant across groups.

We tested the configural invariance for five outcome variables (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, EIRB) across two countries where model fit showed acceptable values [CFI = .983; TLI = .981; RMSEA = .021]. The Chi-Square: $\chi^2 (578) = 784.597$ are also considered for possible comparison with constrained model. The fit indices for metric invariance were [CFI = .975; TLI = .973; RMSEA = .025] and based on chi square difference, we compared the $\chi^2 (605) = 913.583$ value of constrained (Model B) with unconstrained model (Model A) $\chi^2 (578) = 784.597$. The results indicate differences between the two countries; the $\Delta\chi^2 (27) = 128.986$ values are statistically significant ($p < .05$) for outcome variables across two countries.

Finally, configural invariance was tested for moderating variables (self-transcendence, self-enhancement & equity sensitivity), the results of configural invariance showed a fair model fit as [CFI = .978, TLI = .975, RMSEA = .030] whereas $\chi^2 (412) = 712.195$. Following the measurement invariant series, we also conducted the fully constrained model (Model B) to examine the metric invariance for moderating variables the fit indices were fair [CFI = .973,

TLI = .971, RMSEA = .032] however, we compared its $\chi^2 (434) = 796.429$ values with the baseline model (Model A) $\chi^2 (412) = 712.195$. The results indicate differences between the two countries; the $\Delta\chi^2 (22) = 84.241$ are statistically significant ($p < .05$) for moderating variables across two groups.

Overall we achieved configural invariance among all constructs (IVs, DVs and MVs). In general, the number of factors are the same within each sample and the factor loadings look similar yet, we failed to achieve the pattern coefficients (metric invariance). However, the scholars suggest that configural invariance is a weak level of invariance and achieving configural invariance does not mean that people in different countries respond to the items in the same way.

Metric invariance provides for a stronger test of invariance (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998) and this study failed to achieve metric invariance across countries. However, in *scalar invariance*, we justify the mean comparisons across two groups is established by attaining scalar or strong invariance. Since scalar invariance builds upon metric invariance (Dimitrov, 2010) by comparing group means on latent variables of interest. However, we did not achieve metric variance across groups therefore, we did not test the other levels of invariance. Whereas metric invariance results showed that the variances are significantly different regarding the perceptions of fairness between both groups (Pakistan and France). Considering the results of measurement of invariance, we have found that there are significant differences between the fairness perceptions two groups across Pakistan and France, accordingly, we have dealt the data separately for further analysis.

5.11 Results of Data Analysis (Pakistani Sample)

5.11.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 5.29 revealed Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all the variables in the Pakistani sample. To examine the possible effects of control variables, we conducted the correlation matrix test, as reported in table 5.29. The results of bi-variate correlations revealed that age was positively related to JBO ($r = .07, p < .05$) whereas negatively related to EIRB ($r = -.08, p < .05$). Marital status was negatively related to JBO ($r = -.09, p < .05$) and positively related to OC ($r = .08, p < .05$). On other hand EIRB was positively related to gender ($r = .07, p < .05$) and negatively related to organizational tenure ($r = -.09, p < .05$). However, education

was unrelated to our dependent variables (see table 5.29). Distributive justice, procedural, interpersonal, informational and overall organization justice were negatively related to JBO ($r = -.34, \rho < .001$; $r = -.25, \rho < .001$, $r = -.21, \rho < .001$, $r = -.24, p < .001$, $r = -.32, p < .001$) and TOI ($r = -.25, \rho < .001$; $r = -.23, \rho < .001$, $r = -.14, \rho < .01$, $r = -.22, p < .001$, $r = -.26, \rho < .001$) whereas, ERI showed a positive association with JBO and TOI ($r = .25, \rho < .001$; $r = .20, \rho < .001$). Similarly, Distributive justice, procedural, interpersonal, informational and overall organization justice were positively related to OC ($r = .27, \rho < .001$; $r = .16, \rho < .01$, $r = .27, \rho < .001$, $r = .23, \rho < .001$, $r = .29, \rho < .001$), EMPS ($r = .29, \rho < 0.001$; $r = .25, \rho < .001$, $r = .24, \rho < .001$, $r = .25, \rho < .001$, $r = .32, \rho < .001$) and EIRB ($r = .32, \rho < .001$; $r = .25, \rho < .001$, $r = .18, \rho < .001$, $r = .24, \rho < .001$, $r = .30, \rho < .001$) whereas, ERI revealed a negative association with OC, EMPS and EIRB ($r = -.29, \rho < .001$; $r = -.25, \rho < .001$, $r = -.22, \rho < .001$). We also identified that self-enhancement is positively related to JBO and TOI ($r = .15, \rho < .001$, $r = .07, \rho < 0.05$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($r = -.25, \rho < .001$; $r = -.07, n.s.$, $r = -.03, n.s.$). Self-transcendence was negatively related to the JBO and TOI ($r = -.15, \rho < .001$, $r = -.09, \rho < .01$) whereas positively related to the OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($r = .23, \rho < .001$, $r = .01, n.s.$, $r = .03, n.s.$). Similarly, equity sensitivity is positively related to JBO and TOI ($r = .13, \rho < .01$, $r = .25, \rho < 0.001$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($r = -.08, \rho < 0.05$; $r = -.15, \rho < .01$, $r = -.28, \rho < .001$).

*

* *

Table 5.29: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Study Variable of Pakistani Sample

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Experience	11.1	8.8	—																				
2. Gender	.74	.43	-.03	—																			
3. Education	2.0	.85	-.08*	.07*	—																		
4. Age	37.6	9.8	.79**	-.06	-.03	—																	
5. Marital Status	1.3	.45	-.04	.02	-.07	-.06	—																
6. Distributive Justice	6.0	1.2	-.08*	-.01	.02	-.08*	.06	(.84)															
7. Procedural Justice	5.8	1.1	-.05	-.03	.07*	-.03	.05	.58**	(.89)														
8. Interpersonal Justice	5.8	1.1	-.05	.01	.17**	-.04	.08*	.56**	.51**	(.82)													
9. Informational Justice	5.9	1.2	.06	.02	.04	.01	.08*	.61**	.47**	.45**	(.87)												
10. Organizational Justice	5.9	.64	-.05	-.01	.09*	-.04	.08*	.85**	.79**	.78**	.79**	(.91)											
11. Employees' Effort	1.9	1.1	.13**	-.03	.04	.11**	-.04	-.18**	-.08*	-.09*	-.08*	-.13**	(.90)										
12. Organizational Rewards	5.7	1.6	-.04	.07	.07*	-.04	.08*	.20**	.21**	.22**	.22**	.26**	-.23**	(.87)									
13. Effort-Reward (Ratio)	.44	.30	.12**	-.09*	.01	.11**	-.07*	-.26**	-.19**	-.23**	-.19**	-.27**	.70**	-.69**	N/A								
14. Job-Burnout	2.2	1.3	.06	.01	.01	.07*	-.09*	-.34**	-.25**	-.21**	-.24**	-.32**	.18**	-.20**	.25**	(.88)							
15. Organizational Commitment	5.8	1.5	-.05	.02	-.02	-.07	.08*	.27**	.16**	.27**	.23**	.29**	-.20**	.24**	-.29**	-.60**	(.88)						
16. Employees' Performance	5.9	1.2	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.03	.01	.29**	.25**	.24**	.25**	.32**	-.19**	.16**	-.25**	-.17**	.16**	(.83)					
17. Employees in Role Behavior	5.8	1.2	-.08*	.07*	-.04	-.08*	.05	.32**	.25**	.18**	.24**	.30**	-.17**	.14**	-.22**	-.16**	.12**	.42**	(.86)				
18. Turnover Intention	2.0	.30	.05	-.03	.02	.05	.01	-.25**	-.23**	-.14**	-.22**	-.26**	.13**	-.16**	.20**	.17**	-.18**	-.36**	-.48**	(.90)			
19. Self-Enhancement	2.3	1.5	.11**	.05	-.12**	.07*	-.07	-.13**	-.12**	-.21**	-.18**	-.20**	.07*	-.22**	.18**	.15**	-.25**	-.07	.03	.07*	(.90)		
20. Self-Transcendence	5.5	1.6	.01	-.02	.12**	.01	.05	.11**	.11**	.16**	.17**	.17**	-.03	.16**	-.13**	-.15**	.23**	.01	.03	-.09*	-.48**	(.91)	
21. Equity Sensitivity	1.9	.99	.08*	-.02	.03	.08*	-.08*	-.18**	-.06	-.03	-.18**	-.14**	.14**	-.13**	.17**	.13**	-.08*	-.15**	-.28**	.25**	.05	.01	(.93)

5.11.2 Results of Hypothesis Tests

For study 1 (Pakistani sample), we tested our hypotheses with six separate hierarchical multiple regression analysis (HMR; see Raudenbush, & Bryk, 2002). A relationship between an independent variable (IV) = X and a dependent variable (DV) = Y, changes according to the value of a moderating variable (MV) = Z. To test a moderation effect, we included moderating variable = Z, and interaction term created $(X) \times (Z)$ by multiplying both variables. Indeed, in the regression equation, we entered IV (X) and MV (Z) for testing the moderating effects. Predictors were mean centered (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003), and interactive terms between the independent variable and the moderator were computed. The moderating effect may be supported when the relevant production term is significant, after introducing the main predictors. Then, we plotted the interaction graphs using Jeremy Dawson's tools for graphing interaction: <http://www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm>.

In regression analysis, JBO and five submissions were predicted by demographic control variables (gender, education, marital status, organizational tenure, and age) in step 1. Considering the previous research findings that demographic variables moderate the relationships between justice perceptions and work outcomes (e.g., Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997, Lee & Farh, 1999) thus we included gender, education, marital status, organizational tenure and age as control variables in regression analysis. We intended to examine the 'usefulness' of each predictor (Darlington, 1968). Therefore, we entered the main effect of distributive justice in step 2. We entered all moderating variables in step 3 and finally, entered the interaction between distributive justice and three moderating variables (self-enhancement, self-transcendence, & equity sensitivity) on JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, and ERIB and in Step 4 (mean centered the moderators before computing the product terms; Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003).

We portray our regression results in tables 3-8 (annexure F-1; pg-320) have shown, personal human values (self-enhancement & self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity, and their product terms with each justice dimensions and ERI as well as an overall organizational justice perception are entered in HMR. By doing this, our study results revealed a usefulness of the analysis of moderating effects of personal human values versus equity sensitivity. By investigating the incremental variances explained by one set of fairness dimensions controlling another set of predictors, we intend to assess whether personal human values (PHV) are more significant than equity sensitivity (ES) in moderating fairness perceptions. However, we also

intended to compare the both four factor of justice model is more significant than and ERI model in predicting work outcomes. To increase the generalizability, we tested this model in two different samples in two different countries (Pakistan & France).

5.11.3 Results of Hierarchical Regressions

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to estimate the linear and nonlinear relationships between predictors and stress outcomes (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & EIRB). As shown in table 3 (annexure F-1; pg-320) in step 1 we entered demographic variables as (experience, age, gender, education and marital status) where we found JBO was negatively related to marital status ($\beta_{jbo} = -.08, \rho < .05$) and OC was also negatively related to employees' years of education ($\beta_{oc} = -.12, \rho < .05$). We did not find support for other demographic variables. We entered distributive justice in the second step and the results of hierarchical regression reported in table 3 indicating that the distributive justice predicted all five work outcomes variables (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & EIRB). As hypothesized, in second step of a multilevel analysis testing main effects found distributive justice to be negatively related to JBO and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.33, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.26, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .29, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .32, \rho < .001$) see table 3 (annexure F-1; pg-320).

Table 3 (step 3) indicates the main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity on five work outcomes. For self-enhancement regression analysis showed only significant negative main effects for OC ($\beta_{oc} = -.16, \rho < .01$), whereas, self-transcendence was negatively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.10, \rho < .05$) and positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .13, \rho < .01$). Similarly, equity sensitivity was negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.23, \rho < .001$) and positively relate to TOI ($\beta_{toi} = .21, \rho < .001$). In step 4, we added multiplicative composites of distributive justice and self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity (DJ \times SEN; DJ \times SET; DJ \times ES). Hierarchical regression results showed that self-enhancement moderated the relationship between distributive justice and OC ($\beta = -.17, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .03, \rho < .05$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between distributive justice and EIRB ($\beta = -.18, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .03, \rho < .001$), as well as TOI ($\beta = .23, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$).

Table 4 (annexure F-1; pg-320) showed the main effects of procedural justice on all five outcome variables (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & EIRB). As expected procedural justice was negatively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.25, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.24, \rho < .001$) whereas positively

related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .17, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .30, \rho < .001$). The main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity on five work outcomes showed in table 5. Results showed that self-enhancement was negatively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = -.17, \rho < .001$), on the other hand self-transcendence was also negatively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.09, \rho < .05$) and positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .14, \rho < .01$) whereas equity sensitivity negatively related to EMPS ($\beta_{emps} = -.14, \rho < .01$) as well as EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.26, \rho < .001$) however, positively related to TOI ($\beta_{toi} = .25, \rho < .001$) and JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .01$). Table 4 also shown multiplicative composites of procedural justice and self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity (PJ \times SEN; PJ \times SET; PJ \times ES). HMR results have shown that self-transcendence moderated the relationship between procedural justice and OC ($\beta = .13, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$). Further, equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between procedural justice and EMPS ($\beta = -.20, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$), EIRB ($\beta = -.22, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .05, \rho < .001$), as well as TOI ($\beta = .21, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$).

Table 5 (annexure F-1; pg-320) depicted the main effects of interpersonal justice on five outcome variables. Regression results showed that interpersonal justice was negatively related to JBO, TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.21, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.15, \rho < .001$) and positively related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .27, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .19, \rho < .001$). Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also reported in table 5, where we found self-enhancement was negative related to OC and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = -.15, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = .08, \rho < .05$). Self-transcendence has negative impact on JBO and positive influence on OC ($\beta_{jbo} = -.10, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{oc} = .14, \rho < .01$), similarly, equity sensitivity was positively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .12, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{toi} = .25, \rho < .001$) whereas negatively relate to EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.14, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.27, \rho < .001$). Table 5 also exhibited that self-enhancement moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice and OC ($\beta = -.13, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .013, \rho < .001$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice and EMPS ($\beta = -.12, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .014, \rho < .05$), EIRB ($\beta = -.17, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .034, \rho < .001$) as well as TOI ($\beta = .18, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .036, \rho < .001$).

Table 6 (annexure F-1; pg-320) depicted main effects of informational justice on work outcomes, where we found that informational justice is negatively related to JBO and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.23, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.22, \rho < .001$) and positively related to OC, EMPS and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .23, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .24, \rho < .001$). Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also exhibited in table 6. Self-enhancement was

negatively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = -.16, \rho < .01$), similarly, self-transcendence was negatively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.09, \rho < .05$) and but positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .13, \rho < .01$). Equity sensitivity was positively related to JBO and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .09, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .22, \rho < .001$) and negatively related to EMPS and EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.11, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.23, \rho < .001$). Further, table 6 showed moderating results of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity (INF \times SEN; INF \times SET; INF \times ES). Self-enhancement moderated the relationship between informational justice and OC ($\beta = -.24, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .07, \rho < .001$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between informational justice and JBO ($\beta = .11, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .046, \rho < .001$), EMPS ($\beta = -.12, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .010, \rho < .05$), EIRB ($\beta = -.14, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .021, \rho < .01$) and TOI ($\beta = .20, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .031, \rho < .001$).

Overall organizational justice: To test an over-all justice impact on stress outcome, we again performed HMR as shown in table 7 (see annexure F-1; pg-320). HMR exhibited that organizational justice is negatively and significantly related to JBO, TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.32, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.27, \rho < .001$) whereas positively and significantly related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .33, \rho < .001$). These results support the Hypothesis 1 as:

H1: Organizational justice is negatively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance, employees' in role behavior. (Accepted).

The main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also reported in table 7 where we found self-enhancement was negatively related to OC, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = -.15, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.08, \rho < .05$) whereas, positively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .05$). Self-transcendence showed a positive association with OC ($\beta_{oc} = .13, \rho < .01$) and negative with JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.08, \rho < .05$). On the other hand, equity sensitivity showed positive association with JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .08, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .22, \rho < .001$) and negative association with OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = -.17, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{emps} = -.11, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.23, \rho < .001$).

Moreover, hierarchical regression showed self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity moderate the relationship between organizational justice and stress outcomes. As shown in table 7 self-enhancement moderated the relationship between OJ and OC ($\beta = -.20, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$) OJ and JBO ($\beta = .19, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .05, \rho < .001$) OJ and

EIRB ($\beta = -.11, \rho < .01; \Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 3a-b as:

H3a: The negative relationship between organizational justice and job-burnout (*accepted*) as well as turnover intentions (*rejected*) will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

H3b: The positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment (*accepted*), employees' performance (*rejected*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*accepted*) will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Self-transcendence moderated the relationship between OJ and OC ($\beta = .13, \rho < .05; \Delta R^2 = .040, \rho < .001$), OJ and JBO ($\beta = -.14, \rho < .01; \Delta R^2 = .050, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 3c-d as:

H3c: The negative relationship between organizational justice and job-burnout (*accepted*) as well as turnover intentions (*rejected*) will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

H3d: The positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment (*accepted*), employees' performance (*rejected*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*rejected*) will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between OJ and OC ($\beta = -.10, \rho < .05; \Delta R^2 = .040, \rho < .001$), OJ and EMPS ($\beta = -.18, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .024, \rho < .001$), OJ and EIRB ($\beta = -.24, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$) as well as OJ and TOI ($\beta = .27, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 5a-b as:

H5a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational justice on job-burnout (*rejected*) as well as turnover intention (*accepted*), such that the effects of organizational justice will be more negative for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

H5b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational justice on organizational commitment (*accepted.*, employees' performance (*accepted*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*accepted*), such that the effects of organizational justice will be more positive for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

Simple slopes analyses (Cohen et al., 2003) were performed for assessing the significance of the slope. Then we plotted all the significant interactions (see Figure 5.14-24, annexure G-1; pg-332) following the method outlined by Aiken, and West (1991). Although space limitations do not permit us to plot the graphs for all significant interactions in this section, we provided significant interaction effects, one for each sample (Pakistan & France) as depicted in Figure 5.13-14. The graph for Pakistani sample (interaction OJ×SE_ENH on OC) as shows in Figure 5.13 that, in line with our predictions.

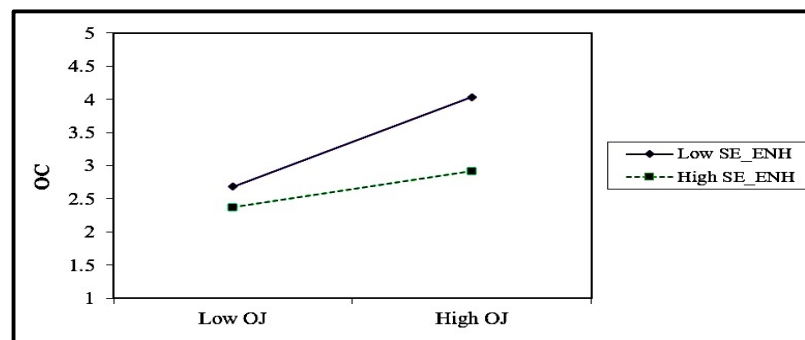


Figure 5.13 The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-enhancement on organizational commitment

Effort-Reward Imbalance: Main effects of effort-reward imbalance (ERI) were shown in table 8 (annexure F-1, pg-320). ERI was positively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .25, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = .20, \rho < .001$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, and ERIB ($\beta_{oc} = -.29, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = -.20, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.25, \rho < .001$). These results support the Hypothesis 2 as:

H2: Effort-reward imbalance is positively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas negatively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees' in role behavior. (*Accepted*).

Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also depicted in table 8. HMR revealed that self-enhancement was positively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .05$) and negatively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = -.14, \rho < .01$) and self-transcendence was positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .15, \rho < .01$). Equity sensitivity was negatively related to EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.24, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.12, \rho < .001$) and positively related to TOI ($\beta_{toi} = -.24, \rho < .001$). To test the possible interaction of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity and ERI we analyzed multiple moderated regression where we found self-enhancement moderated the relationship between ERI and OC ($\beta = -.21, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .02, \rho < .05$), as well as JBO ($\beta = .10, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .015, \rho < .05$). These results support our study hypothesis 4a-b as:

H4a: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout (*accepted*) as well as turnover intentions (*rejected*) such that the positive relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

H4b: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment (*accepted*), employees' performance (*rejected*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*rejected*) such that the negative relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

Self-transcendence also moderated the relationship between ERI and OC ($\beta = .17, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .02, \rho < .05$). We did not find moderating effects of equity sensitivity between ERI and stress outcomes. These results support our study hypothesis 4c-d as well as 6a-b as:

H4c: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intentions such that the positive relationship will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values. (*Rejected*).

H4d. Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment (*accepted*), employees' performance (*rejected*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*rejected*) such that the negative relationship will be

weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

H6a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intention, such that the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization). (*Rejected*).

H6b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance, as well as employees' in role behavior, such that the negative relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization). (*Rejected*).

5.11.4 Summary of Results for Pakistani Sample

In preceding section of this chapter, we have presented the study results by performing several statistical analyses to test study hypotheses (see table 5.30). CFA was performed to examine the fit of a measurement model for each sample separately. However, some items were deleted during the CFA to stabilize the model the detail of deleted items can be viewed in their respective sections. Convergent and discriminant validities were also checked and reported in their respective sections.

We also performed measurement invariance for testing equivalency across two countries, although we found configural invariance, yet we could not have achieved metric invariance. However, using hierarchical regression we test our study hypotheses, where we found that organizational justice was positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees in role behavior whereas negatively related to job burnout and turnover intention. However, the effort-reward imbalance was positively related to job burnout and turnover intentions whereas, negatively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance, and employees in role behavior. In Pakistani sample, equity sensitivity has played more important role in influencing the relationship between organizational justice and stress outcomes as compared to personal human values (self-enhancement). On the other hand, we found less evidence of both moderating variables between effort-reward imbalance and stress outcomes.

Table 5.30: Summary of Hypotheses Testing for Pakistani Sample

Main and Interactions Effects	Work Outcomes (Stress Indicators)				
	Job-Burnout	Turnover Intention	Organizational Commitment	Employees' Performance	Employee in Role Behavior
Hypothesis 1 Organizational Justice	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Hypothesis 2 Effort-Reward Imbalance	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Hypothesis 3(a, b) Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	✓	×	✓	×	✓
Hypothesis 3 (c, d) Organizational Justice × Self-Transcendence	✓	×	✓	×	×
Hypothesis 4(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	✓	×	✓	×	×
Hypothesis 4(c, d) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Transcendence	×	×	✓	×	×
Hypothesis 5(a, b) Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	×	✓	✓	✓	✓
Hypothesis 6(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	×	×	×	×	×

5.12 Results of Data Analysis (French Sample)

5.12.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 5.31, revealed Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all the variables in the French sample. To examine the possible effects of control variables, we conducted the correlation matrix test, as displayed in table 5.31. The results of bi-variate correlations revealed

that year of education was negatively related to JBO ($r = -.19, \rho < .01$) as well as job experience was negatively related to JBO ($r = -.13, \rho < .05$ respectively). Job experience was also positively related to OC ($r = .14, \rho < .05$), however, gender, age and marital status, were unrelated to our dependent variables in French sample (see table 5.31 given below). Distributive justice, procedural, interpersonal, informational and overall organizational justice were negatively related to JBO ($r = -.31, \rho < .001; r = -.22, \rho < .001, r = -.29, \rho < .001, r = -.27, \rho < .001, r = -.34, \rho < .001$) and TOI ($r = -.31, \rho < 0.00; r = -.24, \rho < .001, r = -.21, \rho < .001, r = -.28, \rho < .001, r = -.32, \rho < .001$) whereas, ERI showed a positive association with JBO, and TOI ($r = .36, \rho < .001; r = .34, \rho < .001$). Similarly, Distributive justice, procedural, interpersonal, informational and overall organization justice were positively related to OC ($r = .32, \rho < .001; r = .19, \rho < .001, r = .26, \rho < .001, r = .28, \rho < .001, r = .32, \rho < .001$), EMPS ($r = .26, \rho < .001; r = .25, \rho < .001, r = .26, \rho < .001, r = .31, \rho < .001, r = .34, \rho < .001$) and EIRB ($r = .25, \rho < .001; r = .26, \rho < .001, r = .31, \rho < .001, r = .26, \rho < .001, r = .33, \rho < .001$) whereas, ERI revealed a negative association with OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($r = -.29, \rho < .001; r = -.32, \rho < .001, r = -.26, \rho < .001$). We also identified that self-enhancement is positively related to JBO and TOI ($r = .32, \rho < .001, r = .35, \rho < .001$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($r = -.27, \rho < 0.00; r = -.34, \rho < .001, r = -.17, \rho < .001$). Self-transcendence was negatively related to the JBO, and TOI ($r = -.23, \rho < .001, r = -.22, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to the OC, EMPS, EIRB ($r = .31, \rho < .001, r = .26, \rho < .001, r = .16, \rho < .001$). Similarly, equity sensitivity is positively related to JBO, and TOI ($r = .29, \rho < .001, r = .25, \rho < .001$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, EIRB ($r = -.18, \rho < .001; r = -.29, \rho < .001, r = -.38, \rho < .001$).

5.12.2 Results of Hypothesis Tests

As with the sample in study 1 (Pakistani sample), we tested our hypotheses with six separate hierarchical regression analysis (see Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). in which JBO and five submissions were predicted by demographic control variables (gender, education, marital status, organizational tenure, and age) in step 1. We entered the main effect of distributive justice in step 2. We entered all moderating variables in step 3 and finally, entered the interaction between distributive justice and three moderating variables (self-enhancement, self-transcendence, and equity sensitivity) on JBO, OC, EMPS, EIRB, and TOI in Step 4 (mean centered the moderators before computing the product terms; Cohen et al., 2003; Whisman & McClelland, 2005).

5.12.3 Hierarchical Regression Result

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to estimate the linear and nonlinear relationships between predictors and stress outcomes (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & ERIB). In step 1 we entered demographic variables as (experience, age, gender, education and marital status) where we found job experience was positively related JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .05$) and year of education was negatively related JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.17, \rho < .01$). Year of education was also positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .12, \rho < .05$) however, we did not find support for other demographic variables. We entered distributive justice in the second step and the results of hierarchical regression reported in table 9 (annexure F2; pg-320) indicate that the distributive justice predicted all five work outcomes variables (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & EIRB).

* *

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Table 5.31: Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of Study Variable of French Sample

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
1. Experience	7.9	8.4	—																				
2. Gender	.35	.48	.07	—																			
3. Education	2.8	.90	.03	.00	—																		
4. Age	36.10	4.86**	.02	-.01	—																		
5. Marital Status	1.7	.42	.03	-.04	-.16**	.01	—																
6. Distributive Justice	6.5	.95	-.07	.05	-.07	-.08	.09	(.89)															
7. Procedural Justice	6.1	.93	.01	-.04	.14*	.03	.02	.42**	(.84)														
8. Interpersonal Justice	6.2	1.0	-.03	.02	-.07	.03	.08	.56**	.47**	(.82)													
9. Informational Justice	6.3	1.1	.02	.04	.05	.03	-.01	.58**	.54**	.63**	(.88)												
10. Organizational Justice	4.9	.64	-.02	.02	.02	.01	.05	.79**	.74**	.83**	.86**	(.86)											
11. Employees' Effort	1.8	1.1	-.07	-.02	.01	-.07	-.02	-.33**	-.36**	-.43**	-.40**	-.47**	(.83)										
12. Organizational Reward	6.2	1.2	.10	.07	-.02	.09	.00	.28**	.24**	.34**	.30**	.36**	-.58**	(.88)									
13. Effort -Reward (Ratio)	.41	.77	-.11	-.08	.00	-.11*	-.01	-.30**	-.28**	-.38**	-.35**	-.40**	.85**	-.82**	N.A								
14. Job Burnout	2.3	1.5	-.19**	-.04	-.13	-.08	-.04	-.31**	-.22**	-.29**	-.27**	-.34**	.30**	-.28**	.36**	(.88)							
15. Organizational Commitment	5.7	1.7	.14*	-.01	-.01	.07	.06	.32**	.19**	.26**	.28**	.32**	-.24**	.25**	-.29**	-.81**	(.88)						
16. Employees' Performance	5.8	1.6	.05	.02	-.03	.06	-.06	.26**	.25**	.26**	.31**	.34**	-.24**	.49**	-.32**	-.44**	.35**	(.83)					
17. Employees in Role Behavior	5.6	1.7	.01	-.04	-.06	.02	.02	.25**	.26**	.31**	.26**	.33**	-.27**	.23**	-.26**	-.63**	.61**	.39**	(.87)				
18. Turnover Intention	2.5	1.7	-.03	.01	.03	-.04	.08	-.31**	-.24**	-.21**	-.28**	-.32**	.24**	-.48**	.34**	.52**	-.40**	-.69**	-.35**	(.90)			
19. Self-Enhancement	2.2	1.3	-.09	-.10	-.01	-.10	.05	-.09	-.14*	-.21**	-.16**	-.19**	.36**	-.32**	.42**	.32**	-.27**	-.34**	-.17**	.35**	(.93)		
20. Self-Transcendence	5.7	1.5	.09	.07	.05	.11*	-.04	.03	.15**	.14*	.18**	.16**	-.26**	.21**	-.28**	-.23**	.31**	.26**	.16**	-.22**	-.64**	(.91)	
21. Equity Sensitivity	2.3	1.4	-.02	-.07	.07	-.03	.08	-.12*	-.14*	-.20**	-.14*	-.19**	.34**	-.24**	.36**	.29**	-.18**	-.29**	-.38**	.25**	.60**	-.44**	(.88)

Note: N = 241. Alpha reliabilities are presented in bold and on the main diagonal. All the values are reported in two decimal. One-tailed correlations are significant at *p < .05. **p < .01.

As hypothesized, in second step of a multilevel analysis testing main effects found distributive justice to be negatively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.30, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to OC, EMPS, and ERIB ($\beta_{oc} = .32, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .27, \rho < .001$). These results support our study Hypotheses see table 9 (annexure F-2; pg-326). Table 9 (step 3) indicates the main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity on five work outcomes.

For Self-enhancement regression analysis showed positive and significant main effects for JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .20, \rho < .01$) and TOI ($\beta_{toi} = .30, \rho < .001$) whereas negatively related to EMPS ($\beta_{emps} = -.21, \rho < .05$). Self-transcendence was positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .25, \rho < .01$). Similarly, equity was negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.41, \rho < .001$) and positively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .12, \rho < .05$). In step 4, we added multiplicative composites of distributive justice and self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity (DJ \times SEN; DJ \times SET; DJ \times ES). Hierarchical multiple regression showed (see table 9) that Self-transcendence moderated the relationship between distributive justice and OC ($\beta = .13, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .08, \rho < .001$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between distributive justice and JBO ($\beta = .30, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .07, \rho < .001$).

Table 10 (annexure F2; pg-320) showed the main effects of procedural justice on all five outcome variables (JBO, OC, EMPS, EIRB, & TOI). As expected procedural justice was negatively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.22, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.24, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .19, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .26, \rho < .001$). The main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity on five work outcomes showed in table 10. Results showed that self-enhancement was negatively related to EMPS ($\beta_{emps} = -.22, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .21, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = .31, \rho < .001$).

Self-transcendence was positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .22, \rho < .05$). Equity sensitivity was negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.40, \rho < .001$) and positively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .13, \rho < .05$). Table 10 also shown multiplicative composites of procedural justice and self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity (PJ \times SEN; PJ \times SET; PJ \times ES). HMR results have shown that only equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between procedural justice and JBO ($\beta = .27, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$).

Table 11 (annexure F-2; pg-326) reported the main effects of interpersonal justice on five outcome variables. Regression results showed that interpersonal justice was negatively

related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.29, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.21, \rho < .01$) and positively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .31, \rho < .001$). Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also reported in table 11, where we found self enhancement was negative related to EMPS and EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.20, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.16, \rho < .05$) whereas positively related to JBO and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .18, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .30, \rho < .001$). Self-transcendence showed positive impact only on OC ($\beta_{oc} = .24, \rho < .05$). Similarly, equity sensitivity was only negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.40, \rho < .001$). Table 11 also exhibited that Self-enhancement moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice and EMPS ($\beta = -.40, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .01$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice and EIRB ($\beta = -.28, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$).

Table 12 (annexure F2; pg-320) demonstrated main effects of informational justice on work outcomes, where we found that informational justice is negatively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.27, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.28, \rho < .001$) and positively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .28, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .26, \rho < .001$). Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also exhibited in table 12. Self enhancement was negatively related to EMPS ($\beta_{emps} = -.21, \rho < .05$) whereas positively related to JBO and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .20, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .31, \rho < .01$).

Self-transcendence was positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .21, \rho < .001$). Equity sensitivity was positively related to JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .13, \rho < .05$) and negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.42, \rho < .001$). Further, table 12 showed moderating results of self enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity. Self-enhancement moderated the relationship between informational justice and EMPS ($\beta = -.28, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .05, \rho < .001$). Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between informational justice and JBO ($\beta = .31, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$) and EIRB ($\beta = -.26, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .01$).

Overall Organizational Justice: To test an over-all justice impact on stress outcome, we again performed HMR as shown in table 13 (annexure F-2; pg-326). Hierarchical multiple regression exhibited that organizational justice is negatively and significantly related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.34, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.32, \rho < .001$) whereas positively and significantly related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .32, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .34, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 1 as:

H1: Organizational justice is negatively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas positively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance, employees' in role behavior. *(Accepted)*.

The main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also reported in table 13 where we found self-enhancement was negatively related to EMPS and EIRB ($\beta_{\text{emps}} = -.20, p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{eirb}} = -.14, p < .05$) and positively related JBO and TOI ($\beta_{\text{jbo}} = .19, p < .05$; $\beta_{\text{toi}} = .29, p < .01$). Self-transcendence showed a positive association with OC ($\beta_{\text{oc}} = .22, p < .01$). On the other hand, equity sensitivity showed positive association with JBO ($\beta_{\text{jbo}} = .18, p < .05$) as well as positive association with TOI ($\beta_{\text{toi}} = .28, p < .001$) whereas negatively related to OC and EIRB ($\beta_{\text{oc}} = -.17, p < .05$; $\beta_{\text{eirb}} = -.40, p < .001$).

Moreover, hierarchical multiple regression showed self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity moderate the relationship between organizational justice and stress outcomes. As shown in table 13 Self-enhancement moderated the relationship between OJ and JBO ($\beta = .14, p < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .12, p < .001$). Self-transcendence moderated the relationship between OJ and OC ($\beta = .25, p < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .11, p < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 3a-d as:

H3a: The negative relationship between organizational justice and job-burnout *(accepted)* as well as turnover intentions *(rejected)* will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

H3b: The positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values. *(Rejected)*.

H3c: The negative relationship between organizational justice and job-burnout *(rejected)* as well as turnover intentions *(rejected)* will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

H3d. The positive relationship between organizational justice and organizational commitment *(accepted)*, employees' performance *(rejected)* as well as employees' in role behavior *(rejected)* will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values.

Equity sensitivity moderated the relationship between OJ and EIRB ($\beta = -.32, \rho < .05; \Delta R^2 = .09, \rho < .001$), OJ and OC ($\beta = -.51, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .11, \rho < .001$), OJ and JBO ($\beta = .21, \rho < .01; \Delta R^2 = .12, \rho < .001$) as well as between OJ and TOI ($\beta = .26, \rho < .01; \Delta R^2 = .08, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 5a-b as:

H5a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational justice on job-burnout (*accepted*) as well as turnover intention (*accepted*), such that the effects of organizational justice will be more negative for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

H5b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of organizational justice on organizational commitment (*accepted*), employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior (*accepted*), such that the effects of organizational justice will be more positive for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization).

Effort-Reward Imbalance: Main effects of effort-reward imbalance (ERI) were shown in table 14 (annexure-F-2; pg-326). ERI was positively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .36, \rho < .001; \beta_{toi} = .34, \rho < .001$) and negatively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = -.29, \rho < .001; \beta_{emps} = -.26, \rho < .001; \beta_{eirb} = -.32, \rho < .001$). These results support our study hypothesis 2 as:

H2: Effort-reward imbalance is positively related to job-burnout and turnover intention whereas negatively related to organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees' in role behavior. (*Accepted*).

Main effects of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity were also depicted in table 14. Hierarchical multiple regression revealed that self enhancement was negatively related to EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.18, \rho < .05; \beta_{eirb} = -.16, \rho < .05$) and positively related to JBO, and TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .28, \rho < .01; \beta_{toi} = .24, \rho < .01$). Self-transcendence was positively related to OC ($\beta_{oc} = .24, \rho < .01$). Equity sensitivity was negatively related to EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.38, \rho < .001$).

To test the possible interaction of self-enhancement, self-transcendence and equity sensitivity and ERI we analyzed multiple moderated regression where we found self-enhancement moderated the relationship between ERI and EMPS ($\beta = -.31, \rho < .01; \Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .05$) as well as ERI and JBO ($\beta = .14, \rho < .05; \Delta R^2 = .02, \rho < .05$). These results support our study hypothesis 4a-b as:

H4a: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout (*accepted*) as well as turnover intentions (*rejected*) such that the positive relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

H4b: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment (*rejected*), employees' performance (*accepted*) as well as employees' in role behavior (*rejected*) such that the negative relationship will be stronger for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-enhancement values.

We did not find moderating effects of self-transcendence as well as equity sensitivity between ERI and stress outcomes. These results support our study hypothesis 4c-d as well as 6a-b as:

H4c: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intentions such that the positive relationship will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values. (*Rejected*).

H4d: Personal human values will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance as well as employees' in role behavior such that the negative relationship will be weaker for those individuals who ascribe relatively more importance to self-transcendence values. (*Rejected*).

H6a: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on job-burnout as well as turnover intention, such that the positive relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to the organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization). (*Rejected*).

H6b: Equity sensitivity will moderate the impact of effort-reward imbalance on organizational commitment, employees' performance, as well as employees' in role behavior, such that the negative relationship will be weaker for individuals at high levels of equity sensitivity (give to organization) than for low levels of equity sensitivity (get from the organization). (*Rejected*).

In this section we only graphed selected interaction effects (SEN×ERI on JBO) as shown in Figure 5.14, all the other interactions plot are provided at in annexure part of this dissertation (see Fig 5.26-33, annexure-G2; pg-332).

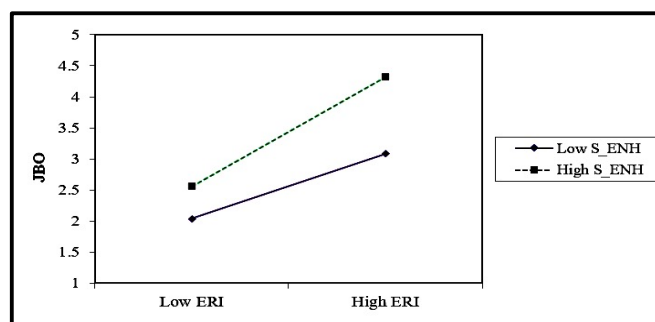


Figure 5.14: The interactive effects of effort-reward imbalance and self-enhancement on job-burnout

5.12.4 Summary of Results for French Sample

Table 5.32 summarizes the results of hypothesis tests on the relationships between unfairness (organizational justice & effort-reward imbalance) and stress outcomes. We found that both organizational justice and effort-reward are significantly relating to jobs burnout, turnover intentions, organizational commitment, employees' performance and employees in role behavior in both samples. Moreover, in Pakistani sample organizational justice has shown a stronger relationship with stress outcomes, however, effort-reward imbalance had shown the weaker impact on stress outcomes. On the other hand, in French sample, the effort-reward imbalance has strongly impacted to negative outcomes (job-burnout, & turnover intention) as compared to organizational justice approach. In addition, our moderating our moderating variables have significantly played an important role in justice and influence the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables in both samples. Lastly, we did not find

the stronger moderating role of personal human values and equity sensitivity between effort-reward imbalance and stress outcomes in both samples.

Table 5.32: Summary of Hypotheses Testing for French Sample

Main and Interactions Effects	Work Outcomes (Stress Indicators)				
	Job-Burnout	Turnover Intention	Organizational Commitment	Employees' Performance	Employee in Role Behavior
Hypothesis 1 Organizational Justice	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 2 Effort- Reward Imbalance	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 3 (a, b) Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	√	×	×	×	×
Hypothesis 3 (c, d) Organizational Justice × Self-Transcendence	×	×	√	×	×
Hypothesis 4(a, b) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	√	×	×	√	×
Hypothesis 4(c, d) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Transcendence	×	×	×	×	×
Hypothesis 5(a, b) Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	√	√	√	×	√
Hypothesis 6(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	×	×	×	×	×

5.12.5 Comparison between OJ and ERI

Since the main purpose of this research was to comparing two competing approaches for that purpose we considered β coefficients and values of R^2 for each model to explore which wins out (has the stronger effect). We further calculated the effect size (F-squared: Aiken & West, 1991; Cohen, 1988; Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005) which effects size was larger (see table 5.34-35) for both samples. We the Cohen's conventional definitions are used pervasively, particularly in literature reviews of statistical power (e.g., Mazen, Graf, Kellogg, & Hemmasi,

1987; Mazen, Hemmasi, & Lewis, 1987; Brock, 2003;). As noted below, table 5.33-34 showed that the R^2 of the Multiple Regression test to detect what is conventionally defined as a small effect (i.e., $f^2 = .02$) is .84, medium effect (i.e., $f^2 = .15$) is approximately .98, and a large effect (i.e., $f^2 = .35$) is 1.0.

Table 5.33: Multiple R^2 Thresholds Levels Effect Sizes

Size of effect	F-Squared (f^2)
None	< .02
Small	0.02
medium	0.15
Large	0.35

(c.f. Cohen, 1988; Aiken & West, 1991; Hermans, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005)

Table 5.34: Comparing Two Approaches OJ versus ERI (Pakistani sample)

Variables	Organizational Justice		Effort-Reward Imbalance		Observed effect size	
	β	R^2	β	R^2	(f^2)	Effect Size
Job-Burnout	-.320***	.110***	.250***	.073***	.0416	Small
Turnover Intention	-.270***	.081***	.201**	.050***	.0337	Small
Organizational Commitment	.312***	.098***	-.290***	.091***	.008	None
Employees' Performance	.313***	.109***	-.201***	.056***	.0509	Small
Employees in Role Behavior	.331***	.112***	-.250**	.064***	.0541	Small

Several scholars (e.g., Aiken & West, 1991) have echoed Cohen's (1988) conventional definitions of small, medium, and large effect sizes. Cohen (1988) has recommended that F-squared (f^2), effect sizes and labeled them small (.02), medium (.15), and large (.35) respectively. Cohen (1988) and Cohen et al., (2003) has further cautioned that it is required to be considered that even effect size labeled small can have significant practical and theoretical importance. However, Cohen's conventional definitions are used extensively, specifically, in literature reviews of statistical power (e.g., Mazen et al., 1987; Brock, 2003; Aguinis et al., 2005). Accordingly, this research followed the recommendations of Cohen and colleagues and calculated to f^2 to see the which effect size is larger. Since this research included two

moderating variables personal human values and equity sensitivity, therefore, we also have provided an overall comparison of both samples (see table 5.36-37).

Table 5.35: Comparing Two Approaches OJ versus ERI (French sample)

Variables	Organizational Justice		Effort-Reward Imbalance		Observed effect size	
	β	R^2	β	R^2	(f^2)	Effect Size
Job-Burnout	-.340***	.110***	.360***	.13***	.0230	Small
Turnover Intention	-.320***	.101***	.340***	.123***	.0251	Small
Organizational Commitment	.320***	.102***	-.290***	.080***	.0245	Small
Employees' Performance	.310***	.110***	-.260***	.070***	.041	Small
Employees in Role Behavior	.340***	.120***	-.32***	.100***	.0227	Small

Table 5.36: Comparing OJ versus ERI Approach with Moderators (Pakistani sample)

Stress Indicators	Overall Organizational Justice						Effort-Reward Imbalance (Ratio)					
	SEN		SET		ES		SEN		SET		ES	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Job Burnout	.19***	.05***	-.14**	.05***	-	-	.10*	.02*	-	-	-	-
Turnover Intention	-	-	-	-	.27***	.06***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Organizational Commitment	-.20**	.04***	.13*	.04***	-.10*	.04***	-.21***	.02*	.17**	.02*	-	-
Employees Performance	-	-	-	-	-.18***	.03***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employees in Role Behavior	-.11**	.06***	-	-	-.24***	.06***	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. SEN = Self-enhancement, SET = Self transcendence, ES = Equity sensitivity

* *

*

Table 5.37: Comparing OJ versus ERI Approach with Moderators (French Sample)

Stress Indicators	Overall Organizational Justice						Effort-Reward Imbalance (Ratio)					
	SEN		SET		ES		SEN		SET		ES	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Job Burnout	.14*	.12***	-	-	.21**	.12***	.14*	.02*	-	-	-	-
Turnover Intention	-	-	-	-	.26**	.08***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Organizational Commitment	-	-	.25**	.11***	-.49***	.11***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employees Performance	-	-	-	-	-	-	.31**	.04*	-	-	-	-
Employees in Role Behavior	-	-	-	-	-.32*	.09***	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. SEN = Self-enhancement, SET = Self transcendence, ES = Equity sensitivity

6

Discussion of Results

This research has aimed at increasing the understanding the relationship between unfairness (as a stressor) and its consequences (stress outcomes) as outlined by the two competing approaches organizational justice (OJ) and effort-reward imbalance (ERI). To understand variations and generalizability of fairness perceptions of these approaches across different samples, we investigated the relationship between unfairness (as a stressor) and stress outcomes in two studies in Pakistan and France. We examined the impact of unfairness at the workplace and its impact on job-burnout (JBO), turnover intention (TOI), organizational commitment (OC), employees' performance (EMPS), and employees in role behavior (EIRB). Further, the concepts of fairness perceptions are known to vary depending upon individuals' personal and cultural preferences (Farh et al., 1997; Corner, 2003; Cohen, 2015). Accordingly, we examined the employees' fairness perceptions and their responses in the presence of the two potential moderators: personal human values (self-enhancement & self-transcendence) and equity sensitivity. This section also presents some similarities and differences between two competing approaches (OJ & ERI).

Based on empirical results we discuss that justice approach has shown stronger predictive strength in Pakistani sample whereas effort-reward imbalance found more important for negative outcomes in French sample. Finally, we contribute to the fairness literature, however, research limitations, implications for managerial practices as well as suggestions for future research are discussed in separate section.

6.1 General Findings

The present research, exhibited for the two studies attempted to investigate the stressor and strain relationship. It is, however, scholars have considered unfair perceptions as a source of psychological stress that can affect the individuals' health and well-being (Elovainio, Heponiemi, Sinervo, Magnavita, 2010; Herr et al., 2015;). Both conceptual approaches at workplace played a role as a stressor (unfairness) that has a significant impact on varieties of employees' work outcomes (Elovainio, Kivimaki & Vahtera, 2002; Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin 2007; Chory, Horan, & Houser, 2017).

We also found, as expected that individuals' differences factors such as personal human values (self-enhancement & self-transcendence) and individuals' equity sensitivity influence the individuals' perceptions of unfair treatment for both approaches in shaping individuals and organizational outcomes. Since several research frameworks explain the stressor-strain relationships, however, stress occurs when an individual perceives that the demand of external environment is beyond his perceived ability to cope with those demands.

Our study results also support the past studies that stressful work conditions generate the negative emotions leading deleterious effects on organizational members (Colquitt, et al., 2001; Dijke et al., 2015; Gonzalez- Mulé & Cockburn, 2017). This research contributes to the idea that lack of equilibrium between high work demands and less coping resources lead to a significant cost in terms of sickness, lost time, energy and low productivity. In this research, unfairness was considered as an environmental demand (stressor) leading negative work outcome (strain). However, we also found that individual differences had significant moderating effects on our study outcomes. Consistent with the application of dominant stress frameworks we hypothesized that individual differences (personal human values & equity sensitivity) will moderate the effects of unfairness on stress outcomes. In particular, the relationship between unfairness and outcome will be stronger for those who are at high level of equity sensitivity than those who ascribe low at low levels of equity sensitivity.

Stress frameworks may also help to explain why we found moderating effects of personal human values and individuals' equity sensitivity between unfair perceptions and outcomes variables. In addition, Schwartz's (1992) human values framework was used to examine the moderating role of employees' personal values on the effects of unfairness and outcomes. More specifically, joint moderating effects of personal human values and equity sensitivity are discussed. Finally, based on study findings we have discussed the comparison of two competing approaches (OJ & ERI), suggesting which approach shows greater predictive power in examining stress outcomes.

6.2 Main Effects of Organizational Justice

The preliminary results of this research demonstrate that for study 1 (Pakistani sample) all four dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interpersonal and informational justice) showed a negative and significant association with JBO and TOI whereas positively related to OC, EMPS, and EIRB (see table 3-6, annexure F-1, pg-320). Similar results were found for French sample with little variations accordingly these results confirmed the robustness of study 1 and the generalizability of justice construct in both studies (see table 9-12, annexure F-2, pg-326). Significant relationships between organizational justice and outcomes appeared in both Pakistani and French samples, demonstrating that the underlying processes by which organizational justice and reactions are linked might be similar. In other words, no significant variations were observed in the magnitude of coefficients when compared these samples, however, the tendency of perceived fairness among employees in both samples showed little variations.

As the scholars have suggested that culture can play an important role to understand the organizational justice (Thomas Au, & Ravlin, 2003; Corner, 2003; Cohen, 2015). Therefore, based on our study results we argue that perhaps the reason behind little variations are due to differences in both cultures. For instance, the first reason may probably occur that, we had not achieved invariance between two samples (see chapter 5 measurement invariance), it shows that respondents from both countries do not perceive fairness in the same way. Although our study results confirm the generalizability of justice construct in both countries, but the variations in propensity of perceived fairness is due to differences in organization's values, norms, beliefs and work environment in two countries (e.g., Hofstede, 1983; Alston, 1989). Thus, these variations may do not affect the directions of the relationship between

independent and dependent variables. The similar findings appeared in a recent study by Hameed, Roques, and Ali (2013) who found the same determinants for organizational identification in Pakistani sample and in Western countries, but not with the same intensity.

These findings support the past research conducted to explain the fairness at work and its influence on employees' outcomes (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Moorman, 1991; Mcfarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Loi, Hang-yue, & Foley, 2006; van Dijke et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2015; Herr, 2015). Although we have analyzed and discussed our preliminary results in this section, yet, these results may not be considered as the reflections of our study expectations because we have offered our study hypotheses based on second order to test an overall organizational justice.

6.2.1 Main Effects of Overall OJ and ERI

Since, one of the major goals of this research was to offer a comparison between two competing approaches OJ and ERI, for the said reason this study remained focused on overall organizational justice instead of four dimensions. In addition, lately, a recent shift can be seen towards examining an overall organizational justice perception (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Cohen, 2013; Eib et al., 2015). For example, scholar have suggested that an overall organizational justice covers the full range of the individual facet of the fairness perceptions, even establishes a more parsimonious and true representation of employees' experiences of fairness at workplace, accounts for variance outside the separate dimensions, and uses a more proximal effect on variety of outcomes (Lind, 2001a; Ambrose & Schminke, 2009). Accordingly, five outcome variables were exclusively regressed on overall organizational justice in both samples.

Pakistani Sample: In study 1, *organizational justice* perception were positively related to organizational commitment ($\beta = .31, p < .001$), employees' performance ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) and employees' in role behavior ($\beta = .33, p < .001$), whereas negatively related to job-burnout ($\beta = -.32, p < .001$) and turnover intention ($\beta = -.27, p < .001$). Results from cross-sectional data of this study revealed that *effort-reward imbalance* has positive and significant relationship with job burnout ($\beta = .25, p < .001$) and turnover intention ($\beta = .20, p < .001$), whereas negatively related to organizational commitment ($\beta = -.29, p < .001$), employees' performance ($\beta = -.20, p < .001$) and employee's in role behavior ($\beta = -.25, p < .001$) in Pakistani sample. These results were in the same direction as expected to our study *hypotheses 1 and 2*

for Pakistani sample. The relationship between stressors (unfairness) and strain (outcomes of stress) can also be explained using the framework of COR theory. COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll & Shirom, 2000), is quite compatible with these findings that individuals who perceive unfairness or lack of reciprocity between their efforts contributed towards organization and rewards received are more likely to experience job-burnout, intention to quit, whereas, exhibit low commitment and performance at work. However, according to COR theory, stressful events (unfairness at work) lead to resource losses, for instance, unfairness in terms of high efforts and low rewards: lack of reciprocity at the workplace can drain the individual's energy, need more efforts to handle with, and divert their attentions from their actual job responsibilities. However, such situations require additional resource consumption that might prevent further resource loss. Consequently, in the process of protecting or regaining the lost resources (due to unfairness), individuals might need to spend further resources that lead to increased JBO, TOI and decreases OC as well as their performance.

Comparison of Organizational Justice and Effort-Reward Imbalance (Pakistan). Our study results suggest that organizational justice and effort-reward imbalance independently predicted five stress outcomes included in this study. More precisely, our study findings suggest that in Pakistani sample, organizational justice played an important and almost identical role in examining JBO, OC, EMPS and EIRB with very little variations. Generally, our study results were also consistent with a host of past studies (Greenberg, 1987; Moorman et al., 1993; Colquitt et al., 2001; Tremblay & Roussel, 2001; Ylipaavalniemi et al., 2005; Barclay et al., 2005; Derycke et al., 2010; Robbins, Ford, Tetrick, 2012; van Dijke et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2014).

Surprisingly, OJ played less role in predicting ***turnover intention***. Perhaps the reason behind less role played by OJ is due to employment context as provided in chapter 4. Further, according to the world bank, the estimated unemployment rate in Pakistan for fiscal year 2014/2015 is 8.6%. Although employees are concerned with fairness perceptions yet, they have fewer intentions to leave because of better alternatives or limited job opportunities are available in the job market. These findings are quite in line with the arguments of Siegrist (2016) who stated that sociocultural conditions such as no alternative jobs opportunities, heavy job competition, and high commitment to the work assignments, may have an impact on employees' intentions to stay. In case there is high rate of unemployment, employees may become less sensitive in perceiving fairness at work, because it is the cost to leave, rather how

they are treated by the organizations' authorities. Therefore, we presume due to the scarcity of jobs, employees will stay with the organization and has low intentions to leave the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Siegrist, 2016).

Comparing fairness approaches OJ and ERI within Pakistani sample, overall, the ERI has shown mixed results in examining stress outcomes than justice approach. Although we found that ERI within Pakistani sample significantly predicted all five outcome variables, yet, based on statistical inferences (see chapter table 5.34; pg-201) we discuss that the relationships with dependent variables for justice approach have shown stronger links in examining stress outcome than ERI approach.

Similar to existing research, we argue that management practices and culture influence the importance of the event fairness (Silva & Caetano, 2016). Likewise, differences in culture “not just differences in values; they were most strikingly differences in the theories of being and reality.” (Markus & Kitayama, 2003). Perhaps the reason behind the less predictive power of ERI is due to the influence of cultural context. One of the possible reasons is, that the OJ approach already encompasses an individual's appraisal (independent) from cultural positions, on the other hand, the ERI-ratio approach doesn't contain the same features of individual's evaluations (less judgmental) and therefore, may be the same score on the ratio doesn't lead to the similar strain responses across cultures. In collective societies, individuals' preferences have established through socialization concerning to their role in society. However, an important tie that leads to the formation of employees' attitudes or behaviors not only depends on lack of reciprocity but also draw from the interpersonal relationships with authorities. Therefore, may be the reason behind variations in results is due to Pakistani respondents, shape their fairness perceptions through the formation of an interpersonal relationship with their authorities. Moreover, based on social exchange rules and the customs of reciprocity, the fairness of relationships between employee and employer exchanges fostered by a reciprocal exchange of positive behaviors between managers and subordinates (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003).

As briefly discussed above, employees who perceive that their managers interact with all employees on the equal basis, they possibly perform at higher level of their capacities to contribute towards organization and have fewer intentions to quit. Undoubtedly, organizational fairness denotes different meanings in different societies and similarly, organizational members have different orientations to fix, what is fair or unfair and reactions to these

perceptions (Silva & Caetano, 2016). Moreover, scholars have argued that the role of cultural differences in decision-making processes and choice of behavior, depends on their specific cultural orientations, the personal preferences of individuals for situational characteristics is linked with their exchange relationship with their employers may vary. Accordingly, we expect that contextual variabilities may alter the effect of specific situational characteristics (Thomas et al., 2003). Since past research demonstrated that interactional fairness is influenced by collectivist society (Silva & Caetano, 2016). For example, Tata, Fu, and Wu (2003) have examined that social preferences in the context of performance appraisal, however, social preference had a larger effect on overall fairness in a collectivist culture. Perhaps the reason behind the less predictive power of ERI in examining stress outcome is due to exclusion of relational component.

As the term ERI describes the transaction of individuals' efforts contributed towards organization and rewards received from the organization consequently, the individuals exhibit less involvement, they focus on specific short-term monetary goals. Effort-reward imbalance itself may be more appropriate for transactional affairs, and not mainly descriptive of interpersonal exchanges. On the other hand, a greater predictive power of OJ approach than ERI indicates that might be its relational components. As relational components focus long term, socio-emotional duties, such as commitment and trustworthiness, consistent with shared goals (McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994), and have a widespread consequence on individuals' personal and work life. Accordingly, we argue that Pakistan being a collectivist country, individuals put more emphasis on the importance of favorable interpersonal interactions. Thus, perceptions of unfair managerial treatment are assumed to reduce controllability and trust among employees. These results support the findings of Erdogan and Liden (2006), who suggested that collectivist employees' put more emphasis on interactional fairness than fairness in the distribution of rewards.

Another reason possible may be related to an important component of collectivist society is the sixth dimension of Hofstede (2010, 2011) cultural dimension is labeled indulgence: "*relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun. Restraint stands for a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms*", which was added in his recently published book in 2010. The Pakistani cultural context exhibits the prevalence of collectivism, with very low rank "0" on this dimension and therefore, called a very restraint society. Individuals with

a low score of indulgence are expected to not focus on leisure time and have strong control on their desires. Therefore, individuals' actions with these orientations are likely to be restrained by their respective norms. Accordingly, individuals with low indulgence shape their fair or unfair perceptions based on their social norms restrained by a specific group. Individuals do not place more emphasis whether the event is fair or unfair, yet they have to follow the defined standards of a certain group to whom they are associated to shape their fairness perceptions. Indeed, these orientations serve not only as behavioral cues but also as a signal for shaping the individual's outcomes in response to the unfair perceptions.

French Sample: In study 2 we also found **OJ** was significantly associated with five outcome variables (stress indicators). More precisely, organizational justice was negatively influenced to job-burnout ($\beta = -.34, \rho < .001$) and turnover intention ($\beta = -.32, \rho < .001$) whereas positively related to organizational commitment ($\beta = .32, \rho < .001$), employees' performance ($\beta = .31, \rho < .001$) and employees' in role behavior ($\beta = .34, \rho < .001$). These results were in line with our expectations of study **hypothesis 1** as well as study's results 2 also confirmed the findings of study1. On the other hand, in French sample, **ERI** significantly predicted the five stress outcomes. More precisely, the results exhibited that ERI was positively related to job-burnout ($\beta = .36, \rho < .001$) and turnover intention ($\beta = .34, \rho < .001$) whereas negatively related to organizational commitment ($\beta = -.29, \rho < .001$), employees' performance ($\beta = -.26, \rho < .001$) and employees in role behavior ($\beta = -.32, \rho < .001$). The statistical analysis produced the similar results in expected directions of our study **hypotheses 2** in both samples.

Comparison of Organizational Justice and Effort-Reward Imbalance (French). In French sample, we found organizational justice played a more important role for **JBO** and **EMPS**, however, partial variations appeared for OC, TOI, and EIRB. These results suggest that French respondents equally concern for unfair perceptions and react accordingly. On the other hand, ERI in our French sample produced some striking results when we compared it to with the results of Pakistani sample (see chapter 5 table 5.35; pg-202). In French sample, ERI has played a stronger role in influencing negative outcomes such as JBO and TOI than OJ approach. These findings support the notion that ERI approach (Siegrist, 1996) has strong predictive power in examining stress outcomes (Ostry et al., 2003).

These findings suggest that employees who perceive a lack of reciprocity between their efforts and their rewards are more likely to negative behaviors such as poor mental and health conditions (Wada, Sakata, Theriault, Aratake, Shimizu, Tsutsumi, & Aizawa, 2008).

Employees' unfair perceptions induce the feelings of uncertainty at workplace, where allocation of rewards may be based on favoritism may change from one day to the next, therefore, in an unpredictable environment individuals remain less confident because efforts will not return their rewards (Cropanzano et al., 1997; Vermunt & Steensma, 2005; Dbaibo, Harb, & van Meurs, 2010). Based on social exchange theory, unfair practices of authorities are considered as inequitable, resulting in feelings of violation of 'social contract' therefore, this direction of unfairness has important implications for both employee and employer relationships and their overall well-being. Conversely, fairness enhances employee trust, which in turn stimulates to show a positive behavior (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997). Additionally, scholars have also shown a common agreement on a certain point that fairness perceptions can diminish ambiguities in policies, procedure, and lack of control, which are at the core of distress (Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

On the other hand, our findings clearly support (*hypothesis 2*) the assertion that when employees perceive unfairness in the workplace, it reduces their commitment and performance, in role performance and increases the chances of quitting the organization. These findings provide support for the idea of unfairness/imbalance being detrimental to desired outcomes at the workplace (van Vegchel, 2001; Derycke1, 2010; Siegrist, 2012; Ohlander, Weigl, Petru, Angerer, & Radon, 2015; Herr et al., 2015; Eib, Bernhard-Oettel, Näswall, & Sverke, 2015).

Scholars have argued that culture may affect the importance of events of fairness. Similar to the arguments of Hameed, Roques, and Ghulam, (2013) who stated that specificities may deeply affect the appraisal processes of situations and lead to unexpected results. The reason behind primacy of ERI approach to examine negative outcomes is due to French employees' cultural preferences. For instance, taken the perspective of power distance, employees higher on power distance society behave submissively to their bosses and generally avoid conflict with them as compared to low power distance employees. However, power distance has closely been linked with the preferences of distribution of rewards. Arguably, French respondents have shown greater concern for reciprocity between their efforts and rewards (Tremblay & Roussel, 2001), based on low tolerance for unfairness individuals for low power distance they behave more negatively (Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001a) than high power distance culture (Silva & Caetano, 2016). In the case of less fairness at the workplace, French employees may behave more negatively than Pakistani respondents because of low power distance. These results are consistent with the past studies (Siegrist, 2012; Heather &

Spense, 2012).

As we found that ERI approach has shown more significant results in French sample than Pakistani sample indicating that distributive fairness was important for high individualistic society such as France (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). On the other hand, in a collectivist country such as Pakistan individuals put more emphasis on interactional fairness (Erdogan & Liden, 2006) therefore, the inclusion of relational components in ERI, may increase the predictive strength in a collectivist society. As we have not included culture as a variable we intended to discuss culture as a context, future research may benefit from replicating our findings considering culture as variable between effort-reward imbalance and outcomes to understand more insights into the context.

6.2.2 Moderating Effects of Personal Human Values

Prior research has discussed the gaps in theoretical understanding that how environmental stressors-unfairness (OJ & ERI) affect the employees' work outcomes (strain) whereas, research on personality and individual differences suggests that how individuals manage to overcome the negative effects of unfairness on stress outcome. Moreover, following our research question, that why individuals behave differently at the workplace to an unfair event. Taken this, occupational scholarship suggests more research is needed to include contextual and conditional variables in testing stressors and workplace outcomes (strain). Truly, individuals are different in terms of personal attributes, capacity to evaluate or tolerate the unfair events than others (Truxillo, Steiner, & Gilliland, 2004). Accordingly, in this research, we have included Schwartz' human values a global prospect of personal preferences as a moderating variable that may provide a guidance to shape individuals' behaviors and attitudes.

Previously, Rokeach (1973) stated that individuals may vary regarding their priorities on certain personal values. However, taken the stress phenomena values as a personal resource help individual to cope with the environmental stressors (unfairness) in shaping their work outcomes. Based on Morelli and Cunningham (2012) arguments it is also expected that individual's coping strategies are possible to be affected by the relationship between that person's values and resource importance appraisals. However, it is assumed as individual's reactions to the threat or actual loss may vary depending on personal preference which is related to the specific resource that is threatened (Hobfoll, 1989). Scholar further explained that values influence choice of individual's behaviors (Feather, 1995). Indeed, making a link between

values and resource it is expected that individual's coping behaviors are driven to protect the resources that are most valued to that individuals' depend on their value system (Feather, 1995; Hobfoll, 2001; Brotheridge & Lee, 2002). Whereas, Luria and Torjman (2009) reported that various personal or environmental resources may be prioritized.

Pakistani sample: Based on p-values ($p < .05$, $.01$, $.001$) the results of table 5.36; pg-202 in chapter 5, showed that in study 1, 12 out of 30 expected hypotheses concerning the moderating role of individuals' differences were significant. Among 30 hypotheses eight were related to **personal human values** whereas four were related to **equity sensitivity**. Overall, we found less moderating effects of individual differences constructs between ERI and outcome variables than OJ. More specifically, as we hypothesized, in Pakistani sample we have found that **self-enhancement** significantly influenced the relationship of overall OJ and JBO ($\beta = .19$, $\rho < .001$), OC ($\beta = -.20$, $\rho < .01$) as well as EIRB ($\beta = -.11$, $\rho < .01$). These findings imply that individuals who report at a higher level of self-enhancement can argue the job-burnout and decrease individuals' commitment as well as their performance. Surprisingly, self-enhancement did not significantly affect the relationships between OJ and self-report performance as well as turnover intentions. The significant moderating role of self-enhancement between overall OJ and stress outcomes support our study's **hypotheses 3a and 3b**.

Our study results are in the same vein, that perceptions of unfair treatment by organizations' authorities have a strong impact on employees' stress outcomes, however, value incongruence contributes towards employees' stress. For instance, individuals evaluate the unfairness events particularly when their preferred values are violated (Lipponen, Olkkonen, & Myyry, 2004). On the other hand, values are viewed to have a direct impact on individuals well-being, as individuals are more likely to display their state of well-being in that environment where they feel their values are met as compared when they are not (Sagie & Elizur, 1996; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Accordingly, we argue that influence of OJ on stress outcomes (JBO, OC, and EIRB) is subject to the values preferences.

We contribute to the idea that individuals' value preference such as self-enhancement is more concerned about power and remain focus on their personal achievements (Fischer & Smith, 2004). Accordingly, achievement values force them to seek for success. Distributing higher rewards to more productive employees is a success of the organization. However, individuals who prefer such values (self-enhancement) are also likely to focus on performance-

related allocation principles.

Self-enhancement has played a less moderating role between ERI and stress outcome as we have found two significant interactions for JBO ($\beta = -.21, p < .001$) and OC ($\beta = .10, p < .05$) these results were similar to *hypothesis 4a and 4b*. Although we have found less moderating effects of self-enhancement between ERI and outcomes. Yet our results have shown that strength of the relationship between ERI and OC as well as JBO is subject to the value orientations of self-enhancement. The negative relationship between ERI and OC was stronger for those individuals who are at high level of self-enhancement orientations. Whereas, the positive relationship between ERI and JBO was stronger for those individuals who were more self-enhancer. Indeed, violation of reciprocity rules influences individuals' self-esteem among those who are high at pros-elf orientations, and those individuals are conceptually close to the self-enhancement preferences.

In Pakistani sample, we found that self-enhancement has shown greater concern in influencing the impact of OJ on stress outcomes than ERI. In Pakistani sample, *self-transcendence* regulated the influence of OJ and JBO ($\beta = -.14, p < .01$) as well as OC ($\beta = .13, p < .05$) although self-transcendence has shown less moderating role between OJ and stress outcome, however, these results are consistent with our study's *hypothesis 3c and 3d*. On the other hand, self-transcendence only moderated the relationship between ERI and OC ($\beta = .17, p < .01$) these results are similar to our *hypothesis 4d*.

Our study results support the idea that strength of the relationship between fairness perceptions and stress outcome regulated by individual's personal values (self-transcendence) these results are consistent with the past studies (De Cremer, 2002; Lipponen et al., 2004). More precisely, the negative relationship between organizational justice and job-burnout will be weaker for those individuals who at a high level of self-transcendence. Similarly, the positive association of organizational justice with organizational commitment and employees' in role behavior will be weaker for those individuals who are at high level of self-transcendence orientations in Pakistani sample.

Individuals endorsing self-transcendence values exhibit more concern for the well-being of others (Gaerling, 1999). Individual having self-transcendence seems to be more tolerant, however, they receive relative rewards based on individuals' performance are not closely associated with this relational prospect. Therefore, individuals having self-transcendence values are likely to be expected performance-related distribution rules as less

fair. We also found that overall self-transcendence has also shown a lesser concern in influencing the effects of OJ and stress outcomes, yet again, we found only one relationship moderated by self-transcendence between ERI and stress outcomes.

French sample: Our study results for French sample, reported that 8 out of 30 interactions were found to be significant regarding individual differences (see chapter 5, table 5.35, pg-202). Where we found **self-enhancement** only moderated the relationship between OJ and JBO ($\beta = .14, p < .05$) in French sample. These results are consistent with the **hypothesis 3a** but not **hypothesis 3b**. Our study results further showed that self-enhancement moderated the relationship between ERI and JBO ($\beta = .14, p < .05$) as well as EMPS ($\beta = -.31, p < .01$) these results are consistent with our study **hypotheses 4a and 4b** in French sample. These results indicate that self-enhancement has shown greater impact moderating effect between ERI than OJ. For French sample, self-transcendence has only shown a significant moderating role between OJ and OC ($\beta = .25, p < .01$). These results are also supported our study **hypothesis 3d**.

Despite, we found overall less moderating role of self-transcendence between OJ and outcomes, yet, we did not find any significant role of self-transcendence between ERI and outcomes. Since we found that relatively less moderating role of self-transcendence it shows that respondent from Pakistan has shown greater concern for the welfare of the other as compared to French sample (see chapter 5, table 5.36-37, pg-202-3). However, it does not mean that respondents from individualistic society are not concerned with transcendence because the self-transcendence is just a basic part of being human, however, based on cultural, socioeconomic conditions may lead to the less preference of self-transcendence. The similar findings support the idea of Siegrist (2016) who argued that different socio-economic and socio-cultural context may be relevant for several working populations. It is quite obvious that respondents from collectivist society are long term oriented and take care not only for themselves but also the others. Further, the culture adopts strong ties where everybody shows concern for associated members of the particular group (Hofstede, 1980). In our both samples, we specifically found that self-transcendence has shown greater concern in influencing the role of unfairness on OC.

At the outset, we discussed that an individual's values are an indicator of cultural rules that may follow the appraisal of resource importance (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1990). Thus, individuals with higher level of self-enhancement put more emphasis on self-

interest even at the cost of the others. They show less concern with the others yet, values place a higher priority on enhancing personal resources. In the case of resource threat or actual resource loss (unfairness at work), individuals must have to invest further resources to recover resource loss, which has been occurred due to unfairness (stressor) at work. Consequently, in the process to recover the lost resources and investing further resources may lead to more resource loss. Therefore, individuals who value place a higher priority on enhancing personal resource are expected to more likely to be affected by the unfair events in terms of increased JBO, TOI and decreases commitment and performance. On the other hand, individuals who are at higher level of the personal resource (self-transcendence) put more emphasis on serving the others, they intended to work for the betterment of the society, therefore, they seem to be less concerned to focus their personal resource (Schwartz, 1994). Individuals who place a higher priority on focusing others' welfare remain focused on generating their own resources, emotional, or cognitive abilities (e.g., Bonaiuto et al., 2008).

In a nutshell, they have less anxiety to invest resources to regain the lost resource in case there is any element of unfairness. As a result, individuals are expected to less likely to be influenced by the negative effects of the unfair event and remain productive at the workplace. Furthermore, when individuals perceive themselves the victims of unfairness, they tend to decide how to respond. While stress frameworks enable us to apply cognitive appraisal theory of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) which is most proximal to understand the stressor-strain relationship in workplace settings. Cognitive appraisal theory of stress focuses on circumstances and individuals' evaluations whether the situation (unfairness) is stressful (primary appraisal) and whether sufficient resources (secondary appraisal; self-transcendence) are available to cope with the stressful situation.

Although the idea of primary and secondary appraisal of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) have been criticized, yet it offers a clear framework for our study results. For instance, people evaluate the situation to determine the degree of potential harm, threat, or challenge to the self (e.g., Lazarus, 1999), which, in turn, guides (human values self-transcendence) their response. In the case of unfairness, the appraisal would lead to an extreme form of such as job-burnout, turnover intentions, and low commitment. However, appraisal of workplace unfairness seems that it particularly depends on features of a person or and environment (e.g., Compas & Orosan, 1993; Cortina & Magley, 2009) because values, principles regarding the extent to which an individual should tolerate the unfairness or other stressful situations may vary in different

contexts.

In this study we have explored the stressor-strain relationship in the presence of personal human values, and as we discussed above, individuals who are at higher level of self-transcendence will appraise the situation (unfairness) less harmful/threaten thus, they pay less attention towards unfairness and will not exhibit the negative behavior such as job-burnout turnover intention. These results are congruent with the statement of Khan et al. (2015), who argued that based on a personal contextual system that protects employees from work stressors and encourages them to behave positively even they face the extremely stressful situation such as unfairness.

6.2.3 Moderating Effects of Equity Sensitivity

Scholars have suggested that individuals are different in comparing their outcome/input ratios they may vary in their sensitivity to violations of perceptions. We juxtaposed the moderating role of more narrow individual difference construct with the more general (universal requirements of human existence) with the intentions of the bandwidth-fidelity discussion. The inclusion of equity sensitivity permitted us to examine the relative moderating impact of more general and narrow predictors between fairness and outcome.

Pakistani Sample: The results of our study 1, specify that *equity sensitivity* significantly moderated the influence of OJ on stress outcomes variables such as OC ($\beta = -10$, $\rho < .05$), EMPS ($\beta = -.18$, $\rho < .001$), EIRB ($\beta = -.24$, $\rho < .001$) as well as TOI ($\beta = .27$, $\rho < .001$), these results support our study *hypotheses 5a and 5b* (see chapter 5, table 5.30, pg-190). These results show that Pakistani respondents are sensitives regarding their inputs/outcomes ratios. However, these results are the reflection of the propositions of Huseman et al (1987) who suggested to use equity sensitivity (individual difference variable) as a moderator between fairness perceptions at work and individuals and organizational outcomes.

Indeed, individuals are different regarding their degree of fairness sensitivity (give to the organization and get from the organization), however, the difference in equity sensitivity would lead to input reductions where individuals are not rewarded fairly. Individual who are giving nature seems to be motivated to contribute towards organizations and would be less affected by the unfair event. Perhaps individuals viewed work assignments as a challenge rather than workload (Huseman et al., 1987) and want long-term association with the organization and higher level of equity sensitivity are “givers” do not care about the unfairness, thus, they

might seem to be less affected by the unfair events. Therefore, individuals may be less prone to the JBO, and exhibit low intentions to leave, strive to perform at their best level and remain committed to their organizations.

On the other hand, individuals who are “takers” are motivated to take more from the organization are more self-interested and put more emphasis on the output than input. And in the case of individual gets less reward ultimately react more negatively in response to the unfair events than “givers”. Accordingly, individual who are at high level of outcome focused may easily be exhibited in terms of more sensitives for outcomes and greater acceptance for over-rewards. On the other hand, surprisingly, we did not find any significant moderation effects of *equity sensitivity* between ERI and stress outcomes. Even though we were not expecting these results, perhaps there may be some other factors such as group related factors (as the equity sensitivity is an individual related factor) that are plausible. As a result, these findings do not support our study *hypotheses 6a and 6b*. *Therefore*, our study results supports the findings of Oren and Littman-Ovadia (2012) who did find moderating effects of equity sensitivity between ERI and all three types of JBO among Israeli sample.

French sample: In study 2 the results have shown (see chapter 5 table 5.32; pg-200) that, equity sensitivity influenced the relationship between OJ and four stress outcome such as JBO ($\beta = .21, p < .01$), OC ($\beta = -.49, p < .001$), EIRB ($\beta = -.32, p < .05$) as well as TOI ($\beta = .26, p < .01$) These results are in line with the expected pattern of our study *hypotheses 5a and 5b*. However, we did not find any significant interaction effects between ERI and stress outcomes. Consequently, these results did not confirm our study *hypothesis 6a and 6b*. Yet these results are in line with the past studies of Scott and Colquitt (2007) who did not find any support of interactions effects of equity sensitivity between unfairness and outcomes.

We found interesting results when we compared two sample (see chapter 5 table 5.36-37; pg-202-3), where we found equity sensitivity did not moderate the relationship between ERI in both studies. It seems that ERI construct contained a stronger mechanism that requires some additional components to influence its relationship with stress outcomes. In order to better understand the moderating effects of *equity sensitivity* between unfairness and outcomes, we taken the perspective of COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989). For instance, prior literature who considered equity sensitivity as a personality trait, and therefore, individuals may vary about their equity preference. Individuals who prefer to contribute towards organization seems to be less likely to perceive the situation as stressful (unfairness). Indeed, individuals’ personal

preference to contribute towards organizations may serve as a personal resource, that may help individuals to cope with the environmental stressors (unfairness) in shaping their work outcomes.

We discuss that, individuals who prefer to contribute, find less focusing on organizational rewards (extrinsic), and more tolerant towards inequity (Kickul, & Lester, 2001; Shore, 2004) and have less negative affect toward the organization (optimism) these personal traits may function as reserves that support the individual in case of resource loss. Further, it may help employees more efficiently to deal with the unfair events, where they do not care whether they are getting high or low rewards comparable to their efforts. In light of the previous discussion, we could suggest that individuals who emphasis on their work and are inclined to emphasize an “input-focused ideology” (greater tolerance for under reward) and react less negatively rather than “outcome-focused ideology” accordingly will be less affected by the negative effects of unfairness at work. Our study results also contributed to the literature of equity sensitivity and supported the results of past research (Shore, Thomas, & Strauss, 2006; Restubog, Bordiaw & Tangz, 2007).

6.3 Demographic Effects on Stress Outcomes

Considering the past research studies that demographic variables can influence the individuals to work stress outcome. Accordingly, we examined organizational experience, age, education level, gender, marital status. The findings of study 1 (*Pakistani sample*) showed the negative association or marital status with JBO (see annexure F 1, table-7). Our study result suggests, that individuals who were unmarried seem to prone to high level of burnout than for married. We anticipate that, in the case of unfairness, perhaps the partner might suggest and help how to handle the economic hardships and remain productive at work, and individuals take those suggestions as a source of motivation, that ultimately affects the level of burnout. On the other hand, unmarried have no such source of motivation and thus seem to prone to high level of burnout. Past research also indicates that the rate of burnout was significantly higher among individuals who were unmarried (Martini, Arfken, 2004; Maslach et al., 2001).

We also found a significant and negative impact on employees' years of education on OC. These results are not surprising in Pakistani culture. Since the higher rate of unemployment and most of the people have desired to associate with public sector organizations due to handsome pay and perks as well as job security. Whereas public sector organizations have

fewer job vacancies. In the beginning, unemployed people attract public sector jobs, and candidates show a willingness to accept a job offer even that job does not match with their qualifications and skills. Although individuals remain intact with the organization yet, they do not exhibit a long-term commitment with their organizations. They simply quit if they found better options, that might be matched with their qualifications. Further, we did not find significant results for gender, organizational tenure as well as aging effects for Pakistani sample.

In study 2 (*French sample*) we found significant negative effects of job experience and year of education on job-burnout. Past research suggests that experienced respondents react differently in response to response to the unfair events. According to Maslach et al. (2001) among the others demographic variables individuals' organizational tenure, has been the variable most constantly associated with burnout. We presume that employees who were less experienced reported high levels of burnout than more experienced. Experienced employees, old age, having better job position low job insecurity by the same token individual may gain maturity level and focus on their career they easily handle the situation. As a result of this peace of mind for individuals who gained more experience to learn about how to better deal with stressful situation. These results support the findings of Bal, de Lange, Ybema, Jansen, and van der Velde (2011) who reported that older employees having more experience are relatively better in emotions regulations, and remain focused on positive perspectives of their interactions with others, as a result react less negatively to unfair treatment.

Past research suggests that years of education can influence the stress outcome. In our French sample, we found the year of education is negatively related to JBO and positively related to OC. Perhaps employees with low education have in general fewer resources and have been related to higher levels of job insecurity due to the unfairness that leads to higher level of JBO (Kinnunen & Nätti, 1994) as well as a low commitment with their organizations. On the other hand, individuals with higher education seem to be having more resources (feel more secure themselves in terms of job security) and therefore, individuals with greater resources ultimately make them confident to deal with stressful situations. Thus we expect that individual will be less prone to burnout and will be committed to their organizations.

6.4 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, we have provided all the study findings based on existing literature, and research gaps filled by this study. Unfairness considered as work stressor or however, two competing models (OJ and ERI) were used to investigate the unfairness and its differential effects on personal and organizational outcomes. In general, we found that both fairness approaches are important predictors of work outcomes. With that said, some variabilities were found in predicting the strength of both approaches for outcomes. Justice approach was more important for Pakistani respondents, whereas French respondents concerned with ERI approach specifically, for negative outcomes such as job-burnout and turnover intention. Based on previous recommendations, we included two individual difference constructs variables to know that how individuals' differences influence the choices in responding the unfair events at work. Infact, this research expands our knowledge of factors that can affect employees' fairness perceptions at workplace, in particular the role of personal human values and equity sensitivity.

Further, based on study results we have provided a comparison of both samples to investigate which approach wins out. However, in case if we find general similarities, for deeper explanations it may depend on the cultural context and therefore, it may help in selecting variables that fit well to the way individuals shape their cognitive and affective processes. Finally, we have discussed some demographics effects on outcomes for both samples separately. In the next section, we will provide important theoretical implications, managerial implications study limitations and extension for future research.

General Conclusion

Conclusion Overview

In addition to the research findings discussed in the previous chapter, this section also sheds the light on the theoretical contribution, study limitations and extensions for future research. From a global perspective, scholars are agreed on a common point that a central issue of organizations is how to build, rebuild organizational environment where employees may live both healthy and to perform at their best levels for the benefits of their organizations (e.g., Barnard, 1938; Katz & Kahn, 1978). Past research suggested that unfairness is an increasingly important part of workplace settings and organization's authorities can have an important impact on individuals and organizational well-being. However, based on a stringent review of the literature and defining the gap we established a conceptual model showing the direct and moderating relations between unfairness and stress outcomes. To investigate the regularities of our two constructs we strived to conduct this research in two different countries (Pakistan, & France). In order to test of our study hypotheses, we used quantitative techniques and examined the aforementioned research objectives relationships.

Several stress work frameworks have been offered to account for the deleterious effects unfairness on employee outcomes. However, to measure the impact of unfairness at work, we found there are two prominent and competing approaches to the study of the unfairness and its relations to stress outcomes. One approach (OJ) is frequently been used in management and psychology literature which is judged by individuals, however, the other approach (ERI) is relatively new approach and calculates unfairness by using ratios (effort-reward), yet, it has gained a prominent place specifically in medical sociology.

Results of our two samples confirmed that both OJ and ERI frameworks competitively serve to explore the role of unfairness as a work stressor. Both OJ and ERI are useful, it is only that the OJ is more general. The idea of justice is very cultural and lays emphasis on what is right or good. In other words, the measure of OJ is already the result of the cultural construct. Whereas ERI approach is more specific and less subjective than OJ approach. However, the contributions can be made using either viewpoint, so long as researchers are clear about their definition. And both have a negative impact on employees' work outcomes, in increasing JBO, TOI, and decreasing, OC, EMPS, and EIRB. More specifically, our study results support the OJ than ERI approach in Pakistani sample by illustrating that OJ is a more important predictor of both positive and negative stress indicators than ERI. One interesting point to note is that the Pakistani respondents do not react as directly as French respondent to the ratio. Perhaps the reason as we previously discussed is the cultural orientations: collectivism and low indulgence.

On the other hand, more interestingly we found that in French sample, ERI has been proved to be a stronger predictor of negative stress outcomes rather than OJ. Although, ERI has been proved to be a significant predictor of stress outcomes in Pakistani sample, yet, OJ has shown relatively better predictive strength in examining stress outcomes. Since this research has been conducted in the south Asian region and ERI has developed in European culture and widely been tested in European research, thus we argue that might be some cultural perspectives between two countries causing the less predictive power in Pakistani sample. This significant difference between two approaches opens up new avenues for future research to compare these two approaches considering cultural indicators in predicting stress outcomes.

This research has also included two categories of individual differences variables including personal human values which is a more global perspective related to human priorities whereas equity sensitivity is broadly considered as an individual's propensity of sensitivity regarding equity in allocating organizational rewards. Accordingly, our study has supported the equity sensitivity model by showing that individuals who more focus on their benefits than their efforts (work assignments) alter the relationship between both models of OJ and in several stress indicators. However, we found mixed interactive effects of personal human values between OJ and stress outcomes, yet, we have found less interactive effects of personal human values and equity sensitivity between ERI approach and stress outcomes which is also an interesting result of our research.

GC.1 Theoretical Implications

This research touches upon several theoretical implications, in particular, the significance and adaptability of fairness constructs such as OJ and ERI other than western countries. There has been an upsurge of empirical research studies on fairness and justice the past decades. With that said, prior research suggests that both OJ and ERI claim that they have stronger predictive power in examining stress outcomes. Despite, the significant relationship between fairness at work and outcomes (individual or organizational) has robustly emerged in many research studies. Until now, many research studies have produced substantial variations in the observed strength of fairness effects, suggesting the existence of potential moderators (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; van Vegchel et al., 2001; Dbaiibo, Harb, van Meurs, 2010; Oren & Littman-Ovadia, 2013; Khan et al., 2015).

Beyond the traditional research that generally considers three or four dimensions of justice approach to examine employees' fairness perceptions, we have examined and compared justice model with ERI model by considering an overall organizational justice (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Cohen, 2013). Based on our best knowledge, less empirical research has been conducted considering an overall OJ to compare with ERI in examining the impact of unfairness on stress outcomes. When the presented findings of two competing fairness approaches are contrasted with the two separate studies (Pakistan & France) some interesting forms arise. Further, this research is attempted to empirically demonstrate the interactive effects of personal human values which have been universally assessed in 93 countries, and a construct which is narrow and specific individual difference is equity sensitivity for better understanding the relations of unfairness-outcomes.

Our study results show that both fairness approaches: OJ and ERI significantly predicted stress outcomes (JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS, & EIRB) our results also supplement those of Siegrist et al. (2004), Head et al. (2007) and Loerbroks, Meng, Chen, Herr, Angerer, and Li (2014). Based on these results, we contribute that the important concept (unfairness) which is globally recognized works in the same way but the variations are linked to a specific context. However, similar findings emerged in our research. In general, both models independently predicted work outcomes, yet the specific context may play an important role in explaining strength.

In Pakistani sample, OJ has shown greater power in examining the stress outcomes than ERI approach. One of the possible reasons is that the operationalization of ERI construct that how respondents perceive the ERI in Pakistani culture. Since we failed to achieve equivalency between two countries, it shows that respondents of both countries do not perceive fairness in the same way. Although, the internal consistency of the scales was well comparable to values obtained from western studies. Unlikely, the job compositions in Pakistan are different from the Western countries. However, past research demonstrates that ERI seems more important for a risk factor for males' sickness absence whereas justice has shown more concern for women's sickness absence (Head et al., 2007) for British respondents.

The way how we measure ERI is different from OJ approach, because we calculate ERI using ratios of efforts and rewards if someone contributes more efforts, yet he receives more rewards, it shows equilibrium between efforts and rewards. Therefore, it is possible that equilibrium may actually leads to form the individuals' outcomes rather than traditional (individual's judgments) way of measuring fairness perceptions. Theoretically, the current study advances our understanding of the process through which individuals' stress outcomes are influenced. Further, as we discussed earlier, perhaps the reason behind the less predictive power of ERI in examining stress outcome is due to the exclusion of relational components. Because Pakistan is collectivist country and individuals place more emphasis on long-term, socio-emotional duties, such as loyalty, and remain concerned with collective interest (Parks & Schmedemann, 1994), and therefore have a persistent effect not only on individuals' personal but also professional life.

This is quite similar to our previous argument that individuals with the low "indulgence" have strong control over their desires and show a high level of commitment with low intention to quit because of their desires are regulated by the strict norms and rules of a specific society or a group to whom they linked. Further, a low turnover intention in Pakistani sample may also presume due to a long-term commitment with the organization. Might be OJ produced better results than ERI is due to its relational components, and Pakistan being a collectivist society, individuals place more emphasis the importance of interpersonal relations than respondents from an individualistic culture such as France.

Similarly, researchers have argued that ERI model only lays emphasis on a partial component of the (psychological) working situation (Sparks & Cooper, 1999; Houtman & Smulders, 2003). De Jonge et al., 2004). On the other hand, Bakker and Demerouti (2007)

stated simplicity does not always lead to reality. Scholars have debated that main construct of ERI is general (Van Vegchel et al., 2002). Indeed, several elements are included in a single measure, however, it is unclear that which element precisely related to a certain result. For example, organizational rewards cover three specific rewards (i.e., salary, esteem, and job security/career possibilities) yet all are included in a single global measure. It indicates a lack of specificity of the main construct of ERI model, which is a possible reason for relative interaction effects of this construct (Van Vegchel, 2005).

Based on study results, we found ERI was the stronger predictor of psychological and behavioral withdrawal (JBO & TOI) in French sample, these results are also consistent with previous studies (Siegrist, 2012; Heather & Spense, 2012). The strong relationship between ERI and turnover intention in French sample also support the argument of Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2004) who observed the high turnover rate in France. As we discussed in the previous chapter that OJ has stronger predictive power in examining positive work outcomes, Perhaps these findings are due to the management practices in Pakistan being different from those employed in France. In general, the ERI approach is developed and tested in western societies with its focus on rewards, rather than the control structure of work.

Since Pakistan is a collectivist society and ERI model lays emphasis on a partial component of the psychological working situation, therefore, we presume that ERI has shown relative explanatory power in Pakistani sample than French sample. Grounded in the past research that seems to be called for using individual differences variables for better understanding the relationship between stressor and strain, thus, we reported the role of two moderating variables in influencing the fairness perceptions and outcomes. The findings of our moderation analysis provided support for our reasoning that, personal human values (self-enhancement) moderated the relationship between OJ and stress outcomes. Individuals who report at a higher level at of self-enhancement (value preference) can increase the burnout and decrease individuals' commitment as well as their performance. However, no significant results were found for in role behavior and turnover intentions.

Overall, self-enhancement showed less moderating role between ERI and outcome relations in Pakistani sample. In contrast, self-enhancement has shown greater impact moderating effect between ERI than OJ in French sample. Similarly, we also found the larger moderating effects of self-transcendence between OJ and stress outcomes than ERI. We also found that overall self-transcendence has also shown a lesser concern in influencing the effects

of OJ and stress outcomes, yet again, we found only one relationship moderated by self-transcendence between effort-reward imbalance and stress outcomes.

In Pakistani sample, these results are not surprising, because of the respondents from a collectivist culture, are long-term oriented and take care not only for themselves but also the others. Therefore, it is argued that individuals from collectivist society place much focus for the welfare of the others and have less intention to watch out their own benefits, thus individuals seem to be less affected by unfair events at the workplace. Perhaps the reason behind the context of collectivist orientation, individuals' lays emphasis on collective goals rather than their own and therefore exhibit more concern for their certain groups, accordingly, seem less affected by the unfair events. Moreover, in French sample, we found the less moderating role of self-transcendence between OJ and stress outcomes, however, we did not find any significant moderating role of self-transcendence between ERI and outcome.

Again we believe that the reason behind variabilities of the less moderating role of self-transcended in both competing approaches may reside in the contextual factors which may influence effects of self-transcendence in French sample. Related to our second individual differences construct, the results indicated that contrary to the study of Scott and Colquitt, (2007) and similar to the findings of Huseman et al (1987) and Shore, Thomas, and Strauss (2006) we found a strong moderating role of equity sensitivity between OJ and stress outcomes. On the other hand, surprisingly we did not find any significant moderating effects of equity sensitivity between ERI and stress outcomes for both samples.

GC.2 Managerial Implications

Despite our research contributed to the literature investigating unfairness as a stressor and its relation with stress outcomes, it has some boundaries, several implications for practicing managers and future research directions. This research offers a comparison of two work stress models using cross-sectional survey samples from two different countries investigates the stress outcomes in the presence of two individual difference construct. We have studied that fairness perceptions at work can enhance the individuals as well as organizational wellbeing. When individuals perceive that organizations' authorities are treating them fairly, in return organizational members would make efforts to reciprocate by performing at their higher level for the benefits of organization. On the other hand, employees' perceptions of unfair treatment by their managers, induce the negative feelings among organizational members that ultimately

affects the organizations' wellbeing. Therefore, we argue that fair treatment of organization's authorities is the most effective because individuals compare the outcome they receive with their coworkers and with their own inputs, and those comparisons influence their attitudes and behaviors.

Further, multinational companies required to be concerned with the fairness issues when establishing and implementing their global policies. Therefore, organizations' authorities should realize that individual's unfair perceptions could have detrimental effects on employees' outcomes and organizational productivity. These results are aligned with the arguments of Hennekam and Herrbach (2013) that employees' perceptions of management practices have a significant influence on their work outcomes.

Moreover, based on the findings of Nielsen, Birkeland, Hansen, Knardahl and Heir (2017) and correspond to this research, we suggest that managers should emphasize on the psychosocial work environment of emotional distressed employees to avoid additional harmful health related consequences. If organizations want to improve the well-being of their members they should understand that how to influence the appraisals whereby employees decide whether the event is fair or unfair and react accordingly. Managers should consider that high efforts comparing low rewards for an individual could further enhance these negative transactions between subordinates and managers.

Our research suggests that improving the infrastructure by focusing on the equilibrium between efforts and rewards could be efficient for reducing the perceptions of unfairness. Therefore, organizations should make efforts to diminish the imbalance by preparing and implementing a strong mechanism, so the allocations of rewards may equally be distributed to those who actually deserve it. For example, managers should improve the performance appraisal process, and try to make it sure that evaluations have been done based on real key performance indicators.

Considering a strong impact of performance appraisal on employees' fairness perceptions, organizations should continually evaluate employees' performance. For instance, a mid-term evaluation could be efficient for those organizations who yearly evaluate the employees' performance. As we discussed earlier that relational components have a significant impact in evaluating whether the event is fair or unfair the managers are required to be aware its importance, in particular, when conveying performance appraisals. Through the strong internal communication, employees' perceptions of unfairness can be reduced because they

must inform that why the certain procedures have been followed and why rewards are distributed differently among the other group of employees.

Our research suggests that value congruence with the organization predicts a higher level of satisfaction, commitment, performance, and loyalty (Cable & Jung 1996). It is unlikely that values are something that can be “managed”. According to Argandoña (2003), any manager who does not take values into account will not be successful. Further, Puohiniemi’s findings (2006) stated about the relationship between values and opinions of an ideal employer, it could be concluded that employees in the study organization generally preferred their company to have “human operating principles” and to be “inspiring” rather than to offer extensive economic benefits. Therefore, the human values may serve as a framework for evaluating the organizational fairness within the context they expect from their organization and which have been actually delivered to them. The managers who work in international organizations must understand what values their employees might hold that are predictive of employees’ satisfaction, commitment, and possibly continuance employees’ performance. Policy makers and managers should try to prepare procedures and make it sure that all the policies are fair and based on individuals’ beliefs using biased free universal criteria that can be seen fair for all employees.

With the involvement of advanced technology, there are dramatic changes in the global working environment is the need of workforce diversity. The organizations should hire the managers who might hold similar personal values matches with the organization's values. Managers of the multinational firms required to be flexible when generalizing people’s values on the basis of cultural values studies, as context might create differences (Osland et al., 2000). Since organizations expect that their employees have to show ethical behaviors at workplace similarly, it is the moral duty of organizations’ authorities to show ethical behavior and treat their members fairly. Taken this fair or unfair is an ethical issue, and the organizations should conduct ethical training and seminars, so the managers may treat their subordinates fairly and unfair perceptions may be decreased and improve their well-being.

Moreover, managers should learn about employees’ sensitivity level by considering individuals’ differences and needs; promote fairness to increase well-being. Finally, the managers working in French companies must understand, that individuals with high rank of indulgence focus on the happiness of life, therefore, they seem more concerned about the ratios of rewards vs efforts, on the other hand, the workers belong to constrained society such as

Pakistani (collectivist and with low indulgence) the perceptions of fairness are regulated by their specific social norms or customs.

GC.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although this research adds to unfairness and stress research as well as practice, we recognize some notable study limitations. First, this research uses a cross-sectional survey design for all variables which can lead to common method biased (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Accordingly, biased data increases the issues of accurately making inferences among study constructs. Though current research utilized respondents from a number of different public and private organizations, some those organizations situated in a relatively small geographic area and therefore, may be subject to the particular regional norms or biases that may not be generalizable to other areas. Future research may be conducted to control the study biases using a longitudinal research design to replicate these findings. Further, future research should be extended the analytical time frame for examining the relationship between stress and employees work outcomes (Wahrendorf & Chandola, 2016). Because the studies at two points may increase the power of analysis for examining the work stress and health across different life stages.

Past research has included ERI as an independent or mediating variable between two dimensions of justice organizational justice (procedural or interactional justice) and psychological distress found a significant mediating role (Inoue et al., 2010). Despite, this research has considered ERI as an independent construct to examine the work outcomes (stress indicators), however, in future research mediating role of ERI may be examined between all four (in)justice dimension as well as overall justice perceptions and stress outcomes. Since our study results demonstrate that OJ approach has shown greater predictive strength in examining stress outcomes than ERI in Pakistani sample.

On the other hand, in French sample, ERI provided stronger results in predicting negative outcomes than OJ. These results are quite in line with the cautious statement of Siegrist and colleagues (2007) that both approaches should be interpreted very carefully, as the operationalization of both constructs may not have been equally successful. This seeming paradox can be reconciled when considering particular relations in future. While spotting the dynamic nature of the effort-reward imbalance, this study does not capture all the complexities related with how individuals' differences change the fairness perceptions. For example, as we

have not included the concept of over-commitment which is also an important component of ERI model, future research may be useful to replicate our findings including (over-commitment) this important element of ERI.

We can envision that it will be useful to replicate the findings of this research including an important component of ERI which is over-commitment in other collectivist societies. Indeed, individuals with collectivist orientations and low level of indulgence control their desires which is regulated by their specific social norms or customs and exhibit strong commitment to work rather over-commitment. Therefore, using over-commitment in collectivist society may bring interesting findings to enhance the knowledge that how over-commitment construct is perceived by the individuals who have a strong commitment to their work due to collectivism and low level of indulgence.

Sample size in French study was relatively smaller ($N = 241$) than Pakistani sample ($N = 583$), that may influence the significance of this study results. Although, we found relatively less moderating effects of individuals differences variables between ERI and stress outcomes the future research may be conducted between effort-reward imbalance and individual differences constructs to understand whether results underlying this study are specific for these two samples. According to Peng, Nisbett, and Wong, (1997) that values are a contextualized concept. Therefore, work related priorities, expectancies, experiences of previous outcomes, organization's practices within a particular context may provide better understandings of employees' fairness perceptions (Fischer & Smith, 2003). Third, the present study was conducted in Pakistan in three different sectors (education, health, and energy) and France (education sector) therefore we recognize that the specific operationalization of the organization-wide fairness measures might have affected our observed relationships.

We also note that some of our findings were somewhat different in both samples from what have been expected. Along these lines, since this research makes an important general contribution in suggesting that fairness perceptions may have a significant impact on work outcomes. Future research can also conduct including other concepts, such as job satisfaction, and counterproductive work behavior in the workplace. Further, this research can be stretched the theoretical and empirical research to other Asian settings to establish a broader perspective for understanding that how fairness perceptions affect workers' responses other than Western societies in the presence of other individuals' differences variables.

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**UNFAIRNESS AND STRESS AT WORK: AN EXAMINATION OF TWO
COMPETING APPROACHES—ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE AND
EFFORT REWARD IMBALANCE**

ANNEXURES

Ghulam MURTAZA

2017

ANNEXURES

Annexure A-1: Cover Letter

Dear Respondent,

You are invited to participate in enclosed survey questionnaire candidly. Your kind response is extremely important and tremendously helpful to examine some commonalities and differences in organizational structure and management practices between France and Pakistan. This survey questionnaire has been developed under the guidelines of my Ph.D. research director (Dr. Olivier ROQUES, MCF & HDR) at Aix Marseille University, France. This research dissertation has been sponsored by HEC Government of Pakistan. Your participation is completely voluntary, confidential and will be used only for academic purposes. Please read directions carefully and answer the questions as accurately as possible. I shall greatly appreciate your prompt response. If you have any question or comments about this study or want to know the findings of this research, you may contact me at ghulam.murtaza@iae-aix.com.

Sincerely,

Ghulam Murtaza

Ph.D. Candidate in Management Science
Graduate School of Management
IAE-Aix Marseille University, Chemin De La Quille
Puyricard. CS 30063.13089 Aix-en Provence, France

Annexure A-2: Survey Instrument

Instructions: Read each statement carefully given below and circle the number that best corresponds with your answer.

1. Strongly Agree	2. Disagree	3. Slightly Disagree	4. Neither Agree nor Disagree	5. Slightly Agree	6. Agree	7. Strongly Agree
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Distributive Justice	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
1. Do those outcomes (organizational rewards) reflect the effort you have put into your work?						
2. Are those outcomes appropriate for the work you have completed?						
3. Do those outcomes reflect what you have contributed to your work?						
4. Are those outcomes justified, given your performance?						
Procedural Justice	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
1. Are you able to express your views during those procedures (organizational procedure)?						
2. Can you influence the decisions arrived at by those procedures?						
3. Are those procedures applied consistently?						
4. Are those procedures free of bias?						
5. Are those procedures based on accurate information?						
6. Are you able to appeal the decisions arrived at by those procedures?						
7. Do those procedures uphold ethical and moral standards?						
Interpersonal Justice	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
1. Has your boss /supervisor treated you in a polite manner?						
2. Has your boss /supervisor treated you with dignity?						
3. Has your boss /supervisor treated you with respect?						
4. Has your boss /supervisor refrained from improper remarks or comments?						
Informational Justice	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
1. Has your boss /supervisor been candid when communicating with you?						
2. Has your boss/ supervisor explained decision-making procedures thoroughly?						
3. Were your boss's /supervisor's explanations regarding procedures reasonable?						
4. Has your boss /supervisor tailored communications to meet individuals 'needs'?						
5. Has your boss /supervisor communicated details in a timely manner?						
Employees' Efforts	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
The following items refer to your present occupation. Select from the options whatever you want.						
1. I have constant time pressure due to a heavy work load.						
2. I have many interruptions and disturbances while performing my job.						
3. Over the past few years, my job has become more and more demanding.						
Organizational Reward	Strongly Disagree ← - - - → Strongly Agree					
1. I receive the respect I deserve from my superior or a respective relevant person.						
2. My job promotion prospects are poor.						
3. I have experienced or I expect to experience an undesirable change in my work situation.						
4. My job security is poor.						
5. Considering all my efforts and achievements, I receive the respect and prestige I deserve at work.						
6. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my job promotion prospects are adequate.						
7. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my salary / income is adequate.						

1. Never	2. Very infrequently	3. Quite Infrequently	4. Sometimes	5. Quiet Frequently	6. Very Frequently	7. Always
----------	----------------------	-----------------------	--------------	---------------------	--------------------	-----------

Job-Burnout	Never ← --- → Always					
1. Is your work emotionally exhausting?						
2. Do you feel burnt out because of your work?						
3. Does your work frustrate you?						
4. Do you feel worn out at the end of the working day?						
5. Are you exhausted in the morning at the thought of another day at work?						
6. Do you feel that every working hour is tiring for you?						
7. Do you have enough energy for family and friends during leisure time?						
Organizational Commitment	Strongly Disagree ← --- → Strongly Agree					
1. I tell my friends that this is a great organization to work for.						
2. I feel little loyalty to my employer.						
3. I find that my values and the employing organization's values are very similar.						
4. I am proud to tell people that I work here.						
5. This place really inspires the best in me in the way of job performance.						
6. I really care about the fate of this place.						
Employees' Performance	Strongly Disagree ← --- → Strongly Agree					
1. My performance is better than that of my colleagues with similar qualifications						
2. My performance is better than that of employees with similar qualifications in other ministries						
3. The performance of my ministry is better than that of other ministries						
Employees' in Role Behavior	Strongly Disagree ← --- → Strongly Agree					
Note: please fill these items about the overall performance of your team / subordinate even you have a single team member						
1. Adequately completes the assigned duties.						
2. Fulfill responsibilities specified in job description						
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.						
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.						
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation						
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform						
7. Fails to perform essential duties						
Turnover Intention	Strongly Disagree ← --- → Strongly Agree					
1. I often think about quitting my present job						
2. I will probably look for a new job in the next year						
3. As soon as possible, I will leave the organization						

1. Not like me at all	2. Not like me	3. A little like me	4. Natural	5. Somewhat like me	6. Like me	7. Very much like me
-----------------------	----------------	---------------------	------------	---------------------	------------	----------------------

Personal Human Values	
Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or not like you. Put an x in the box to right that how much each person in the description in like you. How much like you is this person? He/ She (any one in your organization)	
Self-Enhancement	Not like me at all ← -- → Very much like me

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or not like you. Put an x in the box to right that how much each person in the description in like you.							
<i>How much like you is this person? She/he (any one in your organization)</i>							
1. It's very important to him to show his abilities. He wants people to admire what he does.							
2. Being very successful is important to him. He likes to impress other people.							
3. He thinks it is important to be ambitious. He wants to show how capable he is.							
4. Getting ahead in life is important to him. He strives to do better than others.							
5. It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things.							
6. It is important to him to be in charge and tell others what to do. He wants people to do what he says.							
7. He always wants to be the one who makes the decisions. He likes to be the leader.							
Self-Transcendence	Not like me at all ← - - → Very much like me						
1. He thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. He believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life.							
2. It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him. Even when he disagrees with them, he still wants to understand them.							
3. He strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after, the environment is important to him.							
4. He believes all the worlds' people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to him.							
5. He wants everyone to be treated justly, even people he doesn't know. It is important to him to protect the weak in society.							
6. It is important to him to adapt to nature and to fit into it. He believes that people should not change nature.							
7. It's very important to him to help the people around him. He wants to care for their well being.							
8. It is important to him to be loyal to his friends. He wants to devote himself to people close to him.							
9. It is important to him to respond to the needs of others. He tries to support those he knows.							
10. Forgiving people who have hurt him is important to him. He tries to see what is good in them and not to hold a grudge.							

Equity Sensitivity							
The questions on this inventory ask what you'd like for your relationship to be with any organization for which you might work. On each question, divide 1-7 points between the two answers (Give to organization or Get from organization)							
In any organization I might work for:							
1. It would be more important for me to:							
Give to organization				Get from organization			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. It would be more important for me to:							
Help others				Watch out for my own good			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I would be more concerned about:							
What I give to organization				What I get from organization			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. The hard work I would do should:							
Benefit to organization				Benefit for me			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. My personal philosophy in dealing with the organization would be:							
It's better to given than receive.				If you don't look out for self-nobody, else will to			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Demographic Details

Please complete the following demographic information, giving your best knowledge where exact answers are not known. Your information will be kept strictly confidential and will only use by the researcher for academic purposes:

- | | | | | |
|--------------------|---------------|--------------------------|------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Gender | Male | <input type="checkbox"/> | Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Marital Status | Married | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unmarried | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Education | Undergraduate | <input type="checkbox"/> | Graduation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Master | <input type="checkbox"/> | MS/M.Phil. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Ph.D. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |
| 4. Age: | | | | |
| 5. Job Position: | | | | |
| 6. Job Experience: | | | | |

Thank you...

Annexure B-1: French Version

Madame, Monsieur,

Vous êtes invités à participer à l'enquête ci-jointe. Vos réponses types sont extrêmement importantes et utiles et permettront d'examiner certains points communs et différences dans les pratiques de gestion entre la France et le Pakistan. Ce questionnaire a été validé par mon directeur de recherche (M. Olivier Roques – Maître de Conférences HDR) à l'IAE / Aix Marseille Université. Ce travail de recherche a été parrainé par le gouvernement du Pakistan dans le cadre d'une collaboration de recherche entre nos deux pays. Si je réussis ma thèse, j'obtiendrai un doctorat français qui me permettra de travailler comme enseignant chercheur dans une université pakistanaise et aussi de diffuser la culture de recherche française dans mon pays.

Vos réponses seront traitées de manière entièrement confidentielle et ne seront utilisées qu'à des fins académiques. Je vous remercie de lire attentivement les instructions pour répondre aux questions le plus précisément possible. Je vous serais reconnaissant de remplir le questionnaire suivant dès que possible. Si vous avez des questions ou des commentaires à propos de cette étude ou si vous voulez connaître les résultats de cette recherche, vous pouvez me contacter sur [ghulam.murtaza @ iae - aix.com](mailto:ghulam.murtaza@iae-aix.com).

Bien cordialement,

Ghulam Murtaza

Ph.D. Candidat

Graduate School of Management

IAE Aix - Marseille Université, France

Annexure B-2: Questionnaire d'Enquête

Instructions: Lire chaque déclaration attentivement donnée ci-dessous et tourne autour du nombre qui correspond le mieux avec votre réponse.

1. Pas du tout d'accord	2. Pas d'accord	3. Plu tôt Pas d'accord	4. Ni Pas d'accord	5. Quelque peu D'accord	6. D'accord	7. Tout à fait d'accord
-------------------------	-----------------	-------------------------	--------------------	-------------------------	-------------	-------------------------

Distributive Justice	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Les rétributions que me donne l'entreprise sont le reflet des efforts que je fournis dans mon travail.							
2. Les rétributions que me donne l'entreprise correspondent u travail que j'ai accompli.							
3. Les rétributions que me donne l'entreprise reflètent la contribution qu'apporte dans mon travail.							
4. Les rétributions que me donne l'entreprise sont justifiés, étant donné ma performance.							
Procedural Justice	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Je peux exprimer mon opinion dans les procédures utilisées par l'entreprise.							
2. Je peux influencer les décisions qui découlent de ces procedures.							
3. Ces procédures sont appliquées régulièrement.							
4. Ces procédures ne comportent pas de biais.							
5. Ces procédures sont fondées sur des informations précises.							
6. je peux faire appel des décisions qui découlent de ces procédures							
7. Ces procédures sont conformes aux standards de l'éthique et de la morale							
Interpersonal Justice	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Mon supérieur hiérarchique me traite avec politesse.							
2. Mon supérieur hiérarchique me traite avec dignité.							
3. Mon supérieur hiérarchique me traite avec respect.							
4. Mon supérieur hiérarchique s'est abstenu de toute remarque ou commentaire incorrect.							
Informational Justice	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Mon supérieur hiérarchique est sincère dans ses échanges avec moi.							
2. Mon supérieur hiérarchique m'explique les procédures de prise de décision en detail.							
3. Les explications sur les procédures que me donne mon supérieur hiérarchique sont de bon sens.							
4. Mon supérieur hiérarchique adapte sa communication aux besoins des personnes.							
5. Mon supérieur hiérarchique donne des précisions au moment opportune.							

Employees' Effort	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
The following items refer to your present occupation. Select from the options whatever you want.							
1. Je suis constamment pressé(e) par le temps à cause d'une forte charge de travail							
2. Je suis fréquemment interrompu(e) et dérangé(e) dans mon travail.							
3. Au cours des dernières années, mon travail est devenu de plus en plus exigeant.							
Organizational Reward	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. I receive the respect I deserve from my superior or a respective relevant person.							
2. My job promotion prospects are poor.							
3. I have experienced or I expect to experience an undesirable change in my work situation.							
4. My job security is poor.							
5. Considering all my efforts and achievements, I receive the respect and prestige I deserve at work.							
6. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my job promotion prospects are adequate.							
7. Considering all my efforts and achievements, my salary / income is adequate.							

1. Jamais 2. Très rarement 3. Rarement 4. Quelques fois 5. Assez Fréquemment 6. Très Fréquemment 7. Toujours

Job-Burnout	Jamais ← - - - → Toujours						
1. Votre travail est épuisant émotionnellement?							
2. Vous sentez-vous brûlé à cause de votre travail?							
3. Est-ce que votre travail vous frustrer?							
4. Vous sentez-vous fatigué à la fin de la journée de travail?							
5. Êtes-vous épuisé dans la matinée à la pensée d'un autre jour au travail?							
6. Pensez-vous que toutes les heures de travail est fatigant pour vous?							
7. Avez-vous assez d'énergie pour la famille et les amis durant les loisirs?							
Organizational Commitment	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Je dis à mes amis que l'entreprise pour laquelle je travaille est super.							
2. Je sens peu de fidélité à mon employeur.							
3. Je constate que mes valeurs et les valeurs de l'organisation d'emploi sont très semblables.							
4. Je suis fier de dire que je travaille ici.							
5. Cet lieu inspire vraiment le mieux dans moi comme performance de travail.							
6. Je me soucie vraiment du destin de cet endroit.							
Employees' Performance	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Ma performance est meilleure que celle de mes collègues avec des qualifications similaires.							
2. Ma performance est meilleure que celle des employés ayant des qualifications similaires dans d'autres départements.							

3. La performance de mon ministère est meilleure que celle d'autres ministères.							
Employees' in Role Behavior Merci de remplir ces éléments sur la performance globale de votre équipe / subordonné, même si vous avez un seul membre de l'équipe.	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Adequately completes the assigned duties.							
2. Fulfill responsibilities specified in job description							
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.							
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.							
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation							
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform							
7. Fails to perform essential duties							
Turnover Intention	Pas du tout d'accord ← - → Tout à fait d'accord						
1. Je pense souvent à l'abandon de mon travail présent							
2. Je chercherai probablement un nouveau travail dans l'année prochaine							
3. Dès que possible, je vais quitter l'organisation							

1. Pas du tout comme	2. Pas comme moi	3. Un peu comme moi	4. Neutre	5. Quelque peu comme moi	6. Comme moi	7. Vraiment comme moi
-----------------------------	-------------------------	----------------------------	------------------	---------------------------------	---------------------	------------------------------

Personal Human Values							
Nous allons décrire rapidement des personnes. Pouvez-vous lire chaque description et vous demander, pour chacune d'elles, jusqu'à quel point cette personne est comme vous ou différente de vous? Mettez une croix dans la colonne de droite qui correspond au degré auquel la personne que l'on décrit est comme vous.							
A QUEL POINT EST-IL COMME VOUS? II / elle							
Self-Enhancement	Pas du tout comme ← → Vraiment comme moi						
1. Il est très important pour elle de montrer ses capacités. Elle veut que les gens admirent ce qu'elle fait.							
2. Réussir brillamment est important pour elle. Elle aime impressionner les autres.							
3. Elle pense qu'il est important d'être ambitieuse. Elle veut montrer à quel point elle est compétente.							
4. Progresser dans la vie est très important pour elle. Elle s'efforce de faire mieux que les autres.							
5. C'est important pour elle d'être riche. Elle veut avoir beaucoup d'argent et posséder des choses qui coûtent cher.							
6. Elle aime les responsabilités et dire aux autres ce qu'ils doivent faire. Elle veut que les autres fassent ce qu'elle dit.							
7. Elle veut toujours être celle qui prend les décisions. Elle aime être celle qui dirige.							
Self-Transcendence	Pas du tout comme ← - → Vraiment comme moi						
1. Elle pense que c'est important que tous les hommes du monde soient traités de manière égale. Elle croit que tout le monde devrait avoir les mêmes chances dans la vie.							
2. C'est important pour elle d'écouter des gens différents de elle. Même si elle n'est pas d'accord avec eux, elle veut malgré tout les comprendre.							
3. Elle est tout à fait convaincue que les gens devraient protéger la nature. Préserver l'environnement est important pour elle.							

4. Elle croit que tous les gens du monde devraient vivre en harmonie. Promouvoir la paix entre toutes les communautés partout dans le monde est importante pour elle.							
5. Elle veut que tout le monde soit traité de manière juste, même les gens qu'elle ne connaît pas. C'est important pour elle de protéger les plus faibles dans la société.							
6. C'est important pour elle de s'adapter à la nature et de s'y intégrer. Elle croit qu'on ne devrait pas modifier la nature.							
7. C'est très important pour elle d'aider les gens qui l'entourent. Elle veut prendre soin de leur bien-être.							
8. C'est important pour elle d'être loyale envers ses amis. elle veut être se dévouer à ceux qui sont proche de elle.							
9. C'est important pour elle de répondre aux besoins des autres. Elle essaie de soutenir ceux et celles qu'elle connaît.							
10. Pardoner à ceux qui l'ont blessée est important pour elle. Elle essaie de voir ce qui est bon chez eux et de ne pas avoir de rancune.							

Equity Sensitivity						
Cette série de propositions porte sur la relation que vous souhaiteriez avoir avec l'entreprise susceptible de vous employer. Pour chaque proposition, vous avez 1-7 points à répartir entre deux réponses (Recevoir de l'entreprise ou Donner à l'entreprise). Donnez le plus de points à la réponse qui vous convient le mieux et le moins de points à celle qui vous convient le moins. Si vous le souhaitez, vous pouvez donner le même nombre de points à chaque réponse. Vous pouvez également mettre zéro point à une réponse. Notez vos points dans l'espace libre devant chaque lettre.						
DANS L'ENTREPRISE SUSCEPTIBLE DE M'EMPLOYER :						
1. Il serait plus important pour moi de :						
« Donner » à l'entreprise				« Recevoir » de l'entreprise		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Il serait plus important pour moi de:						
Aider les autres				Me préoccuper de moi		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Je serai plus concerné par:						
Ce que je donnerais à l'entreprise				Ce que je recevrais de l'entreprise		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Un travail important de ma part devrait:						
Bénéficier à l'entreprise				Me bénéficier		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ma philosophie personnelle vis-à-vis de l'entreprise serait:						
Il vaut mieux donner que recevoir				Si tu ne fais pas attention à toi, personne ne le fera à ta place		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Demographic Details

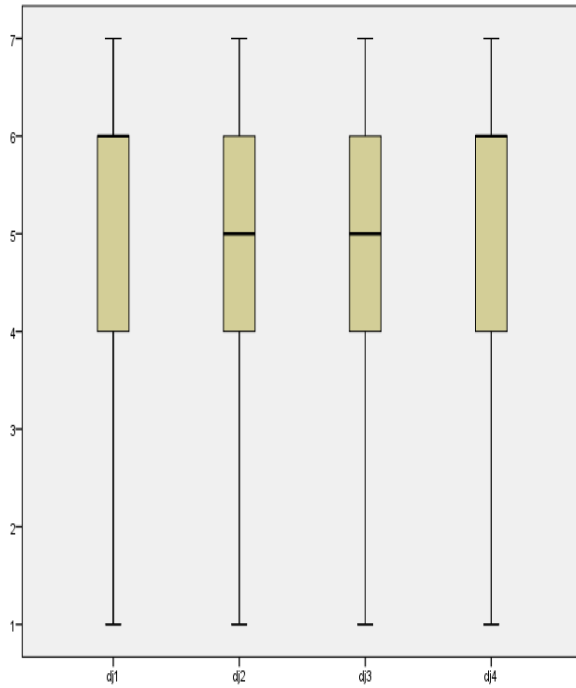
Merci de compléter les informations socio-professionnelles suivantes. Vos informations resteront strictement confidentielles et ne seront utilisées par le chercheur qu'à des fins académiques:

- | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|-------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Sexe | Male | <input type="checkbox"/> | Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. État civil | Marié | <input type="checkbox"/> | Célibataire | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Années d'études | Undergraduate | <input type="checkbox"/> | Graduation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Master | <input type="checkbox"/> | MS/M.Phil. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | Ph.D. | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |
| 4. Âge: | | | | |
| 5. Désignation: | | | | |
| 6. Expérience (en années): | | | | |

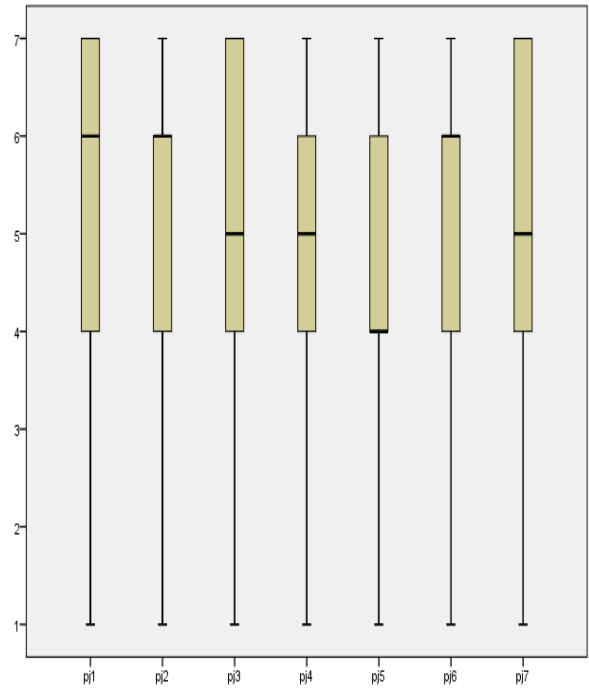
MERCI...

Annexure C-1: Univariate (Pakistani Sample)

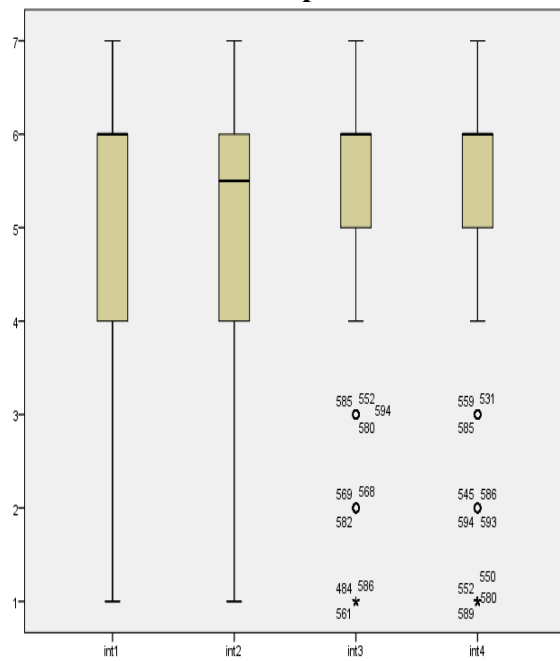
Box Plot for Distributive Justice



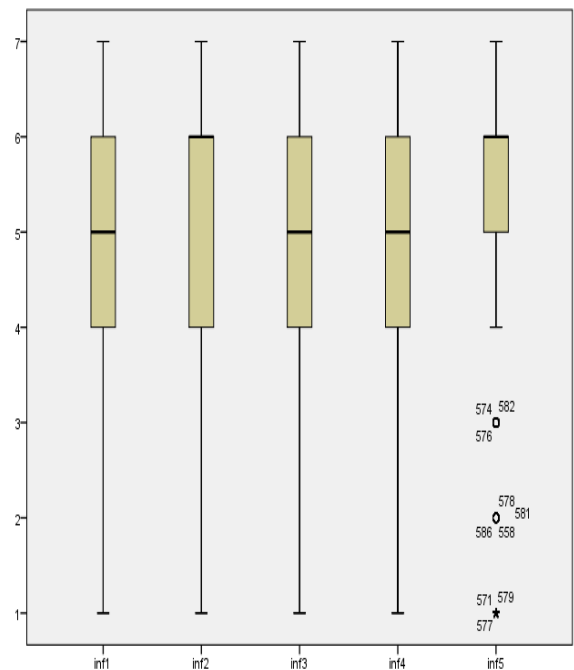
Box Plot for Procedural Justice



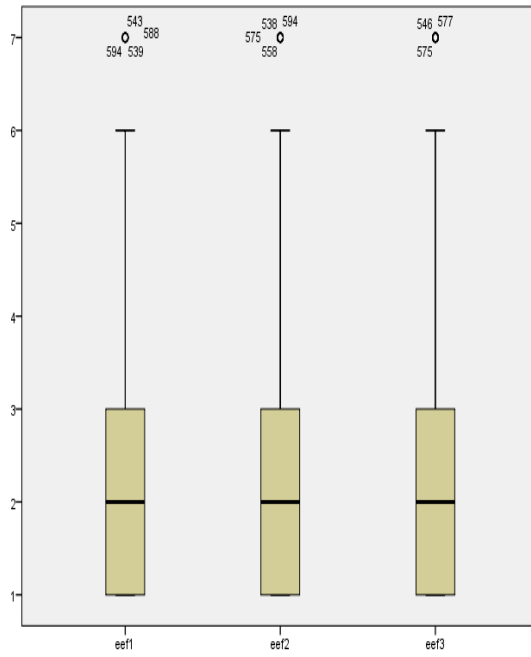
Box Plot for Interpersonal Justice



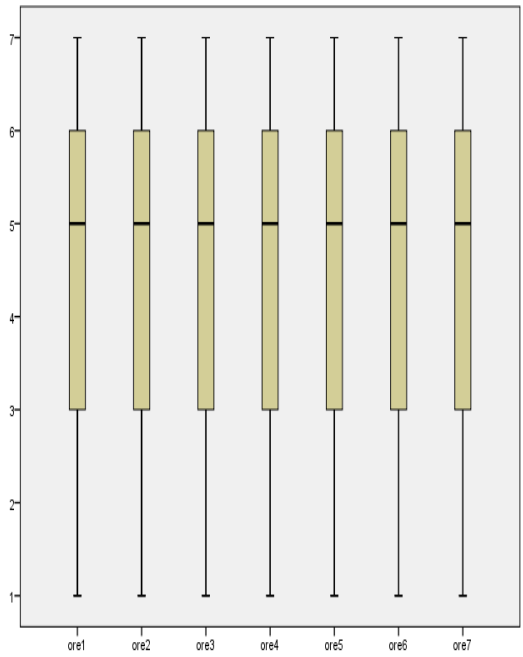
Box Plot for Informational Justice



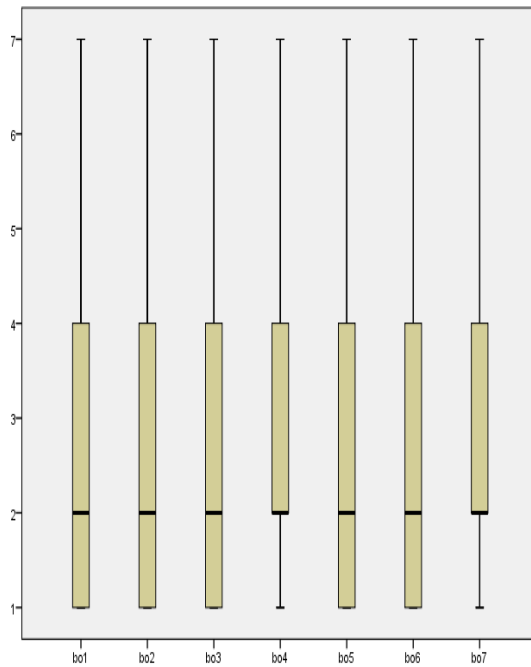
Box Plot for Employees' Efforts



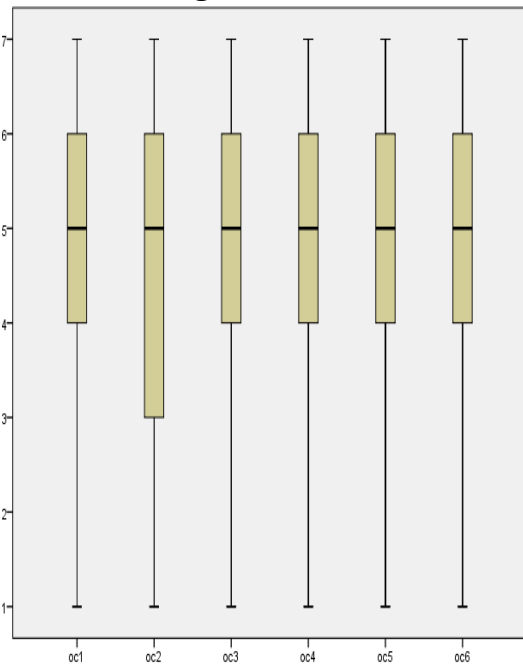
Box Plot for Organizational Rewards



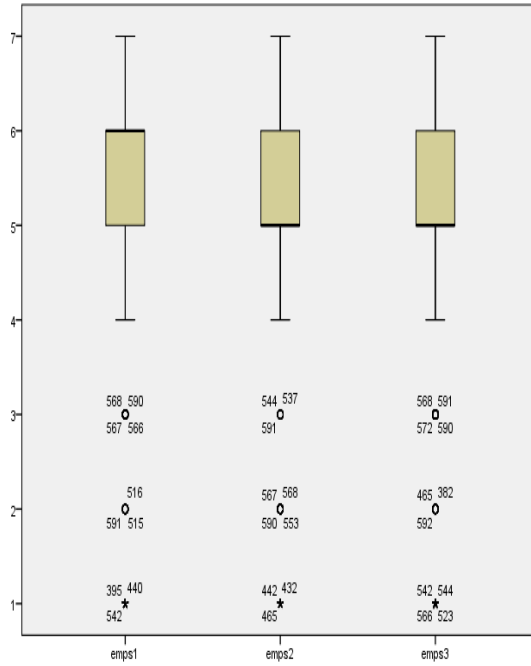
Box Plot for Job Burnout



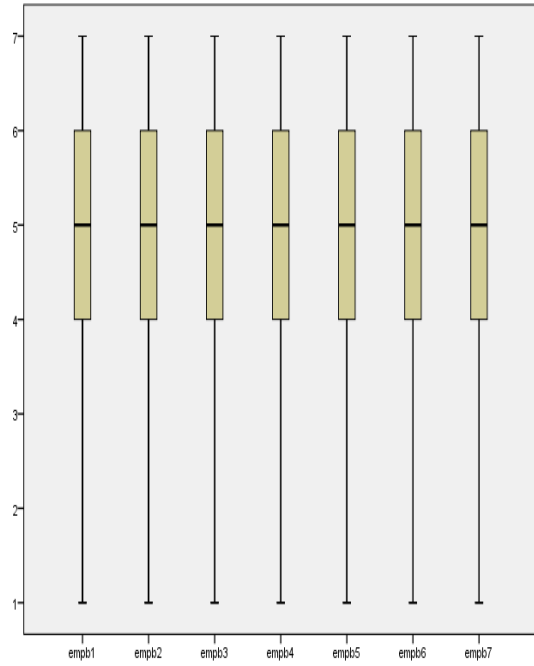
Box Plot for Organizational Commitment



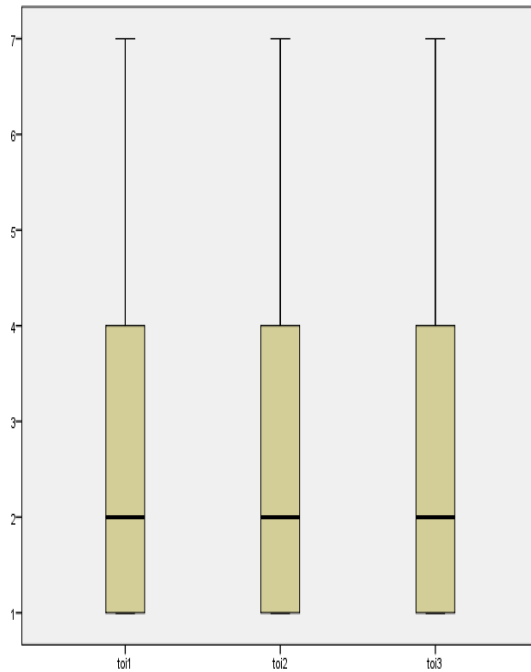
Box Plot for Employees' Performance



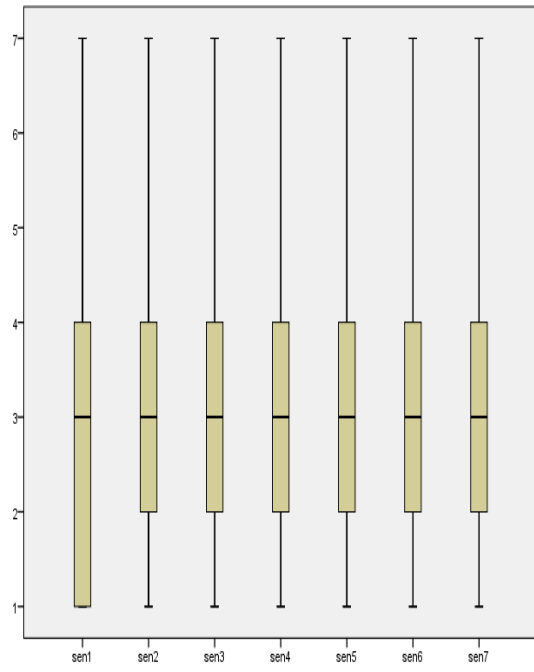
Box Plot for Employee in role Behavior



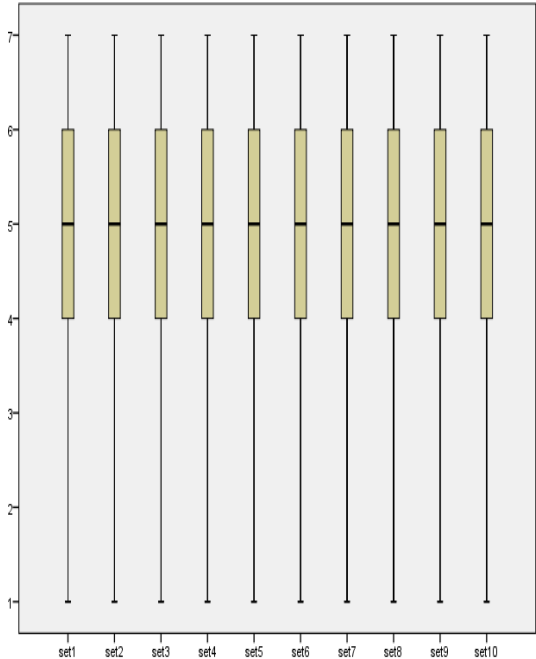
Box Plot for Turnover Intention



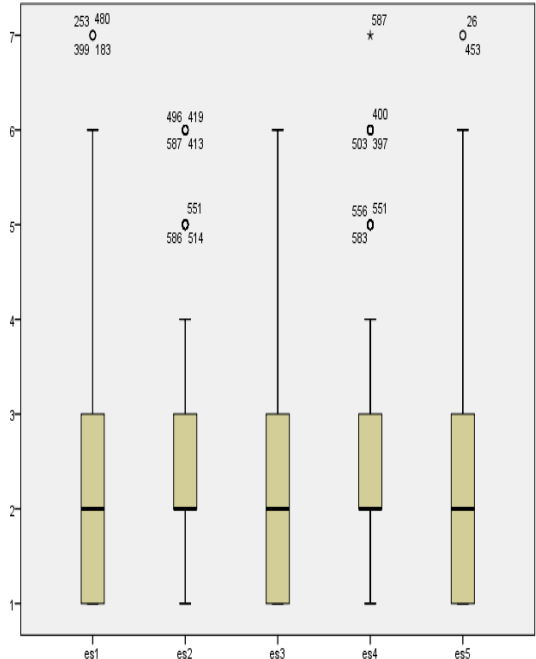
Box Plot for Self-Enhancement



Box Plot for Self-Transcendence



Box Plot for Equity Sensitivity



Annexure C-2: Normality Test

	Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	
dj1	594	1	7	5.12	1.687	-1.234	.100	.748	.200	
dj2	594	1	7	5.14	1.504	-1.122	.100	.764	.200	
dj3	594	1	7	5.17	1.672	-.980	.100	.123	.200	
dj4	594	1	7	5.21	1.7168	-1.149	.100	.516	.200	
pj1	594	1	7	5.10	1.641	-.524	.100	-.701	.200	
pj2	594	1	7	5.14	1.531	-.477	.100	-.636	.200	
pj3	594	1	7	4.91	1.681	-.229	.100	-1.021	.200	
pj4	594	1	7	4.80	1.604	-.144	.100	-.976	.200	
pj5	594	1	7	4.73	1.541	-.141	.100	-.690	.200	
pj6	594	1	7	5.11	1.608	-.663	.100	-.329	.200	
pj7	594	1	7	5.13	1.612	-.591	.100	-.415	.200	
int1	594	1	7	5.47	1.473	-1.357	.100	1.696	.200	
int2	594	1	7	5.44	1.429	-1.190	.100	1.069	.200	
int3	594	1	7	5.54	1.397	-1.251	.100	1.424	.200	
int4	594	1	7	5.57	1.312	-1.443	.100	2.410	.200	
inf1	594	1	7	4.81	1.746	-.782	.100	-.475	.200	
inf2	594	1	7	5.00	1.625	-.994	.100	-.006	.200	
inf3	594	1	7	5.02	1.506	-.971	.100	.379	.200	
inf4	594	1	7	4.95	1.532	-.688	.100	-.347	.200	
inf5	594	1	7	5.14	1.632	-1.089	.100	.411	.200	
eef1	594	1	7	2.28	1.467	1.434	.100	1.491	.200	
eef2	594	1	7	2.41	1.591	1.410	.100	1.179	.200	
eef3	594	1	7	2.30	1.604	1.398	.100	1.065	.200	
ore1	594	1	7	5.37	1.378	-.841	.100	.723	.200	
ore2	594	1	7	5.38	1.367	-.667	.100	.253	.200	
ore3	594	1	7	5.37	1.355	-.670	.100	.363	.200	
ore4	594	1	7	5.30	1.331	-.537	.100	.160	.200	
ore5	594	1	7	5.35	1.349	-.646	.100	.206	.200	
ore6	594	1	7	5.25	1.366	-.627	.100	.194	.200	
ore7	594	1	7	5.33	1.383	-.625	.100	-.079	.200	
bo1	594	1	7	2.75	1.643	.821	.100	-.072	.200	
bo2	594	1	7	2.57	1.573	.990	.100	.311	.200	
bo3	594	1	7	2.63	1.654	.992	.100	.160	.200	
bo4	594	1	7	2.87	1.675	.810	.100	-.184	.200	
bo5	594	1	7	2.69	1.656	.914	.100	-.038	.200	
bo6	594	1	7	2.78	1.709	.946	.100	-.007	.200	
bo7	594	1	7	2.92	1.767	.866	.100	-.214	.200	
oc1	594	1	7	4.78	1.706	-.542	.100	-.547	.200	
oc2	594	1	7	4.61	1.631	-.470	.100	-.862	.200	
oc3	594	1	7	4.77	1.562	-.600	.100	-.344	.200	
oc4	594	1	7	5.05	1.588	-.643	.100	-.364	.200	
oc5	594	1	7	4.93	1.530	-.564	.100	-.303	.200	
oc6	594	1	7	4.94	1.545	-.586	.100	-.355	.200	
emps1	594	1	7	5.23	1.474	-1.179	.100	1.115	.200	
emps2	594	1	7	5.23	1.436	-1.209	.100	1.156	.200	
emps3	594	1	7	5.12	1.480	-1.055	.100	1.035	.200	
emb1	594	1	7	5.01	1.532	-.568	.100	.053	.200	
emb2	594	1	7	5.07	1.439	-.523	.100	.182	.200	
emb3	594	1	7	5.04	1.471	-.599	.100	.323	.200	
emb4	594	1	7	4.89	1.525	-.347	.100	-.243	.200	
emb5	594	1	7	4.86	1.412	-.469	.100	.351	.200	
emb6	594	1	7	4.87	1.455	-.374	.100	-.106	.200	
emb7	594	1	7	4.94	1.533	-.558	.100	.142	.200	
toi1	594	1	7	2.68	1.687	.878	.100	-.148	.200	
toi2	594	1	7	2.81	1.766	.842	.100	-.461	.200	
toi3	594	1	7	2.71	1.679	.877	.100	-.196	.200	
sen1	594	1	7	3.094	1.8696	.605	.100	-.715	.200	
sen2	594	1	7	3.177	1.7444	.536	.100	-.711	.200	
sen3	594	1	7	3.190	1.8353	.544	.100	-.801	.200	
sen4	594	1	7	3.237	1.8160	.541	.100	-.681	.200	
sen5	594	1	7	3.130	1.7006	.544	.100	-.569	.200	
sen6	594	1	7	3.241	1.6684	.585	.100	-.373	.200	
sen7	594	1	7	3.209	1.8199	.584	.100	-.667	.200	
set1	594	1	7	4.589	1.8446	-.635	.100	-.477	.200	
set2	594	1	7	4.638	1.8018	-.591	.100	-.581	.200	
set3	594	1	7	4.754	1.8106	-.631	.100	-.505	.200	
set4	594	1	7	4.798	1.8049	-.606	.100	-.629	.200	
set5	594	1	7	4.850	1.7785	-.608	.100	-.571	.200	
set6	594	1	7	4.776	1.6987	-.508	.100	-.585	.200	
set7	594	1	7	4.771	1.6338	-.522	.100	-.392	.200	
set8	594	1	7	4.680	1.8028	-.591	.100	-.605	.200	
set9	594	1	7	4.731	1.7743	-.595	.100	-.551	.200	
set10	594	1	7	4.758	1.7534	-.608	.100	-.494	.200	
es1	594	1	7	5.315	1.8587	-1.082	.101	.085	.201	
es2	594	1	7	5.237	1.7855	-1.106	.101	.210	.200	
es3	594	1	7	5.122	1.7549	-1.043	.101	.115	.200	
es4	594	1	7	5.215	1.7323	-1.043	.100	.189	.201	
es5	594	1	7	5.115	1.6169	-1.153	.100	.316	.202	
Valid N (listwise)	594									

Tests of Normality

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Distributive Justice	.185	593	.000	.834	593	.000
Procedural Justice	.142	593	.000	.895	593	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.183	593	.000	.881	593	.000
Informational Justice	.202	593	.000	.876	593	.000
Employee Effort	.177	593	.000	.901	593	.000
Organizational Reward	.124	593	.000	.906	593	.000
Job-burnout	.233	593	.000	.808	593	.000
Organizational Commitment	.113	593	.000	.938	593	.000
Employee Performance	.216	593	.000	.828	593	.000
Employee in Role Behavior	.134	593	.000	.894	593	.000
Turnover Intention	.235	593	.000	.836	593	.000
Self-Enhancement	.169	593	.000	.881	593	.000
Self-Transcendence	.179	593	.000	.874	593	.000
Equity Sensitivity	.188	593	.000	.847	593	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Observations Farthest from the Centroid (Mahalanobis Distance)

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
346	133.169	.000	.000
454	128.512	.000	.000
399	128.158	.000	.000
541	123.713	.000	.000
364	123.353	.000	.000
547	122.962	.000	.000
528	121.957	.000	.000
558	121.589	.000	.000
576	121.417	.000	.000
571	119.603	.000	.000
215	117.681	.000	.000
530	117.558	.000	.000

After removing multivariate outliers

Items	Descriptive Statistics									
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	
dj1	583	1	7	5.13	1.686	-1.237	.101	.759	.202	
dj2	583	1	7	5.14	1.505	-1.129	.101	.789	.202	
dj3	583	1	7	5.18	1.670	-.971	.101	.112	.202	
dj4	583	1	7	5.202	1.7137	-1.139	.101	.498	.202	
pj1	583	1	7	5.11	1.640	-.515	.101	-.725	.202	
pj2	583	1	7	5.13	1.520	-.460	.101	-.655	.202	
pj3	583	1	7	4.91	1.684	-.232	.101	-1.016	.202	
pj4	583	1	7	4.79	1.598	-.145	.101	-.956	.202	
pj5	583	1	7	4.71	1.538	-.134	.101	-.674	.202	
pj6	583	1	7	5.11	1.603	-.659	.101	-.339	.202	
pj7	583	1	7	5.11	1.611	-.587	.101	-.406	.202	
int1	583	1	7	5.50	1.450	-1.371	.101	1.800	.202	
int2	583	1	7	5.46	1.420	-1.217	.101	1.178	.202	
int3	583	1	7	5.55	1.374	-1.258	.101	1.511	.202	
int4	583	1	7	5.59	1.295	-1.435	.101	2.302	.202	
inf1	583	1	7	4.83	1.738	-.794	.101	-.447	.202	
inf2	583	1	7	5.03	1.611	-1.035	.101	.120	.202	
inf3	583	1	7	5.04	1.491	-.974	.101	.403	.202	
inf4	583	1	7	4.96	1.531	-.687	.101	-.359	.202	
inf5	583	1	7	5.17	1.610	-1.111	.101	.510	.202	
eef1	583	1	7	2.28	1.471	1.446	.101	1.514	.202	
eef2	583	1	7	2.41	1.592	1.416	.101	1.201	.202	
eef3	583	1	7	2.30	1.606	1.407	.101	1.085	.202	
ore1	583	1	7	5.39	1.364	-.811	.101	.626	.202	
ore2	583	1	7	5.38	1.361	-.642	.101	.174	.202	
ore3	583	1	7	5.38	1.346	-.656	.101	.322	.202	
ore4	583	1	7	5.31	1.333	-.550	.101	.181	.202	
ore5	583	1	7	5.36	1.351	-.654	.101	.224	.202	
ore6	583	1	7	5.27	1.357	-.636	.101	.235	.202	
ore7	583	1	7	5.34	1.388	-.644	.101	-.071	.202	
bo1	583	1	7	2.76	1.649	.814	.101	-.097	.202	
bo2	583	1	7	2.58	1.576	.979	.101	.292	.202	
bo3	583	1	7	2.64	1.653	.989	.101	.162	.202	
bo4	583	1	7	2.88	1.678	.800	.101	-.203	.202	
bo5	583	1	7	2.70	1.657	.901	.101	-.055	.202	
bo6	583	1	7	2.79	1.706	.936	.101	-.027	.202	
bo7	583	1	7	2.93	1.764	.850	.101	-.236	.202	
oc1	583	1	7	4.78	1.711	-.532	.101	-.572	.202	
oc2	583	1	7	4.60	1.637	-.460	.101	-.890	.202	
oc3	583	1	7	4.76	1.556	-.592	.101	-.355	.202	
oc4	583	1	7	5.04	1.595	-.642	.101	-.387	.202	
oc5	583	1	7	4.93	1.532	-.562	.101	-.313	.202	
oc6	583	1	7	4.94	1.549	-.603	.101	-.347	.202	
emps1	583	1	7	5.24	1.472	-1.212	.101	1.216	.202	
emps2	583	1	7	5.25	1.418	-1.217	.101	1.247	.202	
emps3	583	1	7	5.14	1.466	-1.060	.101	1.092	.202	
empb1	583	1	7	5.02	1.539	-.578	.101	.047	.202	
empb2	583	1	7	5.07	1.444	-.527	.101	.178	.202	
empb3	583	1	7	5.05	1.472	-.601	.101	.335	.202	
empb4	583	1	7	4.88	1.525	-.350	.101	-.231	.202	
empb5	583	1	7	4.86	1.420	-.475	.101	.334	.202	
empb6	583	1	7	4.87	1.455	-.375	.101	-.097	.202	
empb7	583	1	7	4.94	1.539	-.568	.101	.141	.202	
toi1	583	1	7	2.66	1.669	.888	.101	-.112	.202	
toi2	583	1	7	2.79	1.745	.857	.101	-.411	.202	
toi3	583	1	7	2.68	1.660	.895	.101	-.140	.202	
sen1	583	1	7	3.089	1.8712	.610	.101	-.718	.202	
sen2	583	1	7	3.164	1.7356	.536	.101	-.708	.202	
sen3	583	1	7	3.178	1.8342	.557	.101	-.792	.202	
sen4	583	1	7	3.229	1.8134	.553	.101	-.656	.202	
sen5	583	1	7	3.125	1.7035	.552	.101	-.560	.202	
sen6	583	1	7	3.233	1.6506	.580	.101	-.359	.202	
sen7	583	1	7	3.205	1.8154	.586	.101	-.653	.202	
set1	583	1	7	4.589	1.8389	-.638	.101	-.468	.202	
set2	583	1	7	4.639	1.7971	-.599	.101	-.566	.202	
set3	583	1	7	4.776	1.7946	-.635	.101	-.479	.202	
set4	583	1	7	4.815	1.8015	-.621	.101	-.607	.202	
set5	583	1	7	4.870	1.7737	-.622	.101	-.541	.202	
set6	583	1	7	4.798	1.6793	-.501	.101	-.585	.202	
set7	583	1	7	4.784	1.6246	-.523	.101	-.383	.202	
set8	583	1	7	4.709	1.7989	-.620	.101	-.561	.202	
set9	583	1	7	4.752	1.7605	-.602	.101	-.523	.202	
set10	583	1	7	4.767	1.7436	-.616	.101	-.459	.202	
es1	583	1	7	2.375	1.3528	.844	.101	.146	.202	
es2	583	1	7	2.450	1.2836	.970	.101	.459	.202	
es3	583	1	7	2.402	1.2795	.857	.101	.259	.202	
es4	583	1	7	2.462	1.3052	.979	.101	.402	.202	
es5	583	1	7	2.428	1.3928	.959	.101	.300	.202	
Valid N (listwise)	583									

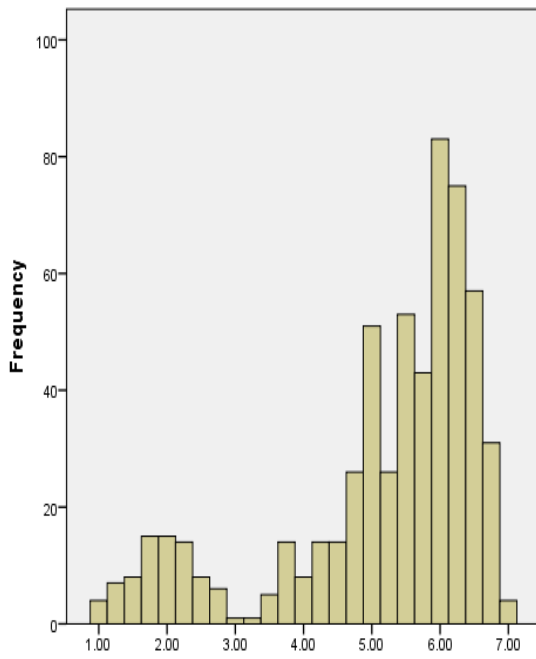
Tests of Normality

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Distributive Justice	.185	583	.000	.834	583	.000
Procedural Justice	.144	583	.000	.893	583	.000
Interpersonal Justice	.184	583	.000	.881	583	.000
Informational Justice	.205	583	.000	.872	583	.000
Employee Effort	.180	583	.000	.899	583	.000
Organizational Reward	.128	583	.000	.903	583	.000
Job-burnout	.232	583	.000	.809	583	.000
Organizational Commitment	.110	583	.000	.938	583	.000
Employee Performance	.214	583	.000	.826	583	.000
Employee in Role Behavior	.134	583	.000	.893	583	.000
Turnover Intention	.236	583	.000	.835	583	.000
Self-Enhancement	.169	583	.000	.881	583	.000
Self-Transcendence	.183	583	.000	.869	583	.000
Equity Sensitivity	.186	583	.000	.847	583	.000

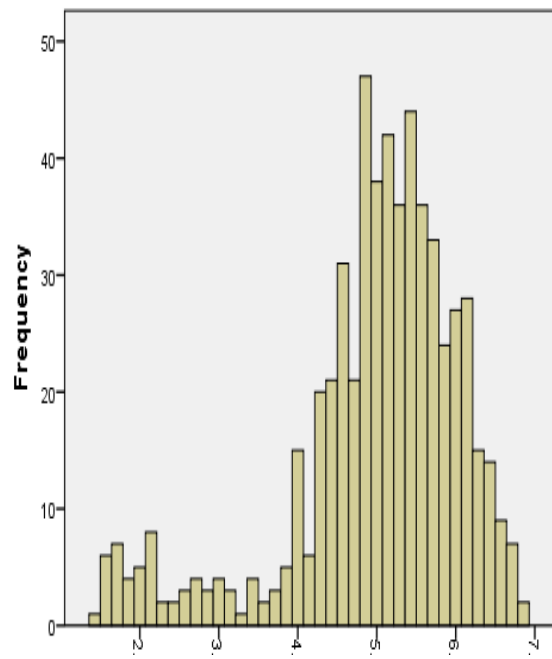
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Annexure C-3: Histogram (Pakistani sample)

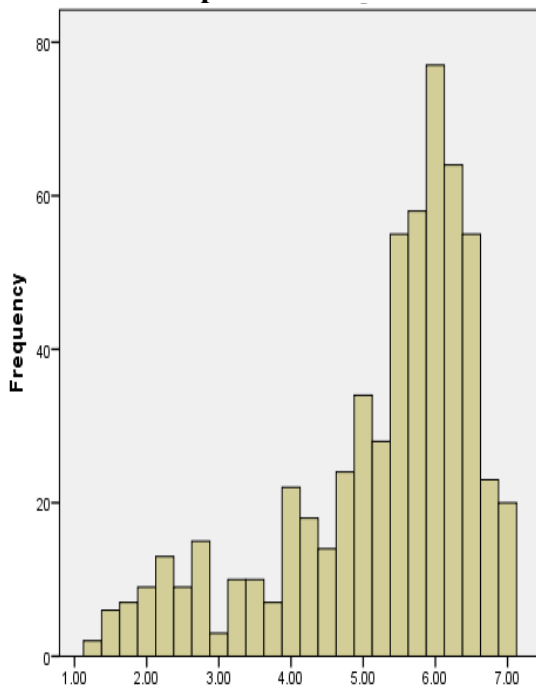
Distributive Justice



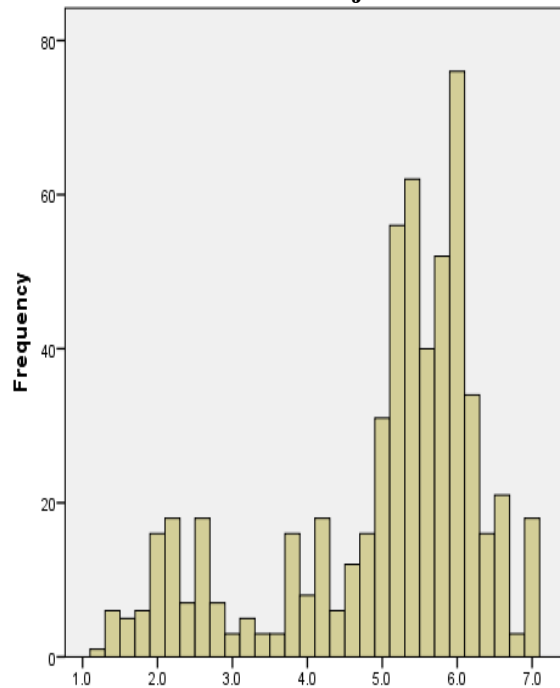
Procedural Justice



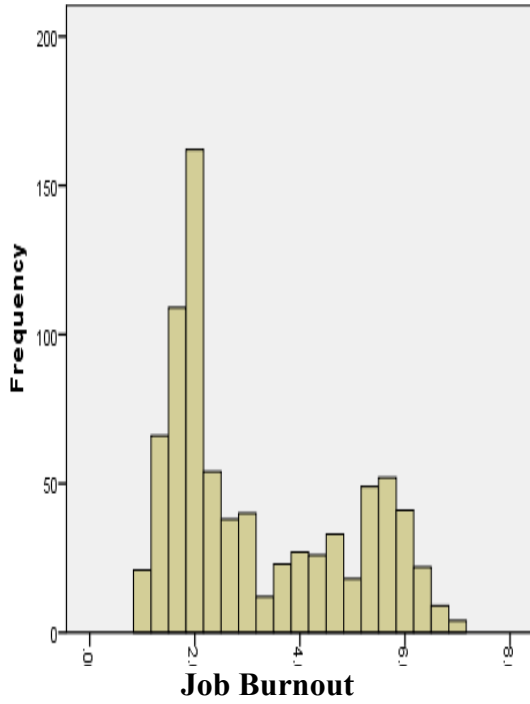
Interpersonal Justice



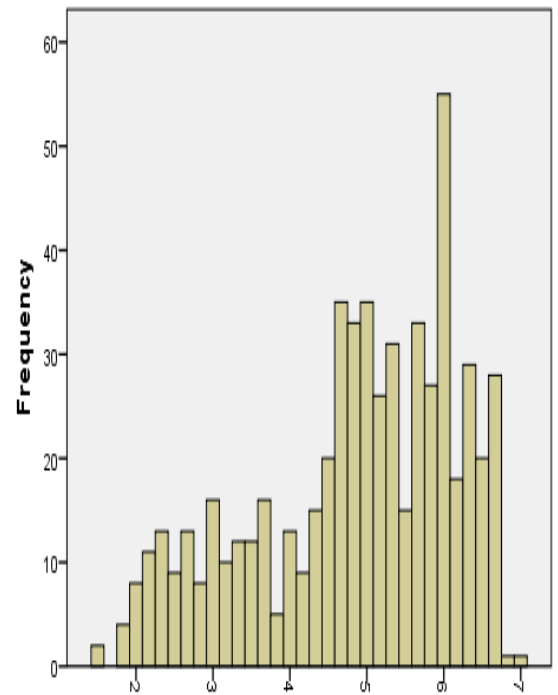
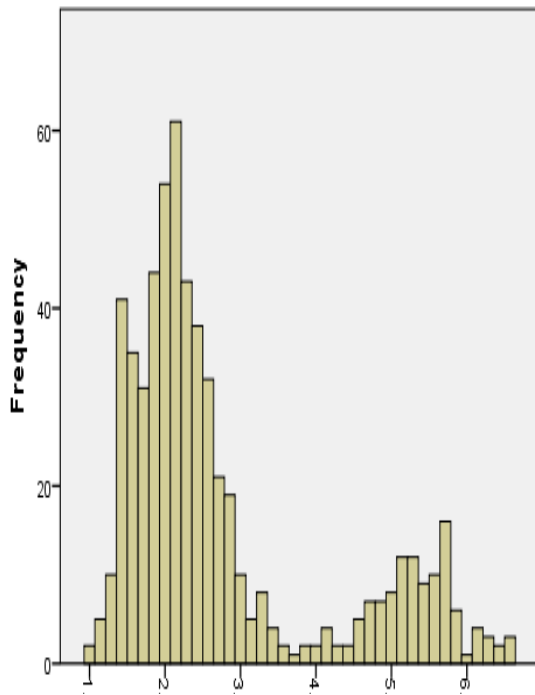
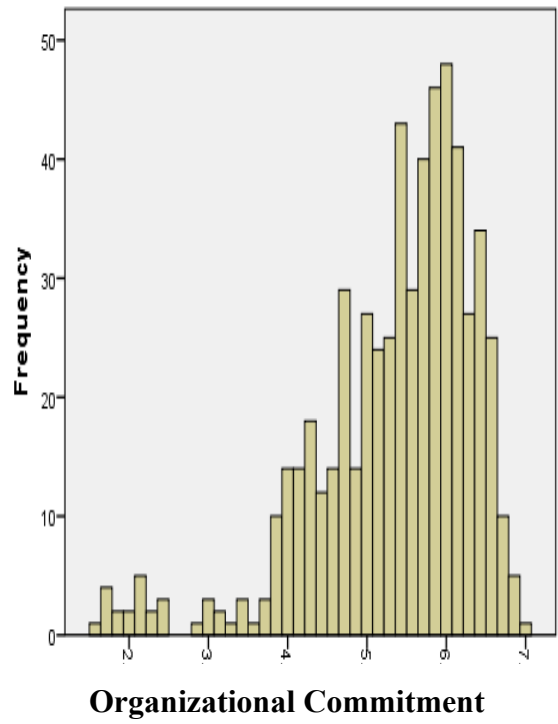
Informational Justice



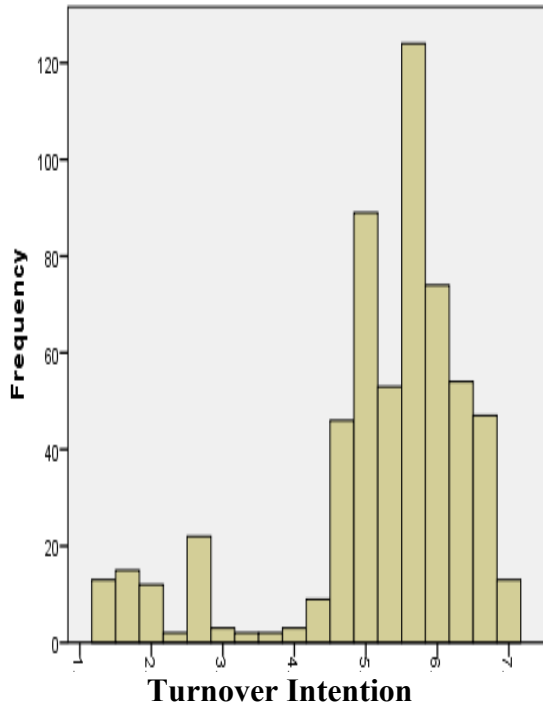
Employees' Efforts



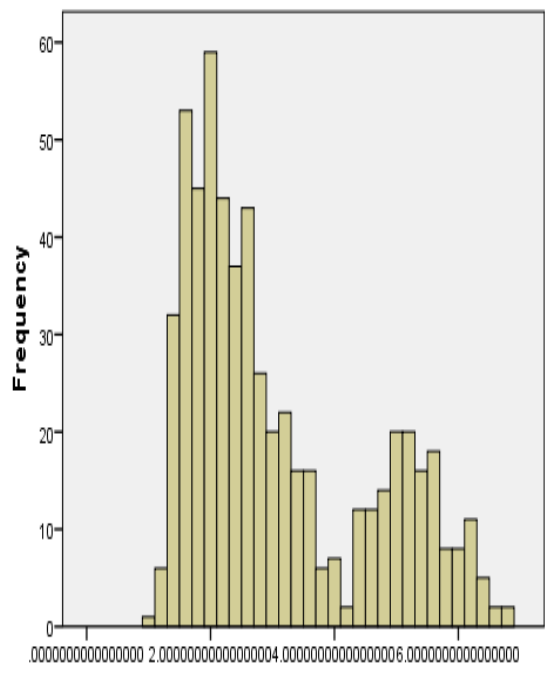
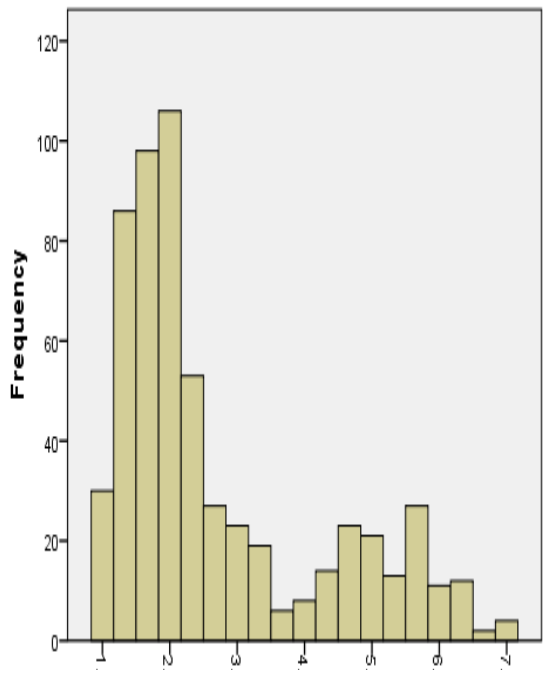
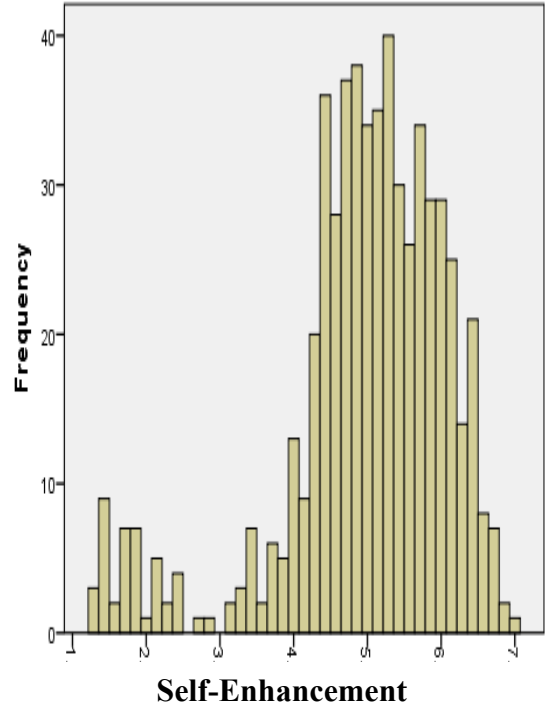
Organizational Rewards



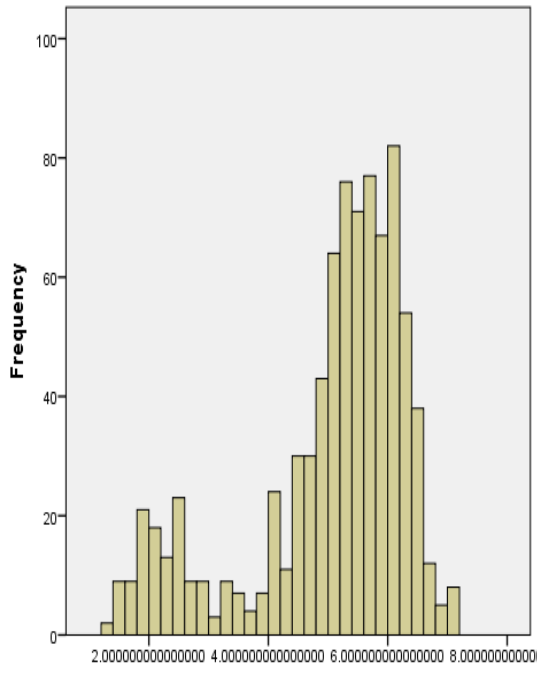
Employee's Performance



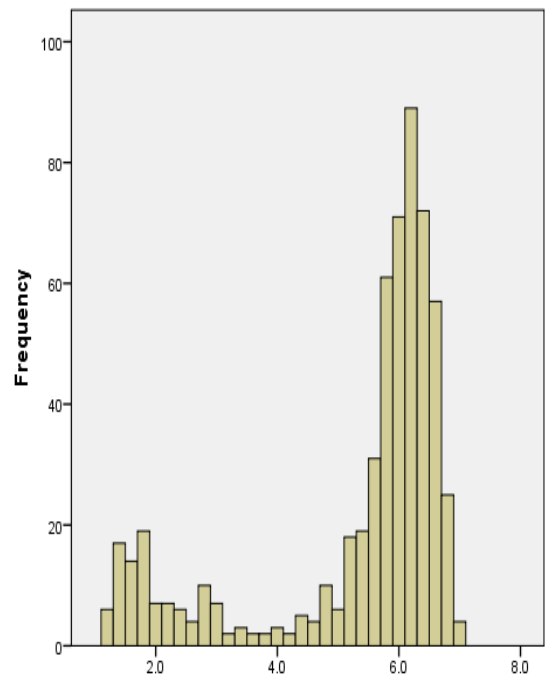
Employees in role Behavior



Self-Transcendence

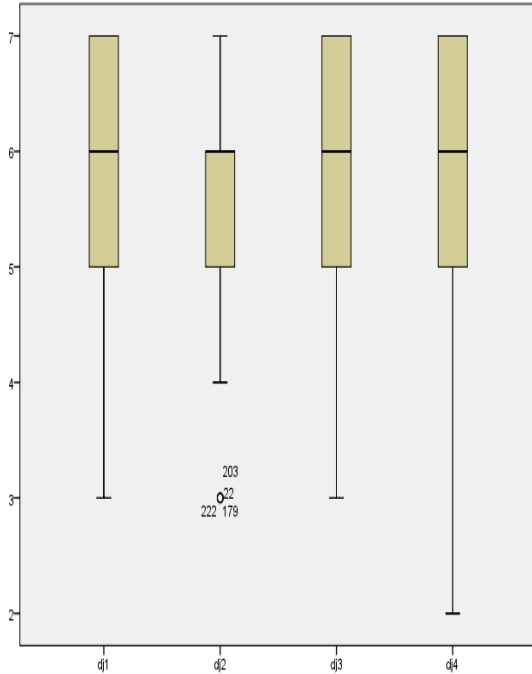


Equity Sensitivity

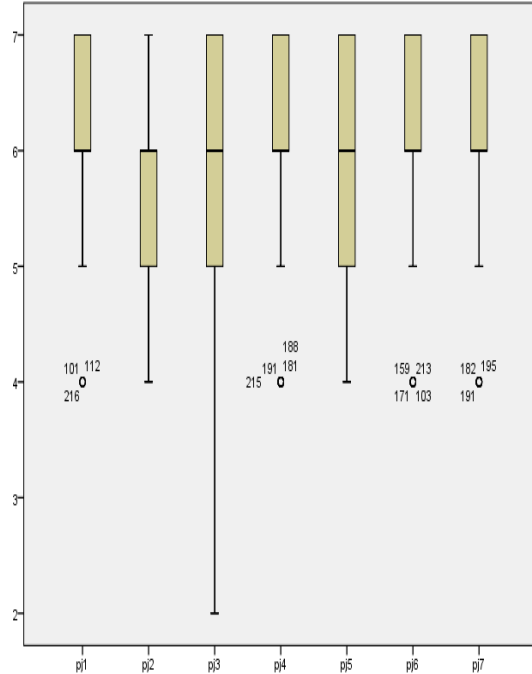


Annexure C-4: Univariate (French Sample)

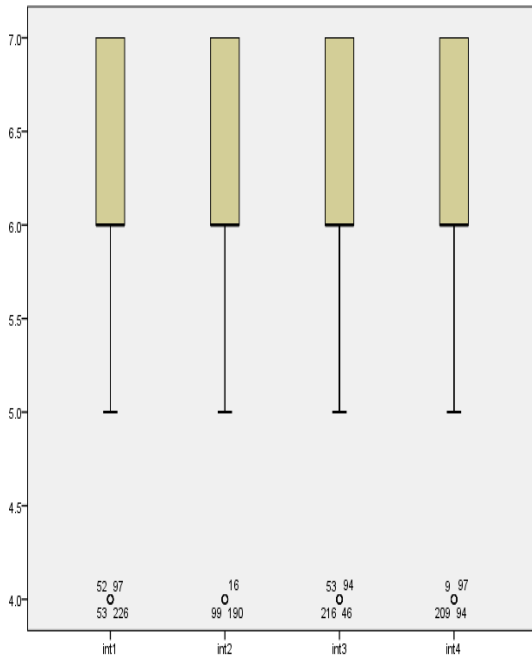
Box Plot for Distributive Justice



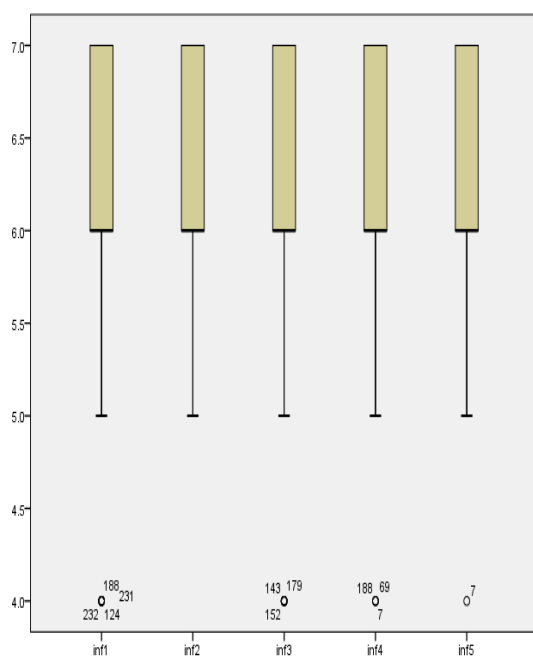
Box Plot for Procedural Justice



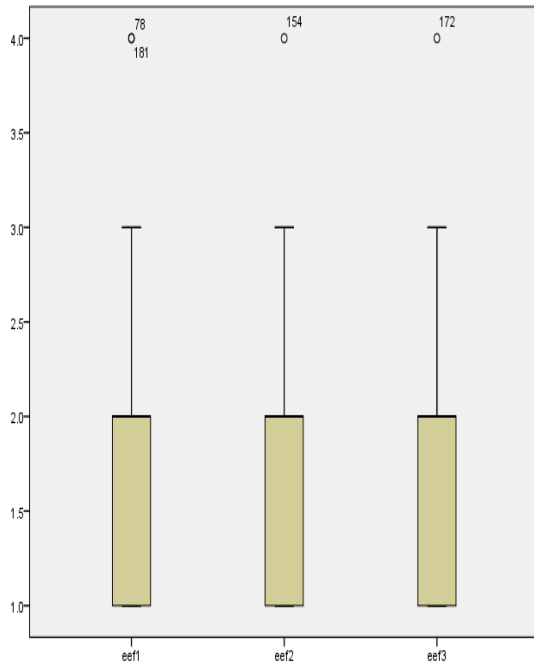
Box Plot for Interpersonal Justice



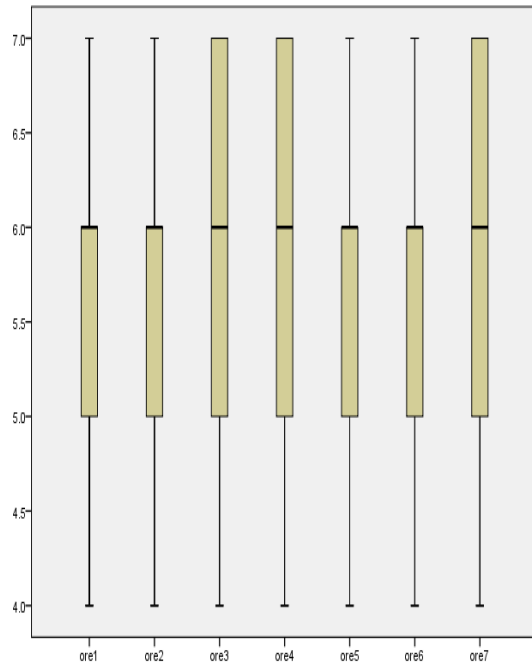
Box Plot for Informational Justice



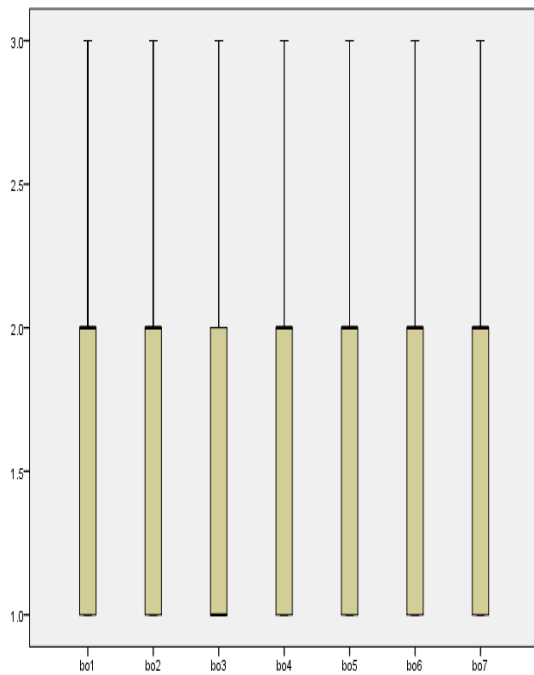
Box Plot for Employees' Efforts



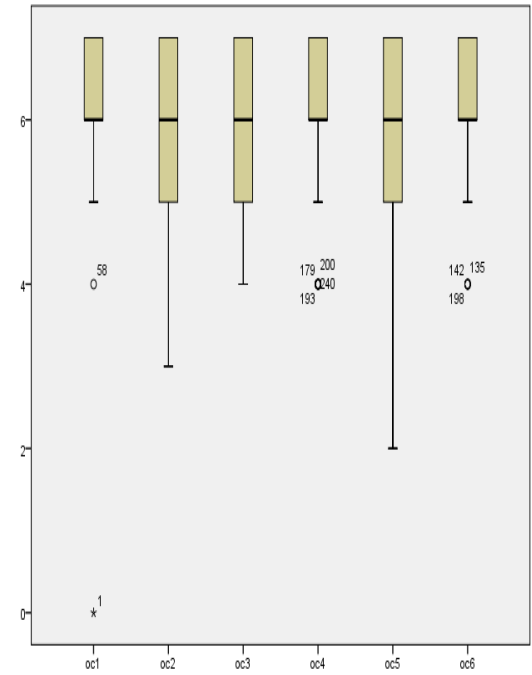
Box Plot for Organizational Rewards



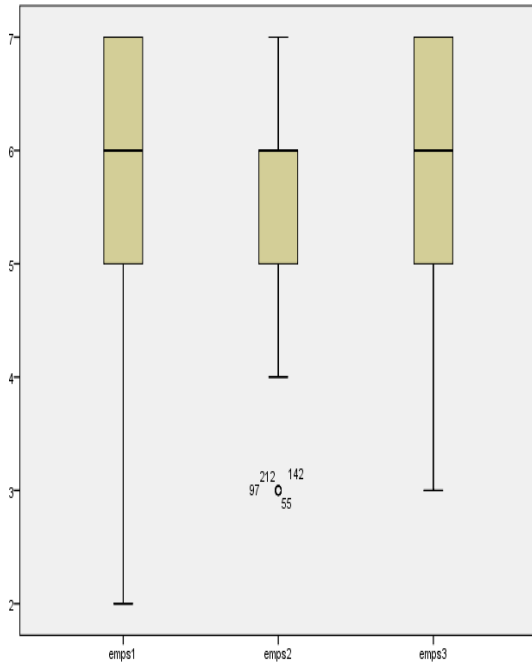
Box Plot for Job Burnout



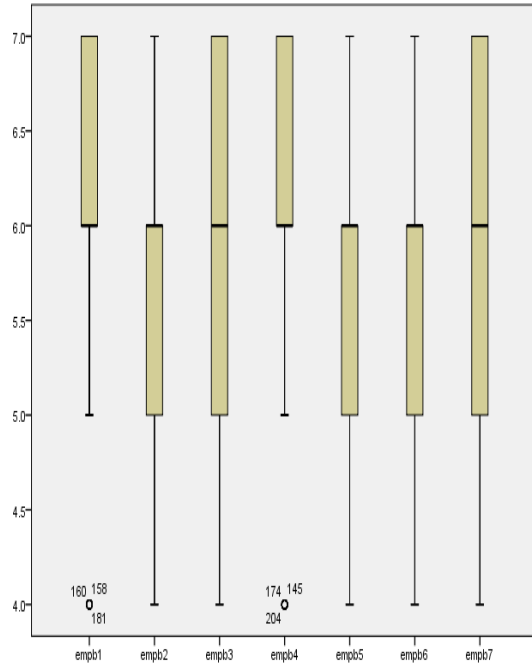
Box Plot for Organizational Commitment



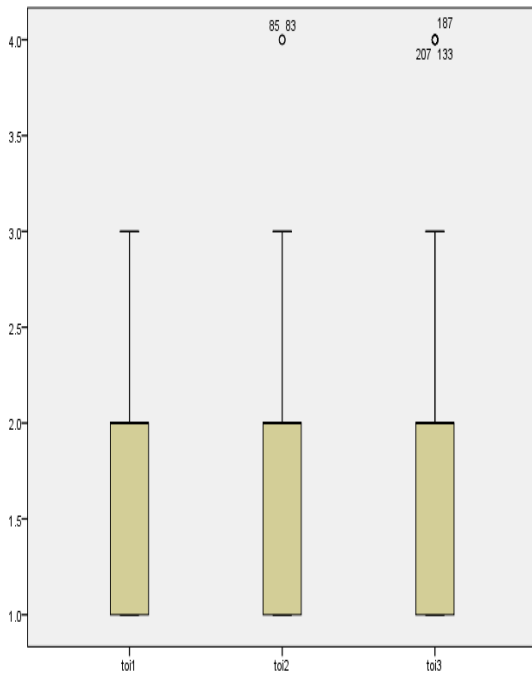
Box Plot for Employees' Performance



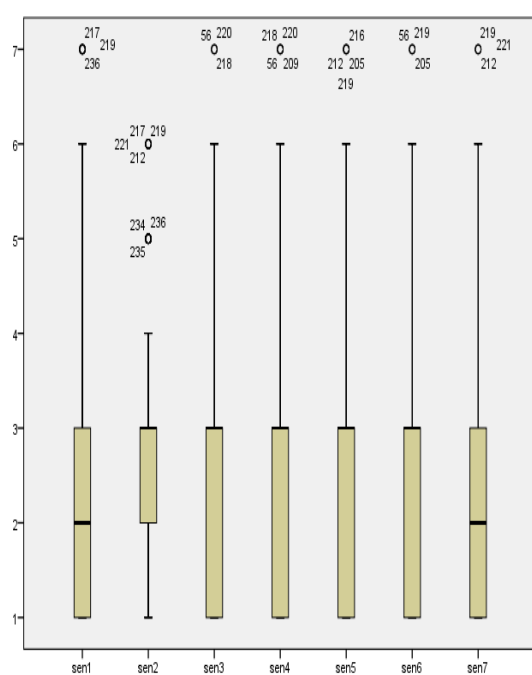
Box Plot for Employee in role Behavior



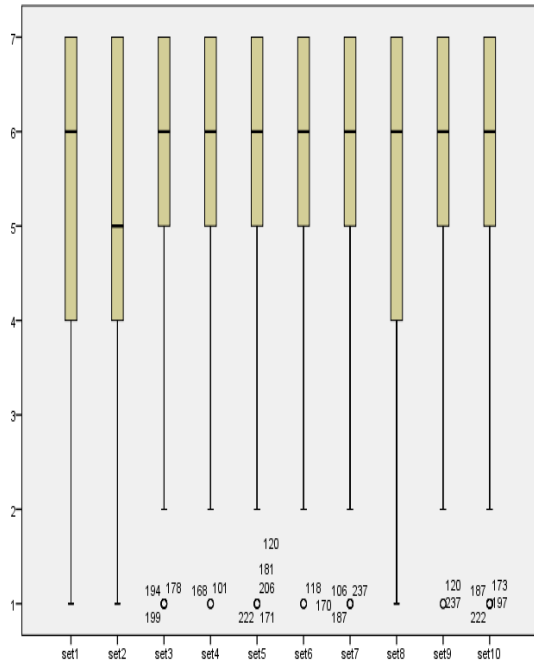
Box Plot for Turnover Intention



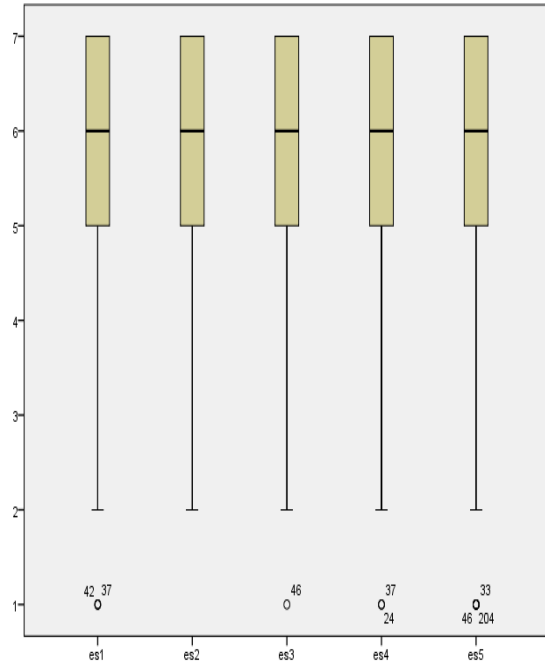
Box Plot for Self-Enhancement



Box Plot for Self-Transcendence



Box Plot for Equity Sensitivity



Annexure C-5: Normality Test

Items	Descriptive Statistics									
	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness		Kurtosis		
						Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	
dj1	241	1	7	5.98	.983	-.720	.157	-.021	.312	
dj2	241	1	7	5.71	1.033	-.757	.157	.939	.312	
dj3	241	1	7	5.81	1.038	-.701	.157	.411	.312	
dj4	241	1	7	5.88	1.006	-.954	.157	1.969	.312	
pj1	241	1	7	6.06	.762	-.383	.157	-.414	.312	
pj2	241	1	7	5.87	.798	-.309	.157	-.363	.312	
pj3	241	1	7	6.02	.904	-.750	.157	.811	.312	
pj4	241	1	7	6.03	.873	-.625	.157	-.287	.312	
pj5	241	1	7	6.00	.906	-.584	.157	-.484	.312	
pj6	241	1	7	6.10	.766	-.613	.157	.143	.312	
pj7	241	1	7	6.27	.826	-.995	.157	.380	.312	
int1	241	1	7	6.21	.753	-.725	.157	.203	.312	
int2	241	1	7	6.17	.758	-.526	.157	-.377	.312	
int3	241	1	7	6.17	.764	-.581	.157	-.221	.312	
int4	241	1	7	6.15	.776	-.482	.157	-.561	.312	
inf1	241	1	7	6.15	.774	-.637	.157	-.001	.312	
inf2	241	1	7	6.17	.667	-.213	.157	-.771	.312	
inf3	241	1	7	6.17	.749	-.657	.157	.151	.312	
inf4	241	1	7	6.24	.709	-.603	.157	-.044	.312	
inf5	241	1	7	6.24	.720	-.472	.157	-.714	.312	
eef1	241	1	7	1.67	.662	.650	.157	.153	.312	
eef2	241	1	7	1.71	.638	.437	.157	-.194	.312	
eef3	241	1	7	1.66	.676	.609	.157	-.347	.312	
ore1	241	1	7	5.79	.922	-.306	.157	-.752	.312	
ore2	241	1	7	5.79	.917	-.362	.157	-.663	.312	
ore3	241	1	7	5.76	.991	-.314	.157	-.942	.312	
ore4	241	1	7	5.71	.983	-.149	.157	-1.034	.312	
ore5	241	1	7	5.77	.929	-.276	.157	-.791	.312	
ore6	241	1	7	5.68	.950	-.222	.157	-.857	.312	
ore7	241	1	7	5.93	.937	-.525	.157	-.608	.312	
bo1	241	1	7	1.66	.712	.592	.157	-.850	.312	
bo2	241	1	7	1.70	.710	.512	.157	-.896	.312	
bo3	241	1	7	1.65	.733	.662	.157	-.871	.312	
bo4	241	1	7	1.61	.680	.660	.157	-.671	.312	
bo5	241	1	7	1.64	.663	.557	.157	-.694	.312	
bo6	241	1	7	1.60	.639	.596	.157	-.601	.312	
bo7	241	1	7	1.68	.679	.505	.157	-.780	.312	
oc1	241	1	7	6.20	.708	-.377	.157	-.691	.312	
oc2	241	1	7	5.92	.881	-.500	.157	-.251	.312	
oc3	241	1	7	6.00	.892	-.576	.157	-.444	.312	
oc4	241	1	7	6.12	.786	-.691	.157	.163	.312	
oc5	241	1	7	5.90	.909	-.564	.157	.352	.312	
oc6	241	1	7	6.20	.801	-.612	.157	-.481	.312	
emps1	241	1	7	5.80	1.020	-.835	.157	1.082	.312	
emps2	241	1	7	5.74	.928	-.309	.157	-.039	.312	
emps3	241	1	7	5.74	.989	-.290	.157	-.515	.312	
empb1	241	1	7	6.14	.835	-.791	.157	.111	.312	
empb2	241	1	7	5.86	.828	-.139	.157	-.781	.312	
empb3	241	1	7	6.01	.885	-.598	.157	-.369	.312	
empb4	241	1	7	6.10	.906	-.699	.157	-.399	.312	
empb5	241	1	7	5.78	.924	-.293	.157	-.768	.312	
empb6	241	1	7	5.66	.918	-.088	.157	-.843	.312	
empb7	241	1	7	5.87	.964	-.302	.157	-1.001	.312	
toi1	241	1	7	1.72	.738	.503	.157	-1.020	.312	
toi2	241	1	7	1.82	.767	.428	.157	-.837	.312	
toi3	241	1	7	1.85	.836	.667	.157	-.301	.312	
sen1	241	1	7	2.585	1.4755	.962	.157	.717	.312	
sen2	241	1	7	2.664	1.3067	.519	.157	-.139	.312	
sen3	241	1	7	2.643	1.3622	.668	.157	.309	.312	
sen4	241	1	7	2.656	1.4640	.718	.157	.143	.312	
sen5	241	1	7	2.573	1.3769	.746	.157	.433	.312	
sen6	241	1	7	2.622	1.3611	.769	.157	.546	.312	
sen7	241	1	7	2.606	1.4369	.810	.157	.204	.312	
set1	241	1	7	5.344	1.6788	-.977	.157	.290	.312	
set2	241	1	7	5.303	1.6032	-.791	.157	-.104	.312	
set3	241	1	7	5.386	1.6035	-.990	.157	.319	.312	
set4	241	1	7	5.436	1.5455	-.886	.157	.075	.312	
set5	241	1	7	5.440	1.5102	-.952	.157	.473	.312	
set6	241	1	7	5.444	1.4937	-.844	.157	.124	.312	
set7	241	1	7	5.419	1.5635	-.963	.157	.254	.312	
set8	241	1	7	5.361	1.4572	-.753	.157	-.045	.312	
set9	241	1	7	5.353	1.5316	-.841	.157	-.004	.312	
set10	241	1	7	5.398	1.5299	-.953	.157	.479	.312	
Valid N (listwise)	241									

Tests of Normality

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Distributive Justice	.173	241	.000	.907	241	.000
Procedural Justice	.155	241	.000	.938	241	.000
Interactional Justice	.162	241	.000	.930	241	.000
Informational Justice	.168	241	.000	.940	241	.000
Employee Effort	.234	241	.000	.890	241	.000
Organizational Reward	.091	241	.000	.974	241	.000
Job-burnout	.179	241	.000	.932	241	.000
Organizational Commitment	.156	241	.000	.943	241	.000
Employee Performance	.137	241	.000	.925	241	.000
Employee in Role Behavior	.116	241	.000	.975	241	.000
Turnover Intention	.186	241	.000	.919	241	.000
Self-Enhancement	.190	241	.000	.840	241	.000
Self-Transcendence	.237	241	.000	.763	241	.000
Equity Sensitivity	.239	241	.000	.785	241	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

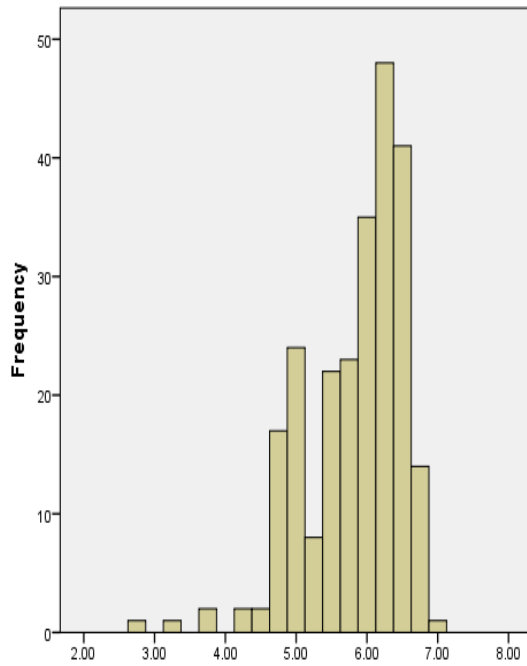
Observations Farthest from the Centroid (Mahalanobis Distance)

Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
188	102.969	.008	.851
222	101.456	.010	.710
9	99.157	.015	.715
179	97.783	.019	.684
212	96.795	.023	.639
46	96.320	.024	.540
69	95.442	.028	.520
84	95.377	.028	.380
145	95.161	.029	.281
216	94.646	.032	.243
51	94.264	.034	.197
177	93.328	.039	.236
42	92.573	.044	.259
7	91.446	.052	.365
171	91.041	.055	.343
56	90.698	.058	.314
135	90.265	.061	.308
203	89.703	.066	.334
142	89.275	.070	.336
112	88.162	.082	.507
183	88.147	.082	.418
121	87.929	.084	.382
199	87.863	.085	.315
172	86.224	.105	.647
215	86.190	.106	.574
231	85.877	.110	.576
174	85.476	.116	.603
154	85.013	.123	.650
94	84.688	.128	.662
99	84.662	.128	.596
147	84.097	.137	.678
208	83.832	.142	.680
194	83.567	.146	.684
97	83.477	.148	.640

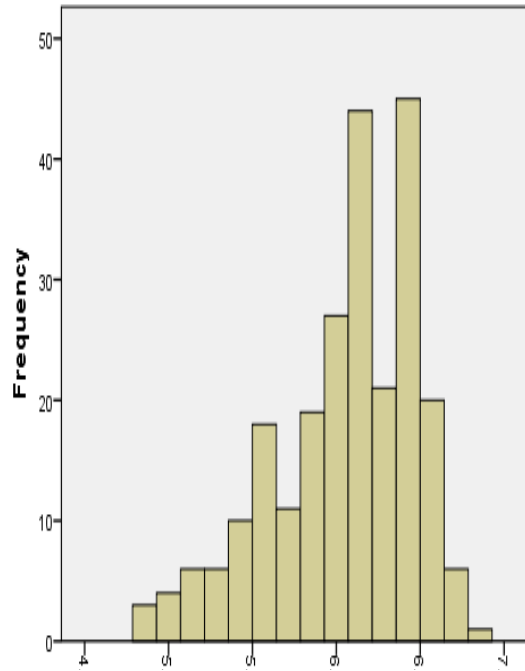
Observation number	Mahalanobis d-squared	p1	p2
214	82.968	.157	.714
159	82.494	.165	.774
178	82.209	.171	.787
107	82.056	.174	.771
190	82.056	.174	.715
91	82.039	.174	.658
83	81.927	.176	.627
37	81.857	.178	.583
111	81.768	.180	.545
124	81.651	.182	.516
62	81.562	.184	.479
103	81.529	.184	.424
85	81.352	.188	.416
75	81.309	.189	.368
210	81.111	.193	.368
119	81.067	.194	.323
152	80.851	.199	.330
95	80.247	.212	.466
202	80.233	.212	.409
108	80.021	.217	.419
82	79.908	.220	.397
184	79.684	.225	.412
140	79.623	.226	.374
187	79.589	.227	.328
204	79.377	.232	.341
15	79.364	.232	.292
71	78.996	.241	.355
114	78.893	.244	.334
226	78.256	.260	.498
116	78.179	.261	.467
52	78.059	.265	.452
181	77.978	.267	.424
200	77.731	.273	.456
146	77.712	.274	.407
209	77.610	.276	.387
198	77.214	.287	.475
237	77.132	.289	.449
155	77.036	.292	.429
138	76.901	.295	.423
66	76.861	.296	.383
207	76.793	.298	.355
101	76.788	.298	.306
205	76.744	.300	.272
53	76.635	.303	.261
76	76.529	.306	.248
175	76.301	.312	.274
77	76.121	.317	.286
234	76.055	.319	.261
73	76.009	.320	.232
136	75.952	.322	.208
143	75.789	.327	.214
104	75.621	.332	.222
192	75.396	.338	.247
93	75.357	.339	.218
206	75.309	.341	.193
157	75.263	.342	.170
79	74.700	.359	.296
4	74.655	.360	.266
60	74.608	.362	.238
113	74.579	.363	.207
58	74.309	.371	.247
22	74.270	.372	.219
16	74.239	.373	.190
72	73.753	.388	.300
68	73.603	.393	.307
213	73.465	.397	.310

Annexure C-6: Histogram (French Sample)

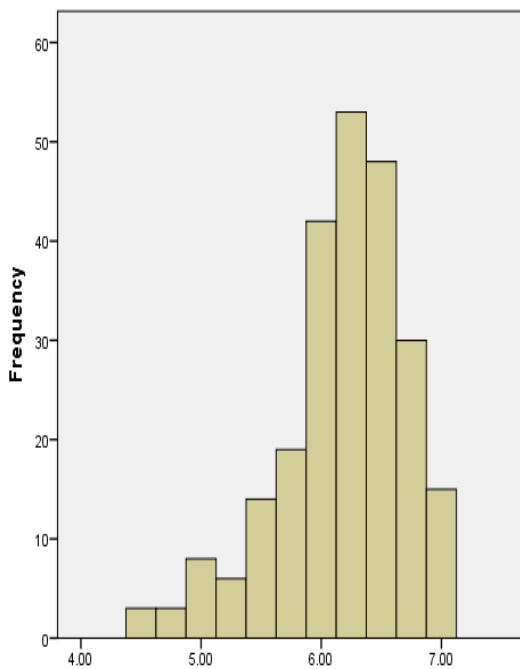
Distributive Justice



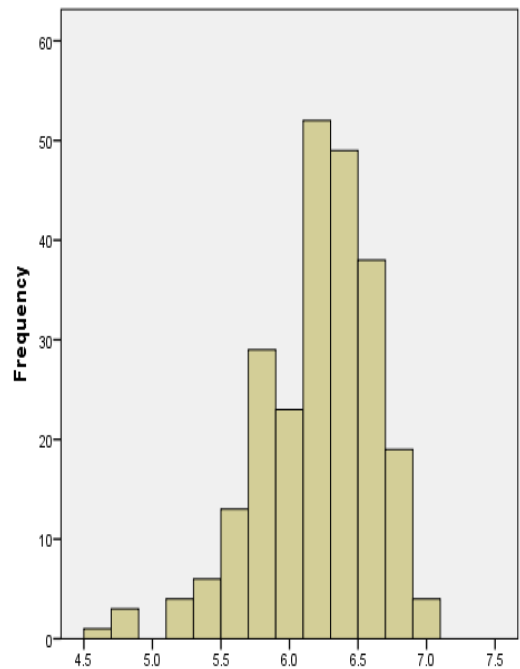
Procedural Justice



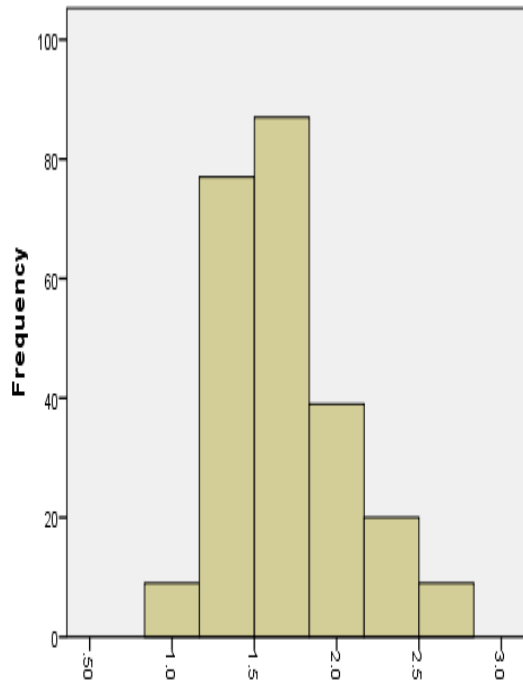
Interpersonal Justice



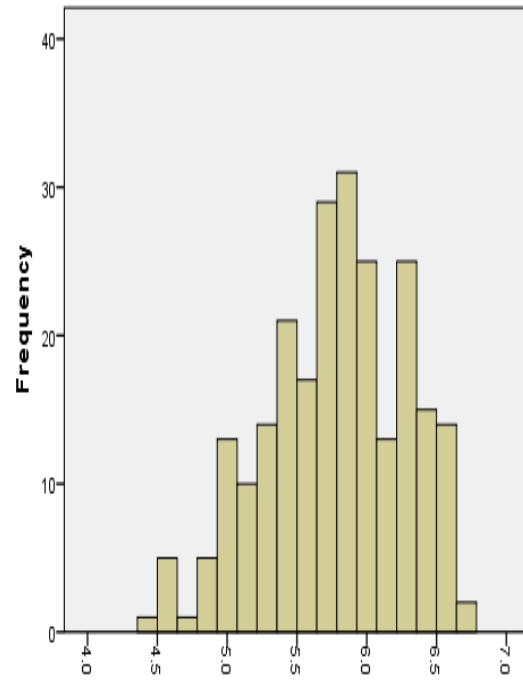
Informational Justice



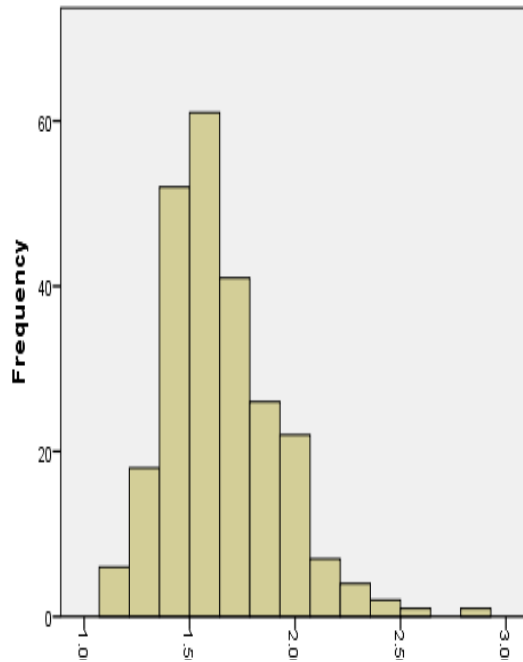
Employees' Efforts



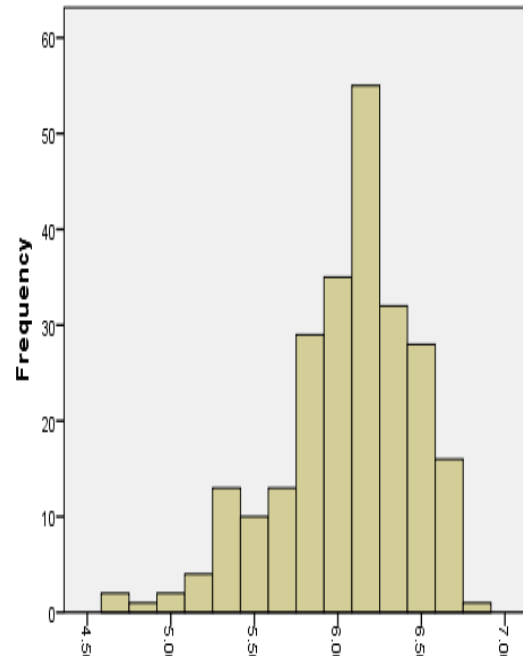
Organizational Rewards



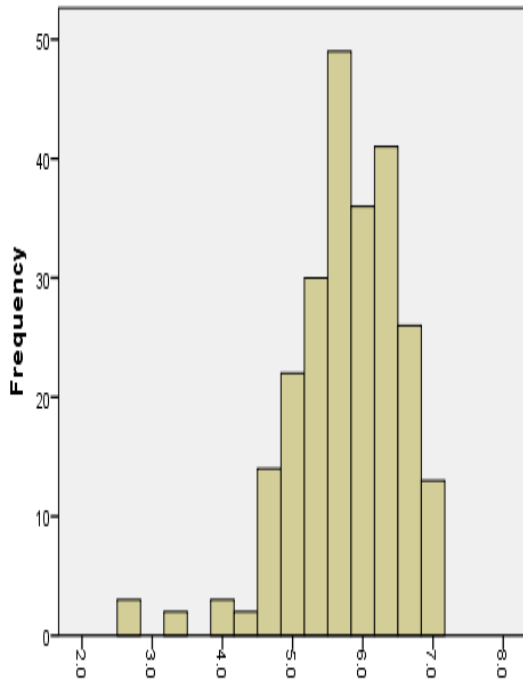
Job Burnout



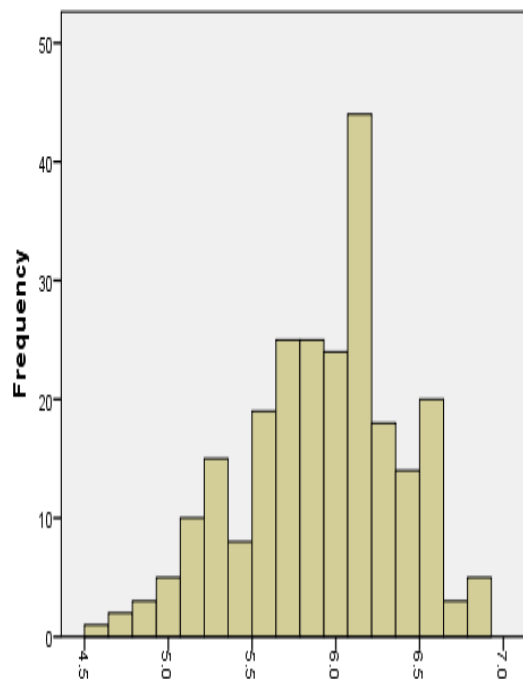
Organizational Commitment



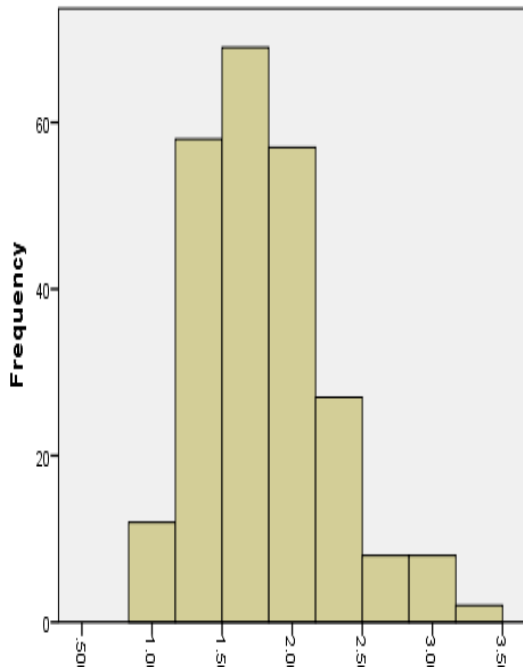
Employee's Performance



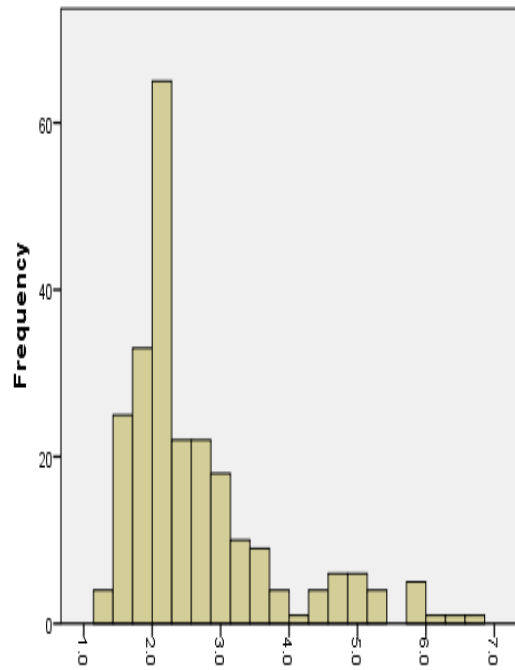
Employees in role Behavior



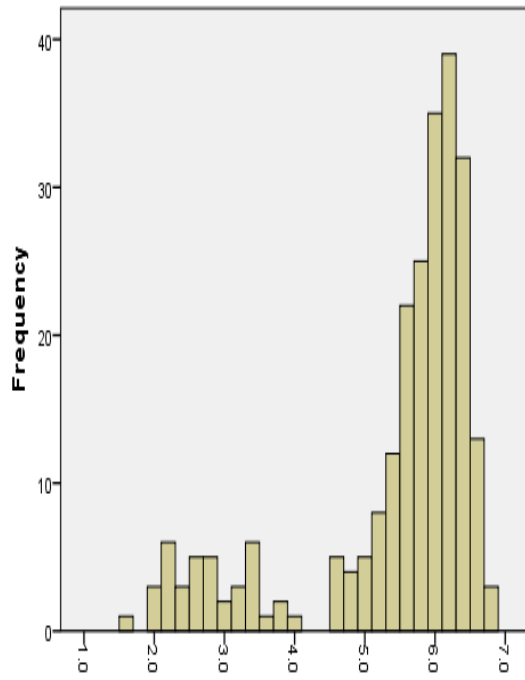
Turnover Intention



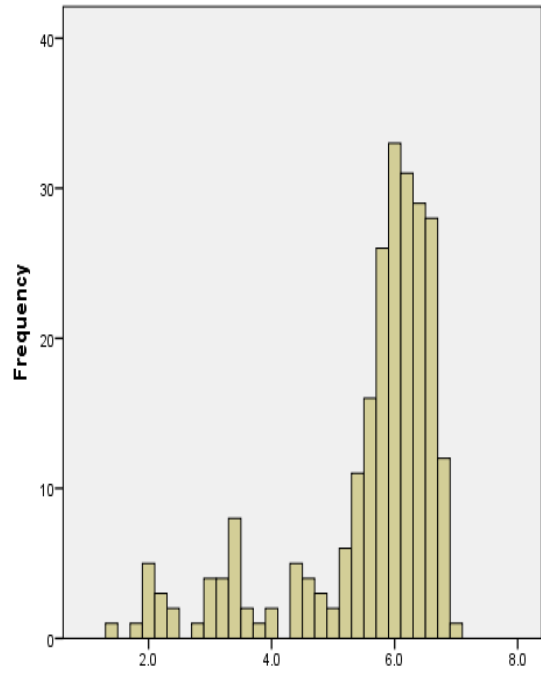
Self-Enhancement



Self-Transcendence



Equity Sensitivity



Annexure D-1: Model-Fit (Pakistani Sample)

Table 1-P Achieved Fit Indices for Organizational Justice

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Single Factor	30.749/2	15.374	.983	.949	.157	.0193
Two-Factor	93.062/43	2.164	.986	.982	.045	.0310
Three Factor	110.346/51	2.164	.983	.978	.045	.0288
Four factor	147.206/97	1.518	.994	.993	.030	.0197
Second order Organizational Justice	149.345/99	1.509	.995	.993	.030	.0222

Table 2-P Achieved Fit Indices for Effort-Reward Imbalance

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Final Measurement Model	70.004/34	2.059	.989	.986	.043	.0260

Table 3-P Achieved Fit Indices for Outcome Variables

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	438.315/289	1.517	.983	.981	.030	.0332
Final Measurement Model	259.161/198	1.309	.991	.990	.023	.0290

Table 4-P Achieved Fit Indices for Moderating Variables

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	477.176/206	2.316	.973	.970	.048	.0294
Model 1	320.188/186	1.721	.986	.984	.035	.0297
Final Measurement Model	170.193/132	1.285	.995	.994	.022	.0236

Table 5-P Achieved Fit Indices for Complete CFA including all Constructs

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	2693.834/1988	1.355	.970	.968	.025	.0342
Model 1	2564.437/1924	1.333	.972	.970	.024	.0331
Final Measurement Model	1642.126/1318	1.246	.984	.982	.020	.0310

Annexure D-2: Model-Fit (French sample)

Table 1-F Achieved Fit Indices for Organizational Justice

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Single Factor	2.413/2	1.07	.976	.988	.041	.014
Two Factor model	64.643/43	1.503	.985	.951	.040	.0382
Three Factors model	96.099/74	1.299	.987	.985	.035	.0369
Four Factor Model	167.982/146	1.151	.995	.994	.025	.0237
Second order Organizational Justice	185.149/148	1.251	.991	.990	.024	.0327

Table 2-F Achieved Fit Indices for Effort-Reward Imbalance

	CMIN/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	62.245/34	1.831	.980	.973	.059	.0386
Final Measurement Model	35.226/26	1.355	.992	.989	.038	.0342

Table 3-F Achieved Fit Indices for Outcome Variables

	CMIN/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	343.052/289	1.187	.986	.984	.028	.0406
Final Measurement Model	300.691/256	1.135	.990	.989	.024	.0384

Table 4-F Achieved Fit Indices for Moderating Variables

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	235.456/206	1.143	.991	.990	.024	.0407
Model 1	192.476/186	1.035	.990	.989	.024	.0406
Final Measurement Model	168.627/167	1.013	.999	.998	.007	.0382

Table 5-F Achieved Fit Indices for Complete CFA including all constructs

	Chi/DF	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Baseline Model	3249.130/2683	1.211	.949	.952	.030	.0444
Model 1	3161.513/2609	1.211	.949	.945	.030	.0443
Final Measurement Model	2004.009/1770	1.132	.975	.973	.023	.0454

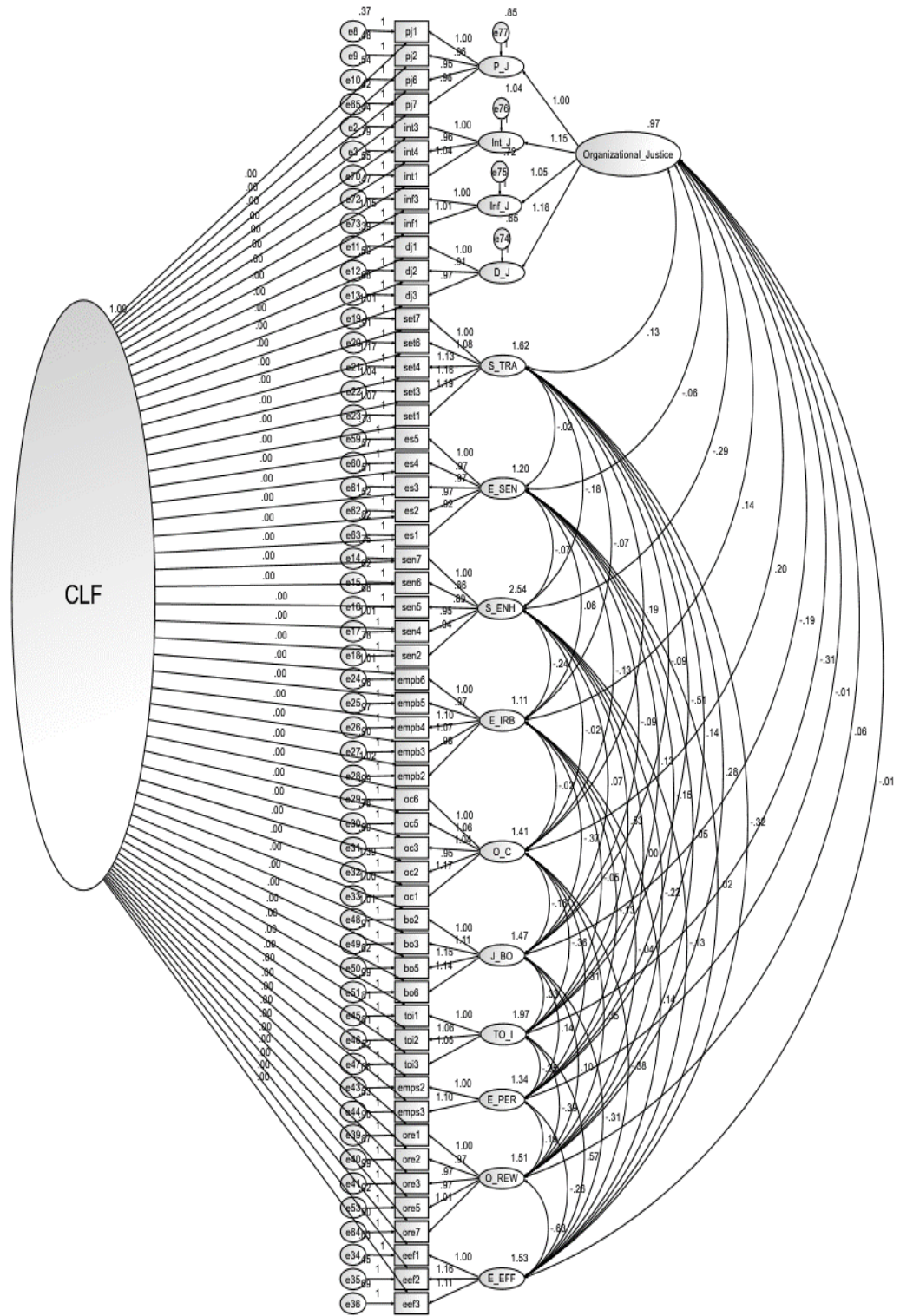
Annexure E-1: Common Method Biased (Pakistani Sample)

Total Variance Explained

Total Variance Explained						
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.313	23.132	23.132	1.574	15.740	15.740
2	1.451	14.510	37.642			
3	1.099	10.994	48.636			
4	.934	9.343	57.980			
5	.905	9.046	67.025			
6	.839	8.387	75.412			
7	.747	7.466	82.878			
8	.619	6.192	89.070			
9	.571	5.709	94.779			
10	.522	5.221	100.000			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Figure-34 Common Latent Factor Zero Constrained



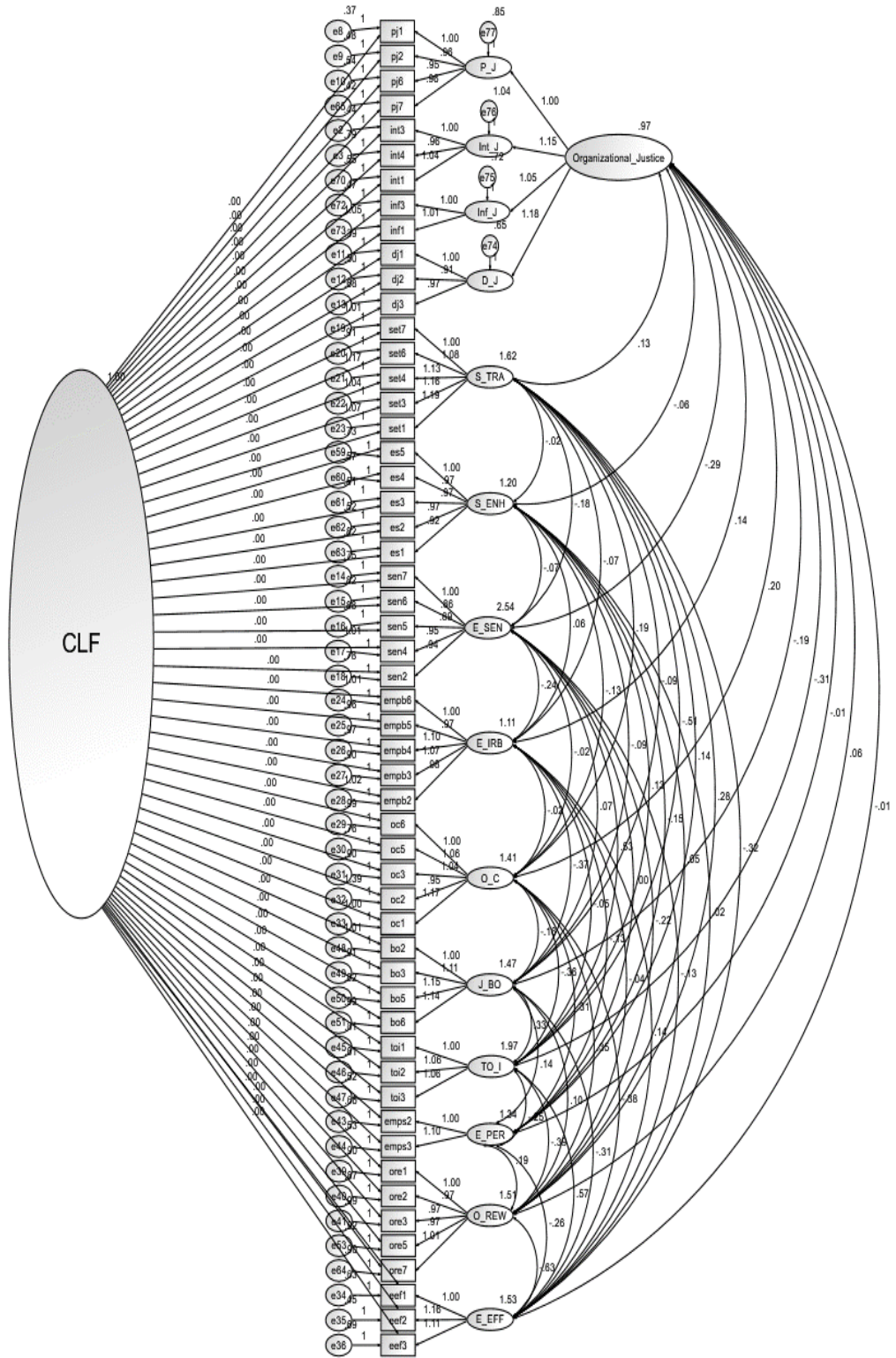
Annexure E-2: Common Method Biased (French Sample)

Total Variance Explained for French Sample

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.345	12.231	12.231	.465	4.226	4.226
2	1.248	11.342	23.574			
3	1.159	10.539	34.113			
4	1.120	10.182	44.295			
5	1.102	10.018	54.312			
6	1.005	9.135	63.448			
7	.968	8.797	72.244			
8	.831	7.555	79.799			
9	.784	7.125	86.924			
10	.778	7.077	94.001			
11	.660	5.999	100.000			

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Figure-35 Common Latent Factor



Annexure F-1: Hierarchical Multiple Moderation (Pakistani Sample)

Table 3: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self-Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Distributive Justice in the Pakistani sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.04	.46			.06	.02			-.04	.41			-.09	.48			.03	.02		
Age	.02	.02			.02	.14			-.03	.02			.07	.02			-.03	.14		
Gender	.01	.12			-.01	.07			-.03	.11			-.05	.13			.02	.07		
Education	.10	.06			-.12*	.02			.01	.06			.01	.07			.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.02	.01	.00	.08	.14	.017	.00	.01	.01	.01	.00	.05	.02	.02	.00	.01	.13	.01	.00
2. Distributive Justice	-.33***	.05	.12***	.11***	.26***	.06	.08***	.06***	.29***	.04	.08***	.08***	.32***	.05	.01***	.08***	-.26***	.05	.07***	.06
3. Self-Enhancement	.07	.04			-.16**	.47			-.06	.04			-.06	.04			.01	.04		
Self-Transcendence	-.10*	.04			.13**	.04			.06	.03			.03	.04			-.05	.04		
Equity Sensitivity	.07	.05	.14***	.02***	-.03	.06	.13**	.05	-.11	.05	.10*	.02*	-.23***	.05	.16***	.06	.21***	.06	.11***	.05
4. Distributive Justice × Self-Enhancement	.16**	.06			-.17**	.69			.02	.05			-.06	.06			.05	.07		
Distributive Justice × Self-Transcendence	-.04	.06			.02	.76			.04	.06			.11	.07			.07	.07		
Distributive Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.12*	.03	.18***	.04***	-.10	.34	.16**	.03*	-.11*	.03	.11*	.01*	-.18***	.03	.19***	.03***	.23***	.03	.15***	.04***

Note: $N = 583$; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above, ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 4: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Procedural Justice in the Pakistani sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²
1. Experience	-.04	.02			.06	.02			-.04	.02			-.09	.02			.03	.02		
Age	.02	.12			.01	.15			-.03	.11			.07	.13			-.03	.14		
Gender	.01	.06			-.01	.07			-.03	.06			-.04	.07			.02	.07		
Education	.09	.02			-.12*	.02			.01	.01			.01	.02			.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.12	.013	.00	.08	.14	.01	.00	.01	.11	.01	.00	.05	.12	.02	.00	.01	.13	.00	.00
2. Procedural Justice	-.25***	.05	.07***	.06***	.17***	.06	.04***	.02***	.26***	.04	.07***	.06***	.30***	.05	.08***	.06***	-.24***	.05	.06***	.05***
3. Self-Enhancement	.09				-.17***	.07			-.06	.05			.06	.06			.02	.07		
Self -Transcendence	-.09*				.14**	.07			-.06	.05			-.02	.06			-.06	.06		
Equity Sensitivity	.11**		.10***	.03***	-.05	.06	.11***	.07***	-.14**	.05	.09**	.02**	-.26***	.05	.14***	.07***	.25***	.06	.12***	.06***
4. Procedural Justice × Self-Enhancement	.09	.06			-.09	.07			.02	.05			.01	.06			-.05	.07		
Procedural Justice × Self -Transcendence	-.05	.07			.13*	.08			.09	.06			.15*	.07			-.17*	.07		
Procedural Justice × Equity Sensitivity	-.02	.04	.12*	.01*	-.03	.04	.14***	.04***	-.20***	.03	.12***	.04***	-.22***	.04	.20***	.05***	.21*	.04	.16***	.05***

Note: $N = 583$; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above; ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 5: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Interpersonal Justice in the Pakistani sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.03	.02			.06	.02			-.04	.02			-.09	.02			.03	.02		
Age	.02	.12			.02	.14			-.03	.11			.07	.13			-.03	.14		
Gender	.01	.06			-.01	.07			-.03	.06			-.05	.07			.02	.07		
Education	.09	.02			-.12*	.02			.01	.01			.01	.02			.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.12	.01	.00	.08	.14	.01	.00	.01	.11	.01	.00	.05	.12	.02	.00	.01	.13	.00	.00
2. Interpersonal Justice	-.21***	.05	.06***	.04***	.27***	.06	.08***	.07***	.26***	.04	.07***	.06***	.19***	.05	.05***	.04***	-.15***	.06	.03***	.02*
3. Self-Enhancement	.06	.06			-.15**	.07			-.04	.05			.08*	.06			.01	.07		
Self -Transcendence	-.10*	.06			.14**	.07			-.06	.05			-.01	.06			-.06	.07		
Equity Sensitivity	.12**	.05	.08***	.03***	-.05	.06	.14***	.06***	-.14***	.05	.09***	.02***	-.27***	.05	.12***	.07***	.25***	.06	.90***	.06***
4. Interpersonal Justice × Self-Enhancement	.16*	.06			-.13**	.06			.04	.05			-.05	.06			.10*	.07		
Interpersonal Justice × Self -Transcendence	.01	.06			-.01	.07			.05	.06			.05	.07			.03	.07		
Interpersonal Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.07	.04	.11***	.03***	.04	.07	.15***	.01***	-.12**	.03	.10*	.01*	-.17***	.04	.16***	.03***	.18***	.04	.13***	.04***

Note: $N = 583$; Marital status was coded as “1” for married and “2” for Un-married; and above; “0” for male and “1” female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 6: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Informational Justice in the Pakistani Sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²
1. Experience	-.03	.02			.06	.02			-.04	.02			-.09	.02			.03	.02		
Age	.02	.12			.02	.14			-.03	.11			.07	.13			-.03	.14		
Gender	.01	.06			-.01	.07			-.03	.06			-.04	.07			.02	.07		
Education	.09	.02			-.12*	.02			.01	.01			.01	.02			.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.12	.013	.00	.08	.14	.01	.00	.01	.11	.01	.00	.05	.12	.02	.00	.01	.13	.00	.00
2. Informational Justice	-.23***	.05	.65***	.05***	.23***	.05	.06***	.05***	.26***	.04	.07***	.06***	.24***	.05	.07***	.06***	-.22***	.03	.06***	.05***
3. Self-Enhancement	.07	.06			-.16**	.07			-.05	.05			.07	.06			.01	.07		
Self -Transcendence	-.09*	.06			.13**	.07			-.06	.05			-.03	.06			-.05	.07		
Equity Sensitivity	.09*	.05	.09**	.02**	-.03	.06	.12***	.06***	-.11**	.05	.08*	.02*	-.23***	.05	.13***	.06***	.22***	.06	.10***	.05***
4. Informational Justice × Self-Enhancement	.22***	.04			-.24***	.05			.01	.04			-.09*	.05			.06	.05		
Informational Justice × Self -Transcendence	-.01	.05			-.07	.05			-.02	.04			.03	.05			.01	.05		
Informational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.11*	.03	.13***	.05***	.21***	.04	.19***	.07***	-.12*	.03	.09*	.01*	-.14**	.03	.15**	.02**	.20***	.03	.13***	.03***

Note: N = 241; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above; ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, P ≤ 0.05 *, P ≤ 0.01 **, P ≤ 0.001 ***

Table 7: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Organizational Justice in the Pakistani sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.03	.02			.06	.02			-.09	.02			-.04	.02			.033	.02		
Age	.02	.12			.02	.15			.07	.13			-.03	.11			-.029	.14		
Gender	.01	.06			-.01	.07			-.05	.07			-.03	.06			.023	.07		
Education	.09	.02			-.12*	.02			.01	.02			.01	.01			.023	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.12	.01	.00	.08	.14	.01	.00	.05	.12	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.00	.007	.13	.00	.00
2. Organizational Justice	-.32***	.06	.11***	.10***	.31***	.05	.09***	.08***	.31***	.06	.11***	.09	.33***	.05	.11***	.10***	-.27***	.06	.08***	.07***
3. Self-Enhancement	.11*	.06			-.15**	.07			-.04	.05			-.08*	.06			.002	.07		
Self -Transcendence	-.08*	.06			.13**	.07			-.07	.05			-.03	.06			-.047	.06		
Equity Sensitivity	.08*	.05	.13**	.02**	-.17**	.06	.15***	.05***	-.11**	.05	.12*	.02*	-.23***	.05	.17***	.06**	.22***	.06	.13***	.05***
4. Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	.19***	.06			-.20**	.07			.03	.05			-.11**	.03			.04	.07		
Organizational Justice × Self -Transcendence	-.14**	.05			.13*	.06			.07	.06			.17**	.07			-.125*	.07		
Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	-.03	.03	.18***	.05***	-.10*	.04	.19***	.04***	-.18***	.03	.15***	.02***	-.24***	.03	.23***	.06***	.27***	.04	.18***	.06***

Note: $N = 583$; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above; ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 8: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Effort-Reward Imbalance in the Pakistani sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²
1. Experience	-.03	.02			.06	.02			-.09	.02			-.04	.02			.03	.02		
Age	.02	.12			.01	.15			.07	.13			-.03	.11			-.03	.14		
Gender	.01	.06			-.01	.07			-.05	.07			-.03	.06			.02	.07		
Education	.09	.02			-.12*	.02			.01	.02			.01	.01			.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.08*	.12	.01	.00	.08	.14	.01	.00	.05	.12	.02	.00	.01	.11	.01	.00	.01	.13	.00	.00
2. Effort-Reward Imbalance	.25***	.09	.07***	.06***	-.29***	.10	.09***	.08***	-.20***	.09	.06***	.04***	-.25***	.08	.06***	.06***	.20***	.10	.05***	.04***
3. Self-Enhancement	.11*	.05			-.14**	.07			.07	.06			-.05	.05			.01	.07		
Self -Transcendence	-.09	.06			.15**	.07			-.02	.06			-.06	.05			-.06	.07		
Equity Sensitivity	.08	.05	.10**	.02**	-.02	.06	.15***	.05***	-.24***	.06	.12***	.06***	-.12**	.05	.08*	.02*	.24***	.06	.10***	.05**
4. Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	.10*	.06			-.21**	.07			-.25	.06			-.08	.06			-.14*	.07		
Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self -Transcendence	-.06	.07			.17**	.08			.10	.06			-.08	.06			-.09*	.08		
Effort-Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	.06	.02	.11**	.01*	-.08*	.03	.17**	.02*	.04	.07	.12***	.01	.03	.02	.08*	.02	-.05	.03	.10*	.01

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above; ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Annex F-2: Hierarchical Multiple Moderation (French Sample)

Table 9: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Distributive Justice in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²	β	SE	R ²	Δ R ²
1. Experience	-.11*	.02			-.05	.03			.01	.02			-.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.23			.02	.23			-.04	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.13			-.04	.12			-.05	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.06	.02			.02	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.04	.24	.01	.00	.06	.27	.01	.00	-.07	.26	.01	.01	.01	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.01
2. Distributive Justice	-.31***	.01	.09***	.09***	.32***	.11	.10***	.10***	.26***	.11	.07***	.07***	.27***	.11	.06***	.06***	-.30***	.11	.01***	.01***
3. Self-Enhancement	.20*	.13			-.01	.15			-.21*	.14			.13	.14			.30***	.14		
Self -Transcendence	-.04	.12			.25**	.13			.08	.13			.06	.13			-.01	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.12*	.11	.19***	.09***	.03	.13	.20***	.01***	-.11	.12	.18***	.11***	-.41***	.12	.19***	.13***	.04	.12	.20***	.10***
4. Distributive Justice × Self Enhancement	-.07	.11			.19*	.12			-.14	.12			-.22*	.11			-.04	.12		
Distributive Justice × Self -Transcendence	-.06	.09			.13*	.01			-.05	.01			-.01	.09			-.07	.09		
Distributive Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.30***	.13	.26***	.07***	-.35**	.14	.28***	.08***	-.12	.14	.23***	.05***	-.12	.14	.28***	.09***	.20	.14	.24**	.04

Note: N = 241; Marital status was coded as “1” for married and “2” for Un-married; and above; “0” for male and “1” female, P ≤ 0.05 *, P ≤ 0.01 **, P ≤ 0.001 ***

Table 10: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self-Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Procedural Justice in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.11*	.02			-.05	.02			.01	.02			-.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.23			.02	.22			-.04	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.12			-.04	.12			-.05	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.06	.02			.02	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.04	.24	.01	.00	.06	.27	.01	.00	-.07	.26	.01	.01	.01	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.009
2. Procedural Justice	-.22**	.10	.05**	.04*	.19**	.12	.04**	.03**	.26***	.11	.07***	.06***	.26***	.11	.07***	.07***	-.24***	.10	.06***	.05***
3. Self-Enhancement	.21***	.14			-.11	.15			-.22**	.14			.12	.14			.31***	.15		
Self-Transcendence	-.01	.12			.22**	.14			.04	.13			.03	.13			.03	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.13*	.12	.14***	.09***	.01	.13	.13***	.09***	-.11	.12	.17***	.10***	-.40***	.12	.19***	.13***	.05	.13	.16***	.10***
4. Procedural Justice × Self-Enhancement	.05	.16			-.06	.18			.06	.17			-.03	.17			.13	.18		
Procedural Justice × Self-Transcendence	.09	.09			-.04	.10			-.10	.10			-.06	.09			.09	.10		
Procedural Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.27*	.17	.20***	.06**	-.24	.20	.19***	.06**	-.30*	.18	.20*	.03*	-.12	.18	.21	.01	.16	.19	.20**	.04**

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as "1" for married and "2" for Un-married; and above; "0" for male and "1" female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 11: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Interpersonal Justice in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.11*	.02			-.05	.03			.01	.02			-.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.24			.02	.23			-.04	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.13			-.04	.12			-.05	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.06	.02			.02	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.04	.24	.01	.00	.06	.27	.01	.00	-.07	.26	.01	.01	.01	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.01
2. Interpersonal Justice	-.29***	.10	.08***	.07***	.26***	.11	.07***	.06***	.26***	.10	.07***	.07***	.31***	.10	.10***	.10***	-.21**	.11	.05**	.04**
3. Self-Enhancement	.18*	.14			-.08	.15			-.20*	.14			-.16*	.14			.30***	.15		
Self -Transcendence	-.02	.12			.24**	.14			.06	.13			.05	.12			.01	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.12	.12	.16***	.08***	.02	.13	.15***	.08***	-.11	.12	.16***	.10***	-.40***	.12	.21***	.12***	.05	.13	.14***	.10**
4. Interpersonal Justice × Self-Enhancement	.04	.15			.13	.17			-.40*	.17			-.16	.16			.07	.18		
Interpersonal Justice × Self -Transcendence	-.11	.12			.16	.13			.01	.13			-.29*	.12			-.18	.14		
Interpersonal Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.21**	.18	.25***	.09***	-.29	.21	.22***	.08***	.18	.20	.21**	.04**	-.28**	.19	.27***	.06***	-.01	.21	.18*	.04*

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as “1” for married and “2” for Un-married; and above; “0” for male and “1” female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 12: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Informational Justice in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.11*	.02			-.05	.03			.01	.02			-.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.24			.02	.23			-.04	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.13			-.04	.12			-.05	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.06	.02			.02	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.04	.24	.012	.00	.06	.27	.01	.00	-.07	.26	.01	.010	.01	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.01
2. Informational Justice	-.27***	.09	.07***	.06***	.28***	.10	.08***	.07***	.31***	.09	.10***	.09***	.26***	.10	.06***	.06***	-.28***	.10	.08***	.07***
3. Self-Enhancement	.20*	.14			-.12	.15			-.21*	.14			.13	.14			.31**	.15		
Self -Transcendence	.01	.12			.21***	.14			.03	.13	.19***	.96***	.02	.13			.04	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.13*	.12	.16***	.09***	.01	.13	.15***	.08***	-.11	.12			-.42***	.12	.20***	.13***	.05	.13	.17***	.10***
4. Informational Justice x Self-Enhancement	-.03	.16			.12	.18			-.28*	.17			-.09	.17			-.02	.18		
Informational Justice x Self -Transcendence	.03	.08			.08	.10			-.12	.09			.09				.04	.09		
Informational Justice x Equity Sensitivity	.31*	.19	.22**	.06**	-.30*	.21	.20***	.05***	-.01	.20	.24**	.05**	-.26*	.20	.26***	.06***	.27	.21	.21**	.04**

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as "1" for married and "2" for Un-married; and above; "0" for male and "1" female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 13: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Organizational Justice in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	.11*	.02			-.05	.03			-.01	.02			.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.24			-.04	.23			.02	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.13			-.05	.12			-.04	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.02	.02			.06	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.037	.24	.01	.00	.06	.28	.01	.00	.01	.26	.01	.01	-.07	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.01
2. Organizational Justice	-.34***	.14	.11***	.10***	.32***	.16	.10***	.10***	.31***	.16	.11***	.11***	.34***	.16	.12***	.11***	-.32***	.16	.10***	.09***
3. Self-Enhancement	.19**	.13			-.09	.15			-.20*	.14			-.14*	.036			.29**	.15		
Self -Transcendence	-.01	.12			.22**	.13			.05	.13			.03	.12			.03	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.18*	.10	.19***	.08***	-.17*	.09	.18***	.08***	-.10	.12	.23***	.12***	-.40***	.12	.20***	.09**	.28**	.07	.19***	.09**
4. Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	.14*	.037			.22	.15			.15	-.20			-.13	.15			-.02	.16		
Organizational Justice × Self -Transcendence	.09	.01			.25**	.10			.09	-.11			-.15*	.09			-.02	.10		
Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	.21**	.15	.31***	.12***	-.49***	.19	.29***	.11***	.18	-.19	.27***	.07***	-.32*	.18	.31***	.09***	.26**	.078	.28***	.08***

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as ‘‘1’’ for married and ‘‘2’’ for Un-married; and above; ‘‘0’’ for male and ‘‘1’’ female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Table 14: The Moderating Effects of Self-Enhancement, Self -Transcendence and Equity Sensitivity on Reactions to Effort-Reward Imbalance in the French sample

Regression Steps	Job-Burnout				Organizational Commitment				Employees' Performance				Employees' in Role behavior				Turnover intention			
	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2	β	SE	R ²	ΔR^2
1. Experience	-.11*	.02			-.05	.03			-.01	.02			.01	.02			-.02	.02		
Age	-.04	.21			-.01	.24			-.04	.23			.02	.23			.01	.23		
Gender	.02	.11			.01	.13			-.05	.12			-.04	.12			.04	.12		
Education	-.17**	.02			.12*	.02			.02	.02			.06	.02			-.02	.02		
Marital Status	-.04	.24	.01	.00	.06	.27	.01	.00	.01	.26	.01	.01	-.07	.26	.01	.01	.08	.26	.01	.01
2. Effort-Reward Imbalance	.36***	.12	.13***	.12***	-.29***	.14	.08***	.073***	-.26***	.13	.07***	.06***	-.32***	.13	.10***	.09***	.34***	.13	.12***	.11***
3. Self-Enhancement	.28**	.13			-.05	.16			-.18*	.15			-.16*	.15			.24**	.15		
Self -Transcendence	-.02	.12			.24**	.14			.05	.13			.07	.13			.01	.13		
Equity Sensitivity	.10	.12	.17*	.04*	.04	.13	.14**	.061**	-.10	.12	.18***	.11***	-.38***	.12	.16**	.06**	.02	.13	.17**	.05**
4. Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	.14*	.06			-.26	.38			-.31**	.10			-.05	.36			.39	.38		
Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self -Transcendence	.03	.11			-.14	.13			.25*	.12			.36**	.12			.12	.12		
Effort-Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	-.08	.37	.19*	.02*	.42*	.41	.18**	.04**	-.01	.39	.20*	.04*	.41	.13	.21*	.04*	.24	.40	.19	.019

Note: $N = 241$; Marital status was coded as “1” for married and “2” for Un-married; and above; “0” for male and “1” female, $P \leq 0.05$ *, $P \leq 0.01$ **, $P \leq 0.001$ ***

Annexure G-1: Interaction Graphs (Pakistani Sample)

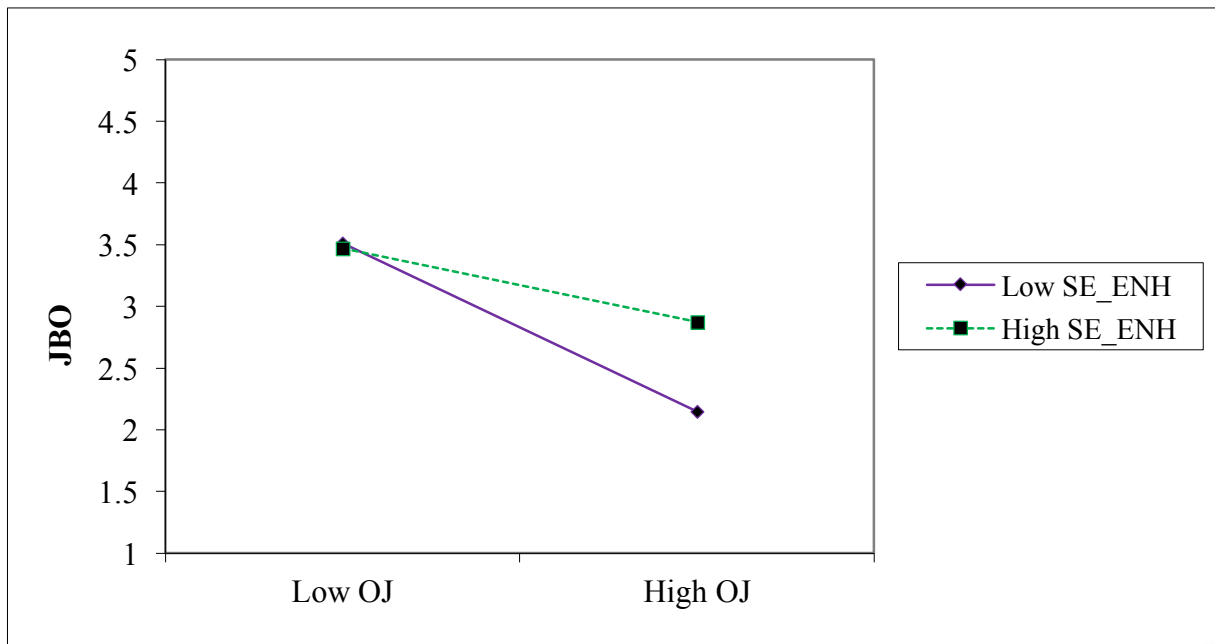


Figure 5.14. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-enhancement on job burnout

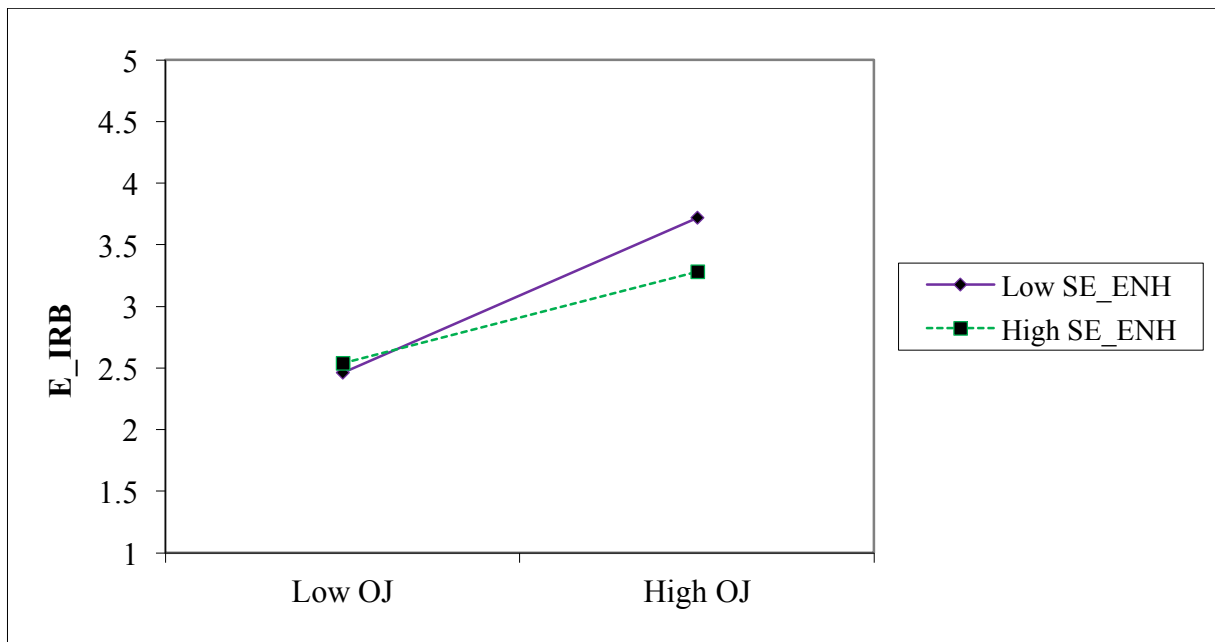


Figure 5.15. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-enhancement on employees in role behavior

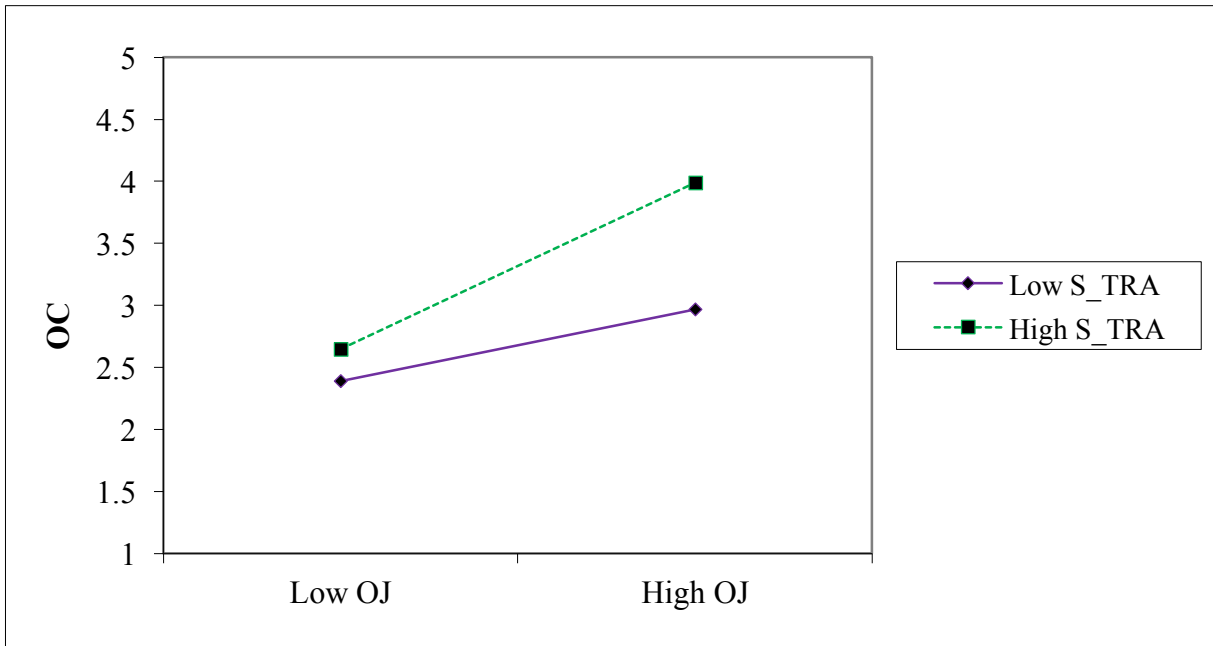


Figure 5.16. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-transcendence on organizational commitment

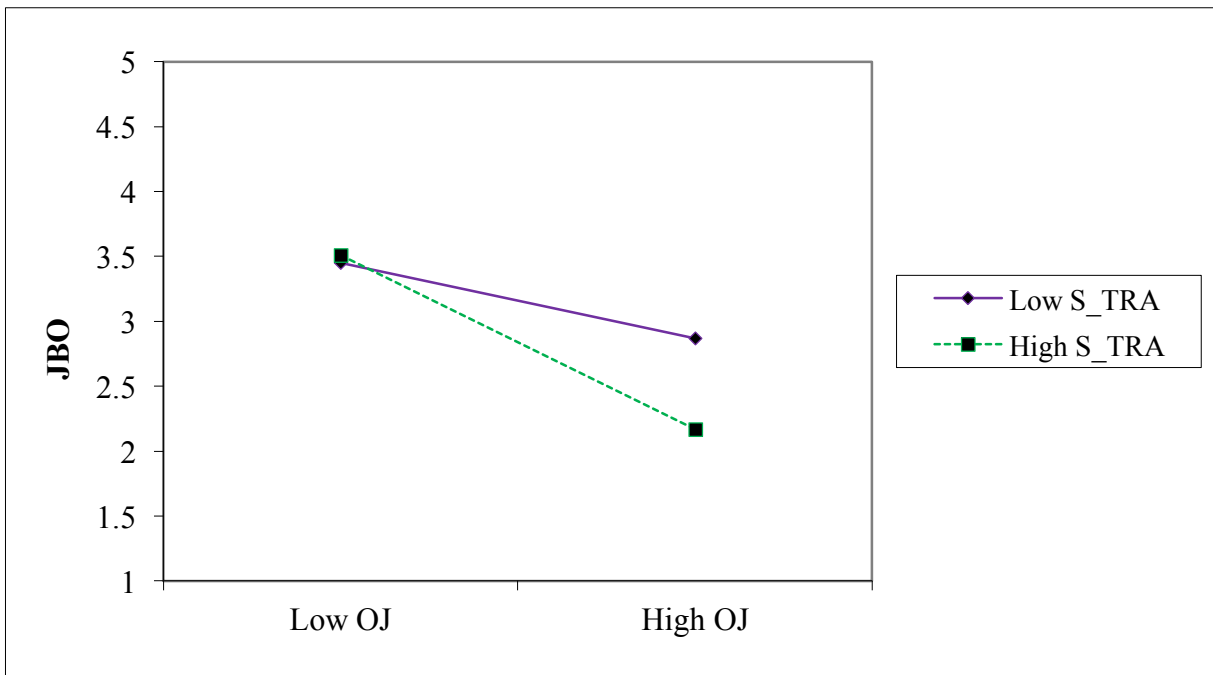


Figure 5.17. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-transcendence on job-burnout

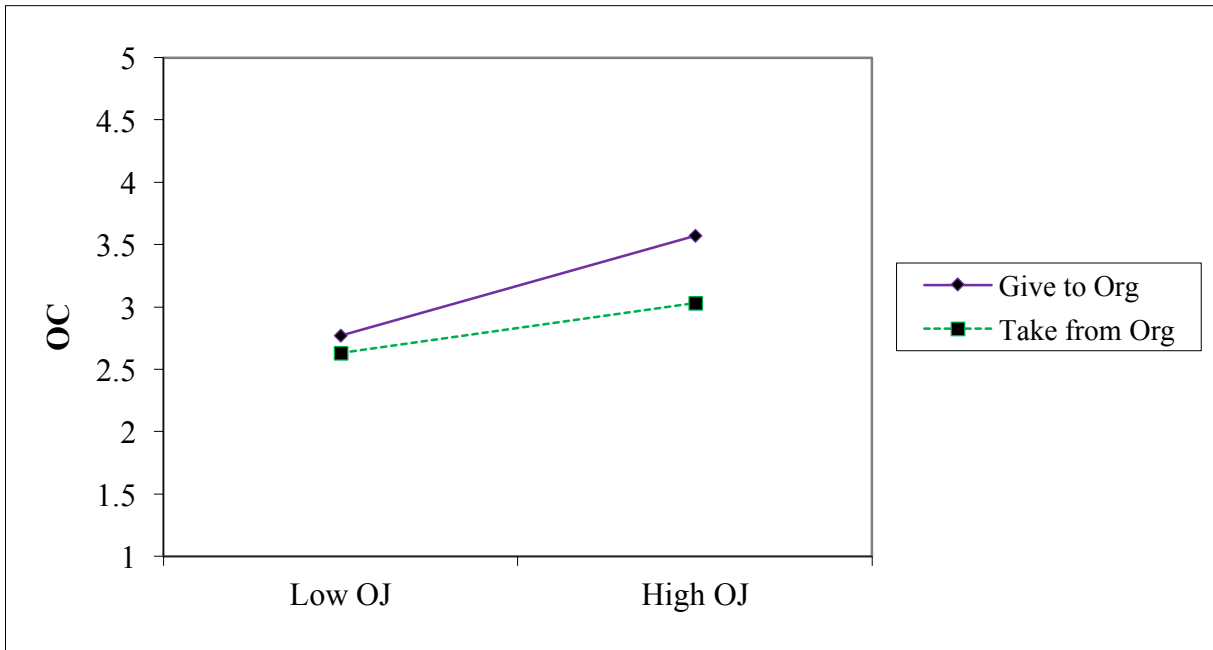


Figure 5.18. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on organizational commitment

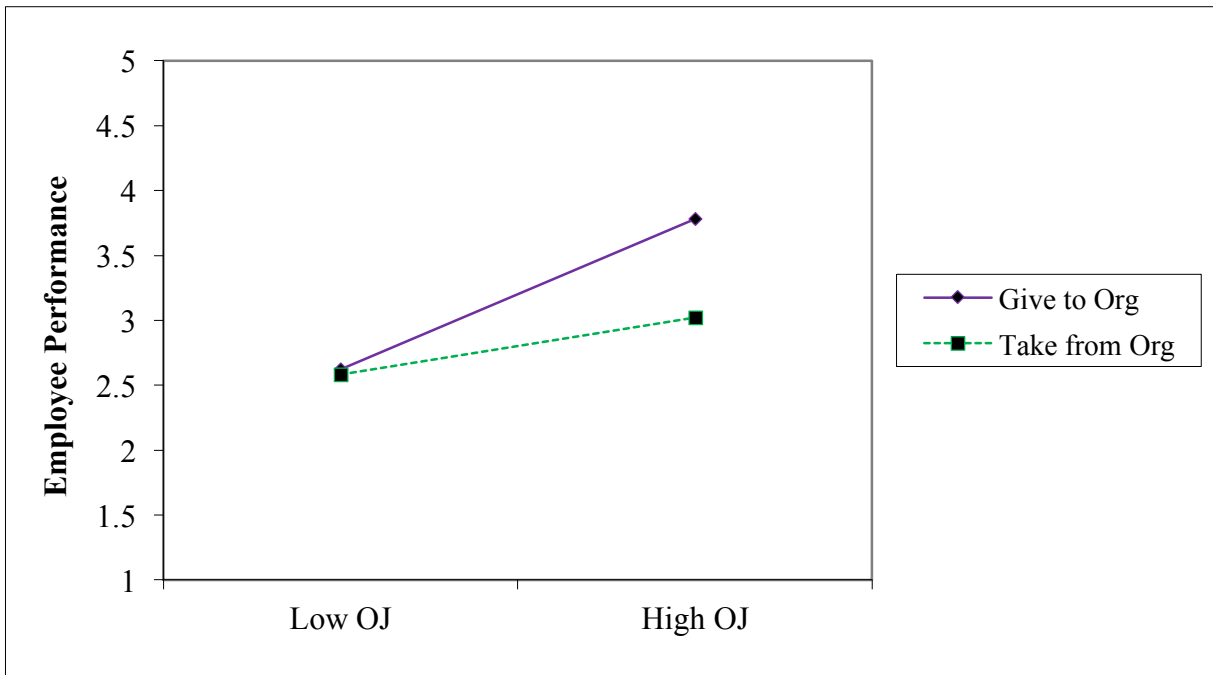


Figure 5.19. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on employees' performance

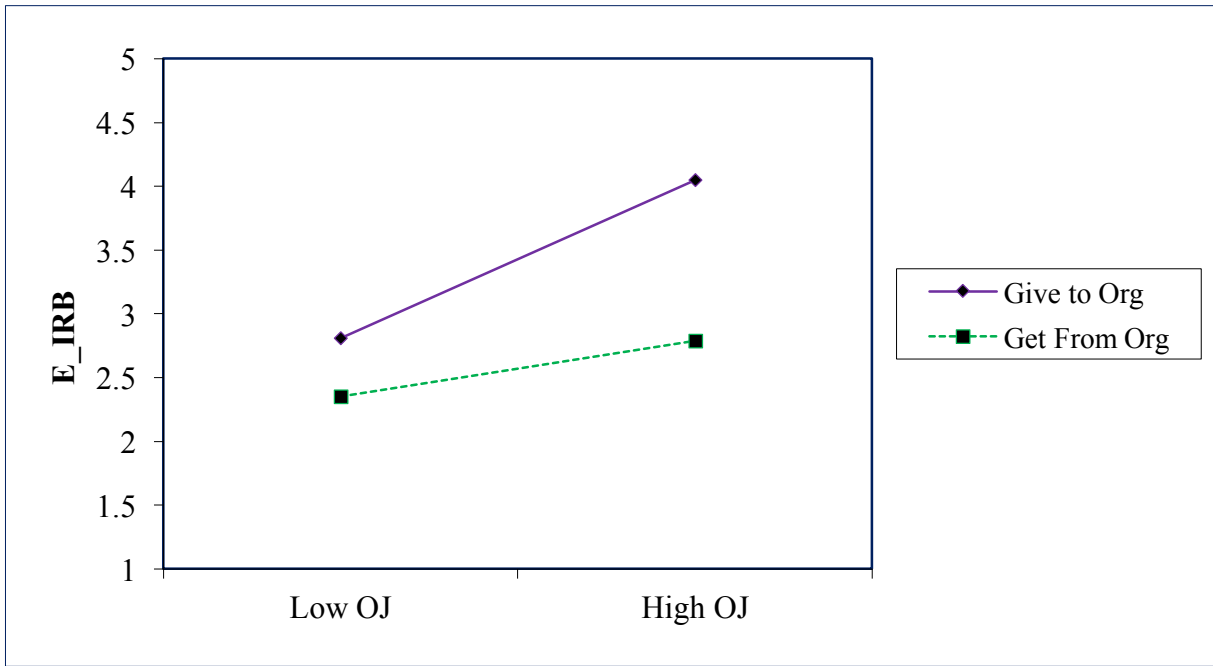


Figure 5.20. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on employee in role behavior

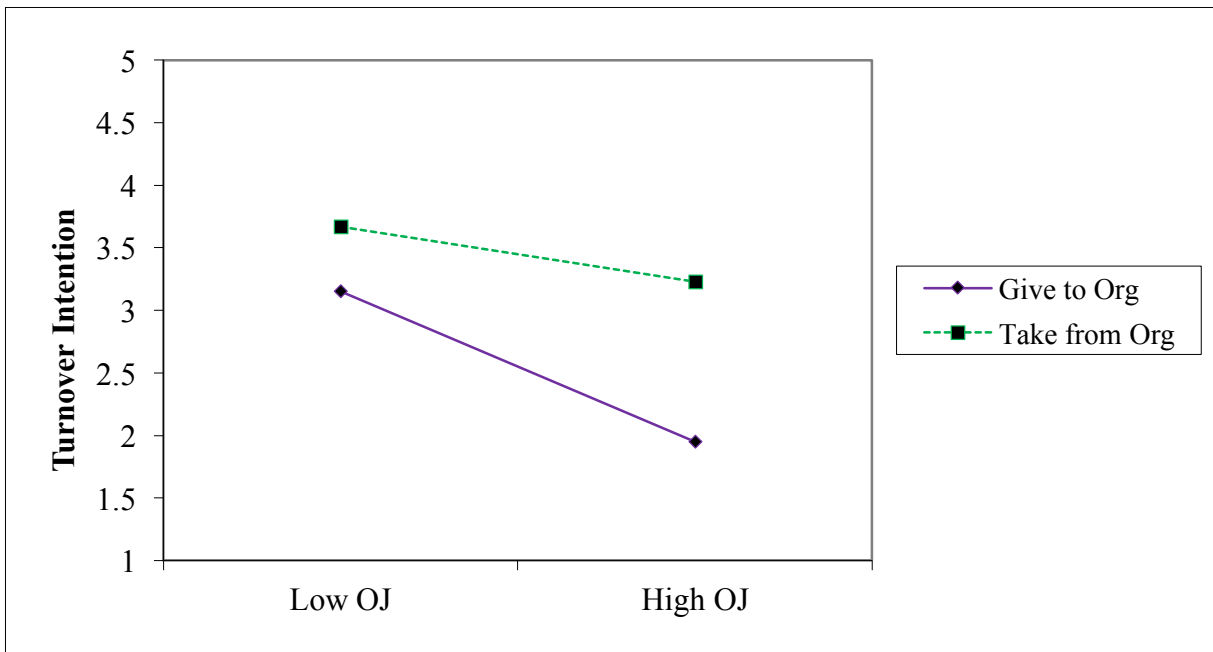


Figure 5.21. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on turnover intention

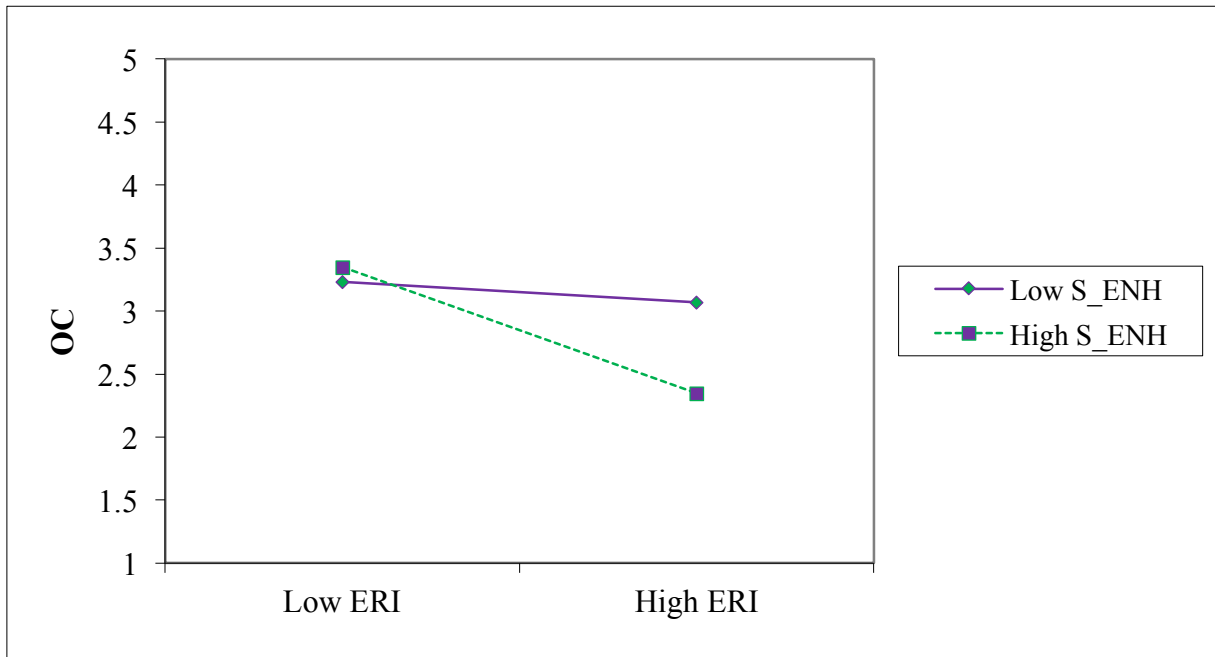


Figure 5.22. The interactive effects of effort-reward imbalance and self-enhancement on organizational commitment

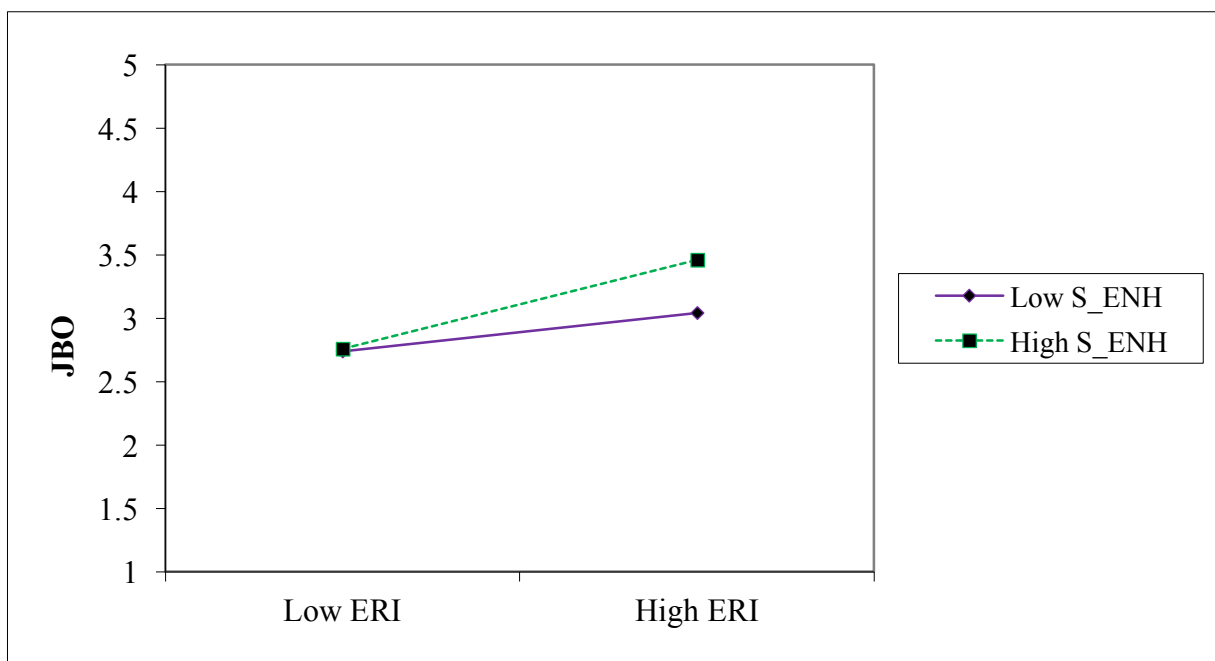


Figure 5.23. The interactive effects of effort-reward imbalance and self enhancement on job burnout

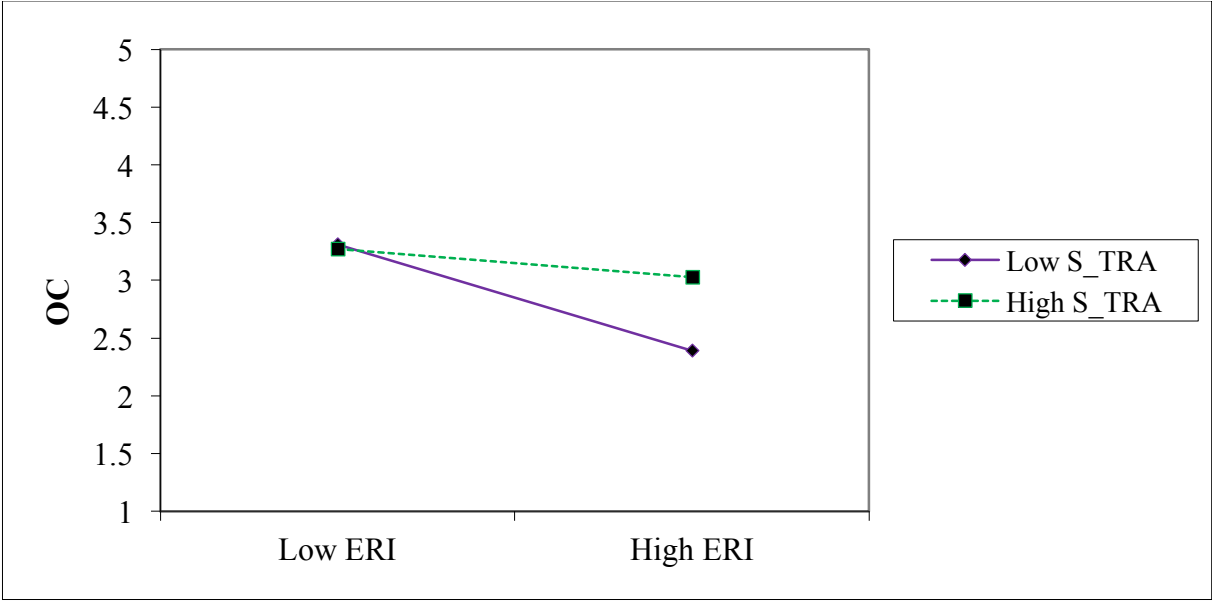


Figure 5.24. The interactive effects of effort-reward imbalance and self-transcendence on organizational commitment

Annexure G-2: Interaction Graphs (French Sample)

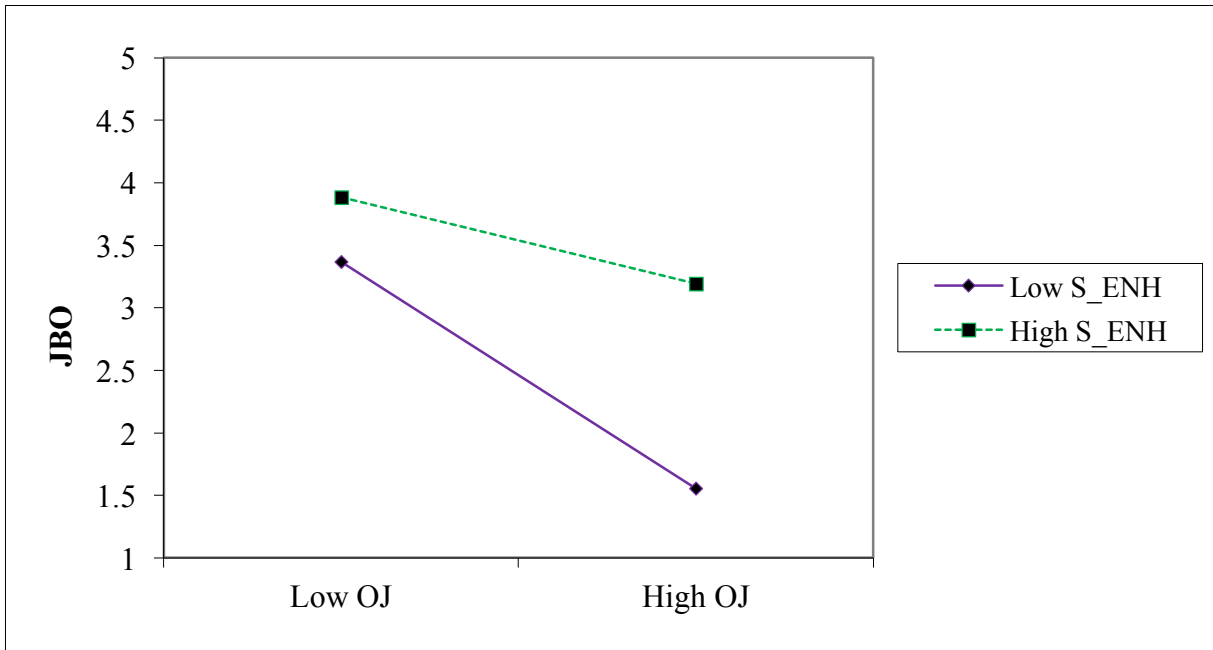


Figure 5.25. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-enhancement on job burnout

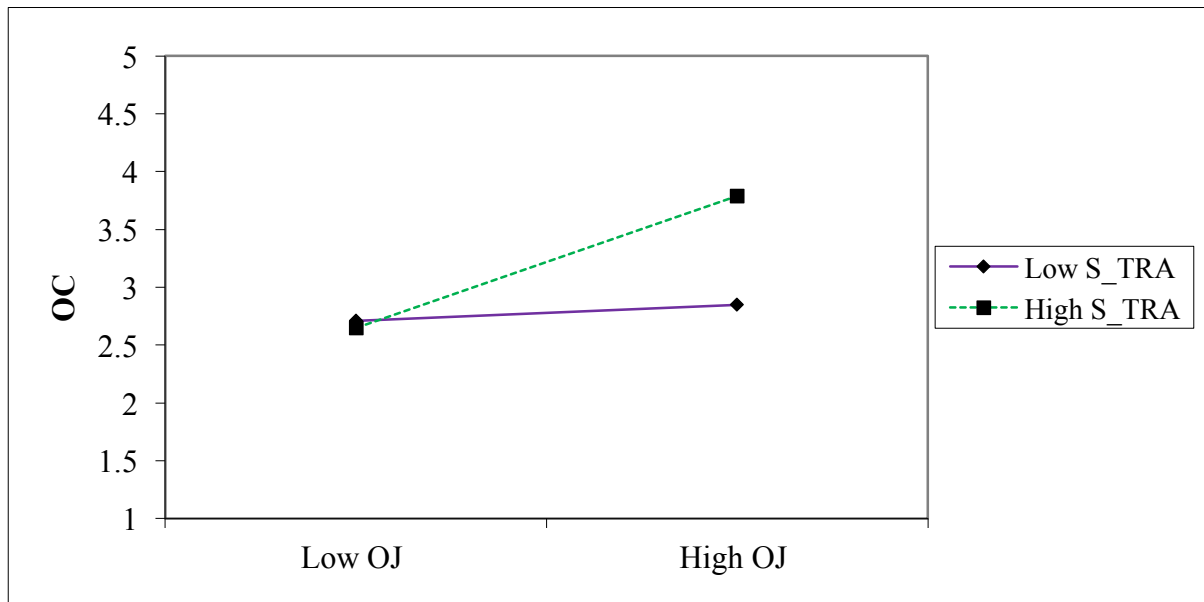


Figure 5.26. The interactive effects of organizational justice and self-transcendence on organizational commitment

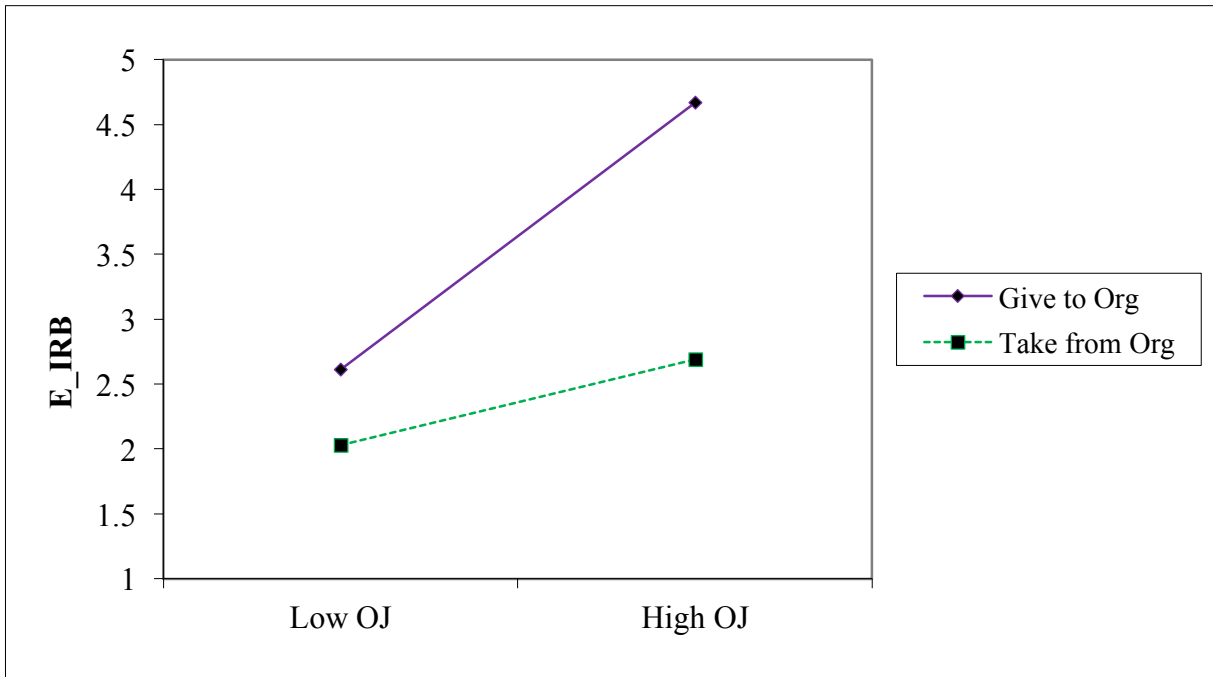


Figure 5.27. The interactive organizational justice and equity sensitivity on employees in role behavior

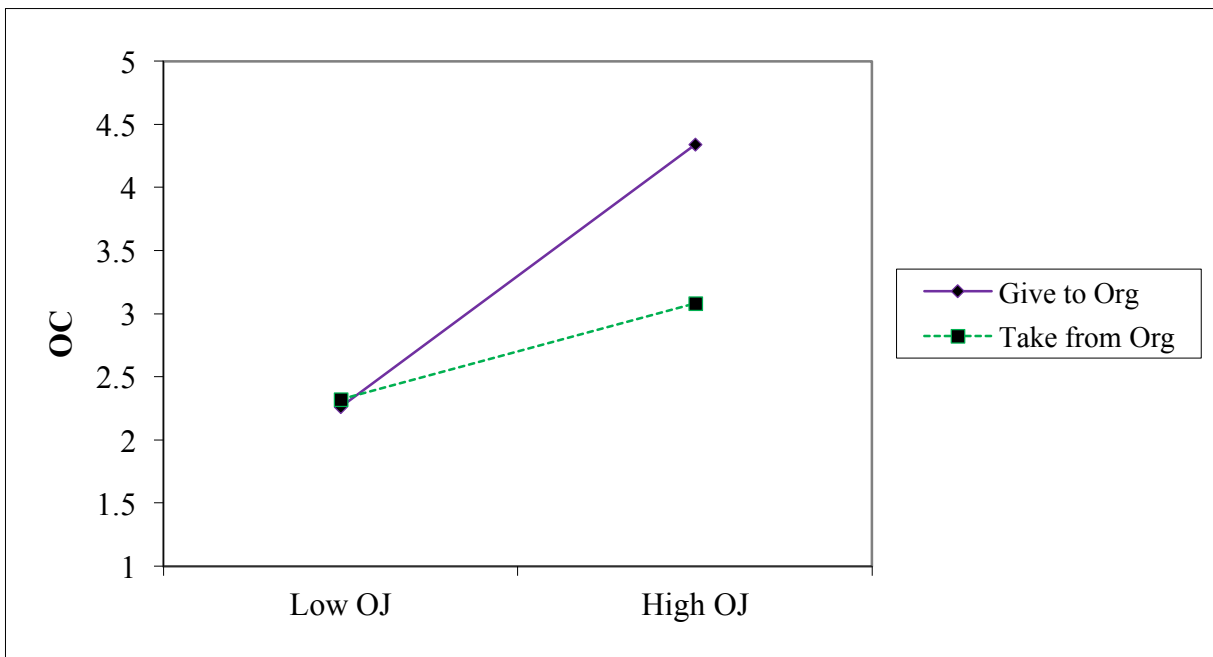


Figure 5.28. The interactive effects of organizational and equity sensitivity on organizational commitment

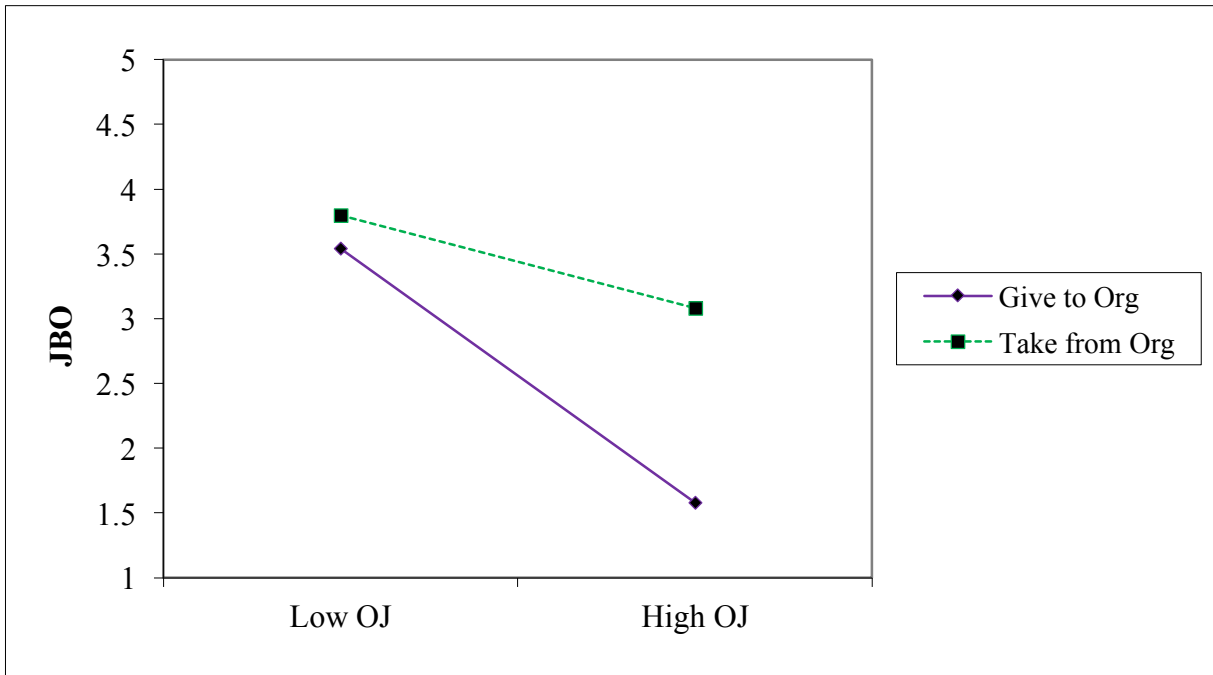


Figure 5.29. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on job burnout

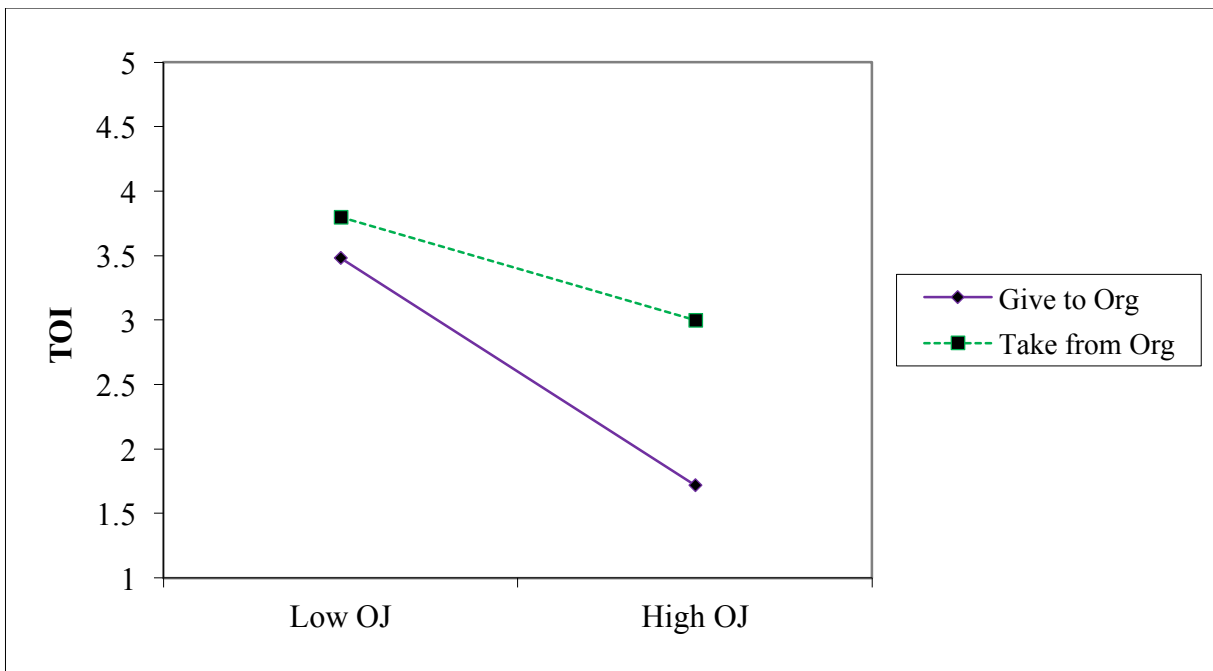


Figure 5.30. The interactive effects of organizational justice and equity sensitivity on turnover intention

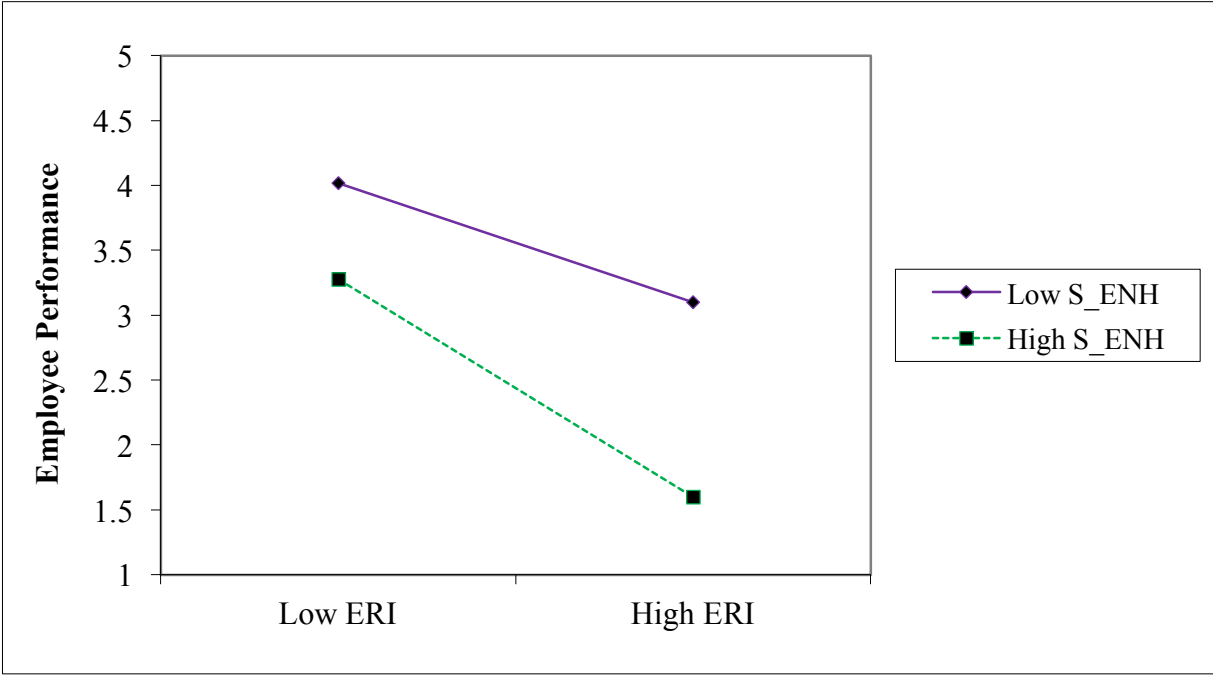


Figure 5.31. The interactive effects of effort-reward imbalance and self-enhancement on employees' performance

L'injustice et le Stress au travail : Evaluation de deux approches concurrentes :

La justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort/récompense

7.1. Introduction

La recherche empirique a démontré que les facteurs situationnels (exigences de travail) provoquent un stress qui conduit à des réactions potentiellement nocives chez les individus, cela peut se traduire par l'insatisfaction des salariés, des soucis de santé au niveau psychologique et physique au point d'avoir l'intention de quitter son travail. (Newman, 1978; Toussaint, Shields, Dorn, & Slavich, 2014). Au cours des dernières décennies, le stress au travail a été un sujet d'intérêt pour les chercheurs et les praticiens. Des centaines d'articles ont vu le jour en lien avec ce rapport au stress : le stress et l'ambiguïté des rôles, la charge de travail et le stress, le manque de participation, les ambiguïtés de carrière et le stress, la sous-utilisation des compétences et le stress, les relations entre les facteurs physiques et le stress, le stress au travail, le stress organisationnel, le rôle du stress, les stratégies d'adaptation et le stress. (Juge & Colquitt, 2004; Ndjaboué, Brisson, & Vézina, 2012).

Cependant, en dépit du fait que la littérature sur le stress au travail est assez vaste, on ne retrouve que très peu d'études concernant l'injustice et le stress (Fox, Spector et Miles, 2001). Par conséquent, notre connaissance concernant l'impact de l'injustice sur le lieu de travail et ses effets sur les conséquences du stress est limitée. De nombreuses approches concernant le stress nous ont offert des antécédents théoriques pour mieux comprendre la relation stress-tensions (par exemple, McGrath, 1976, Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Toutefois, en ce qui concerne l'injustice au travail, nous n'avons trouvé que deux approches dominantes et concurrentes que sont la justice organisationnelle (JO) et le déséquilibre effort-récompense (ERI). Ces approches (justice organisationnelle et déséquilibre effort-récompense) sont utilisées pour prédire de façon cohérente les résultats liés à la santé dans de nombreux cas (Colquitt et al., 2001, Loerbroks, Meng, Chen, Herr, Angerer, & Li, 2014). De ce fait, nous utilisons à la fois la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort-récompense pour enquêter sur l'injustice et ses conséquences. De plus, la compréhension de l'injustice comme facteur de stress au travail a une incidence sur les résultats de travail des employés, et les facteurs qui peuvent atténuer ces effets sont d'une importance cruciale. D'autre part, les recherches antérieures démontrent que les facteurs de différences individuelles ont généralement été considérés comme des médiateurs ou

modérateurs pour comprendre la relation entre les facteurs de stress et la tension. Les recherches antérieures ont montré que les individus peuvent réagir différemment en réponse aux mêmes événements injustes sur le lieu de travail.

Néanmoins, la question restait sans réponse, et bien qu'un groupe d'individus arrive à faire face à un même événement injuste, les variabilités concernant les raisons pour lesquelles des individus réagissaient différemment, poussent à effectuer plus de recherches pour mieux comprendre le phénomène. En ce qui concerne le phénomène du stress au travail, Lazarus (1991, 1999) a déclaré que le stress résulte non seulement de conditions de travail objectives mais aussi de l'évaluation individuelle de l'environnement de travail par les employés (par exemple Elliott, Chartrand et Harkins, 1994). Étant donné que les employés font face à des situations stressantes, certains, sur la base de leur évaluation personnelle, utilisent des stratégies d'adaptation face à ses situations, pourtant, beaucoup d'autres n'ont pas cette capacité à y faire face. Pendant de nombreuses années, des efforts de recherche considérables ont permis d'identifier des variables de différences individuelles, en particulier les caractéristiques personnelles associées aux résultats au travail (Stobbeleir, Ashford, Buyens, 2011). Par conséquent, nous prévoyons que l'intégration des variables de différences individuelles (telles que les valeurs humaines personnelles - Schwartz, 1992, 1996 et sensibilité à l'équité - Huesman, 1985, 1987) peut nous permettre de comprendre pourquoi les individus répondent différemment au même événement injuste.

Selon Hofstede (2001), les chercheurs ont souvent utilisé les valeurs pour comprendre le comportement, l'attitude des individus et le bon fonctionnement des organisations et des cultures. Cependant, Schwartz (1994) estime que le contenu de chaque type de valeur est déterminé par l'objectif de motivation qu'il exprime comme principe directeur dans la vie des individus. D'autre part, Rokeach considère les valeurs comme une sorte de croyance (Singhapakedi et Vitell, 1993), et les gens utilisent des valeurs comme lignes directrices pour la prise de décisions éthiques (Rokeach, 1973). De plus, les valeurs devraient jouer un rôle central dans l'organisation, comme la performance des employés, la satisfaction au travail (Cohen, 2010). Ainsi, les valeurs sont présumées être des prédicteurs ou modérateurs des processus et critères organisationnels (Cohen, 2010).

Le concept de sensibilité à l'équité a été introduit par Huseman, Hatfield et Miles, (1987) afin d'améliorer notre compréhension du comportement des employés sur le lieu de travail. Les individus peuvent varier quant à leurs préférences pour des ratios spécifiques contributions-

résultats. Par conséquent, la sensibilité d'équité peut modérer les relations entre les perceptions d'injustice et les variables de résultat. Pour résumer, nous concevons nos contributions à la littérature sur le stress comme une extension de travaux antérieurs. Premièrement, nous cherchons les points de vue sur deux approches concurrentes liées à l'équité et leurs relations sur les conséquences du stress (burnout, intention de départ, engagement organisationnel, performance des employés et comportement des employés). Cette étude propose une comparaison de deux approches dont chacune a montré un impact fort sur les conséquences du stress. Ces deux approches fournissent des résultats tout aussi performants, alors qu'il est courant de trouver un modèle qui fonctionne mieux que les autres.

Deuxièmement, cette étude a examiné le rôle modérateur joué par les valeurs humaines entre l'injustice au travail et les conséquences sur les employés sur le lieu de travail (pression). De même, nous avons examiné la sensibilité à l'équité qui peut agir comme source tampon entre l'injustice et les résultats du travail des employés. Troisièmement, bien qu'une grande partie de la recherche ait paru expliquer le rôle dynamique de l'équité au travail et de ses conséquences, les chercheurs ont cependant moins insisté pour comprendre comment le contexte socioculturel influe sur les perceptions d'équité des employés (Silva et Caetano, 2016). Toutefois, compte tenu des différences culturelles qui guident les différences d'une manière éthique, il est très difficile d'appliquer les résultats de la recherche de la culture occidentale dans le modèle pakistanais. De plus, certaines controverses à travers la culture restent peu claires, ce qui suggère que des recherches plus poussées sont nécessaires (p. Ex., Leung, 1987, Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki et Jones, 2013, Khan, Abbas, Gul et Raja, 2015) pour comprendre précisément la réaction à des événements injustes. Par conséquent, il est important de mener des recherches sur des échantillons provenant de différents pays pour comprendre l'équité au travail afin d'avoir une vision claire de l'endroit où l'on se situe et où l'on se projette (Silva & Caetano, 2016).

7.2. Théorie et hypothèses

7.2.1. Effet de la justice organisationnelle et du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur les conséquences du stress

Un problème majeur dans le domaine des études professionnelles est le fait de savoir mettre en place un comportement organisationnel dans lequel les employés sont à la fois en bonne santé et désireux d'être à leurs niveau optimum de performance au bénéfice de leurs organisations (Katz et Kahn, 1978). Bien que les résultats empiriques existants soient importants pour améliorer la connaissance de l'iniquité comme un prédicteur important des résultats de travail

des employés (Greenberg, 1987, Colquitt, 2004, Colquitt, 2012), la question reste de savoir pourquoi les employés se comportent différemment en réponse à l'événement injuste. Plusieurs spécialistes ont également soulevé des préoccupations similaires au sujet des connaissances limitées en matière d'équité dans les procédures (Blader & Tyler, 2005; Colquitt et al., 2005, van Dijke et al., 2014). Néanmoins, les recherches antérieures semblent dépendre des modèles de stress pour étudier la relation entre la caractéristique de l'environnement de travail et le bien-être (Lazarus et Folkman, 1984, Hobfoll, 1989, Karasek et Theorell, 1990, Edwards, 1998, Luszczynska et Cieslak, 2005). Par conséquent, les comportements injustes sont des facteurs situationnels (manque de réciprocité entre les efforts engagés dans l'organisation et les récompenses reçues, ou écart dans les échanges employeur-employé entre les transactions attendues et réelles) qui dans le milieu de travail vont détourner leurs compétences, capacités et autres ressources loin de leurs objectifs (Felblinger, 2008). L'apparition de l'injustice est susceptible d'entraîner des pertes en terme de qualité des relations financières et interpersonnelles, ce qui déclenche les réactions psychologiques et comportementales des individus (Andersson et Pearson, 1999; Penney & Spector, 2005).

Cette recherche se concentre sur la description de la relation entre les facteurs de stress et la pression, néanmoins, le stress est un événement qui menace la perte de ressources ou la difficulté de les retrouver (Hobfoll, 1989). De même, selon notre étude : la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort-récompense sont parmi les concepts les plus largement utilisés dans l'examen des facteurs de stress et des relations de contraintes (Colquitt et al., 2001; Siegrist et al., 2004). Malgré tout, la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort-récompense affirment qu'ils ont un pouvoir prédictif plus fort dans l'examen des conséquences du stress, mais en même temps, les recherches existantes montrent des controverses concernant l'influence des pratiques déloyales des autorités organisationnelles sur les résultats du travail à travers la culture (Colquitt et al., 2001, Colquitt, 2004, Shao et al., 2013, Khan et al., 2015). En outre, les recherches antérieures montrent que l'idée de justice varie selon les valeurs personnelles et culturelles des individus (Farh et al., 1997). Par exemple, la répartition des récompenses entre les employés varie selon les échantillons chinois, japonais, américains et coréens (par exemple Bond, Leung et Wan, 1982; Leung & Bond, 1984). En outre, Li et Cropanzano (2009) ont démontré que la généralisation des perceptions d'équité en Amérique du Nord, et les contextes asiatiques sont encore peu clairs (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). À la lumière des recherches susmentionnées, nous nous attendons à trouver plus de régularités entre les cultures pour comprendre les différentes interprétations de l'injustice (OJ et ERI) qui ont généralement des effets néfastes sur le

comportement et l'attitude des employés organisationnels au Pakistan et en France. Nous avons donc émis les hypothèses suivantes :

Hypothèse 1 : La justice organisationnelle est négativement liée à l'épuisement professionnel et l'intention de départ, tout en étant positivement liée à l'engagement organisationnel, à la performance des employés et au comportement des employés.

Hypothèse 2 : Le déséquilibre effort-récompense est positivement lié à l'épuisement professionnel et à l'intention de départ, alors qu'il est négativement lié à l'engagement organisationnel, à la performance des employés et au comportement des employés.

7.2.2. Rôle modérateur des valeurs humaines personnelles

Schwartz (1992; 1994) a déclaré que les valeurs servent de principes directeurs et que les gens utilisent ces principes dans leur vie personnelle et professionnelle pour façonner des comportements et des attitudes. Selon Sagie et Elizur, (1996) les valeurs sont présumées avoir une influence sur le bien-être physique et psychologique des employés. Les individus sont plus susceptibles de présenter un état de bien-être lorsque leurs valeurs sont adaptées à l'environnement que celles qui ne le sont pas (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Plusieurs chercheurs ont constaté que toute inadéquation entre les valeurs personnelles des individus et l'environnement qui les entoure (organisation ou groupe de référence) induit les sentiments de stress (par exemple Boehnke, Stromberg, Regmi, Richmond et Chandra, 1998) qui influent négativement sur les conséquences du stress organisationnel tels que la réduction de l'engagement organisationnel (par exemple Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000, Parkes, Bochner & Schneider, 2001). D'autre part, lorsque les valeurs personnelles des individus sont compatibles avec les valeurs organisationnelles (groupe de référence), les effets négatifs de la contrainte sont considérablement réduits (Levy, 1976).

Ces dernières années, Anderson et al (2014) ont avancé que les valeurs humaines personnelles fournissent des façons de penser les actions et fournissent des normes ou des critères spécifiques pour évaluer les événements, les politiques, les choix et justifier les actions des individus (Rokeach 1973, Schwartz & Bilsky 1987, Schwartz, 1992, Hoorn, 2015). Rokeach (1973) a ajouté que les individus pouvaient varier en fonction de leurs priorités sur certaines valeurs personnelles.

De même, toutes les valeurs ne sont pas importantes pour un individu selon le contexte dans lequel il se situe (Rokeach, 1968, Rokeach, 1973, Schwartz, 2012). Les valeurs vont variées en

fonction du contexte spécifique, les valeurs explicites vont se déclencher quand elles sont pertinentes au regard d'un contexte spécifique (Rokeach 1968, Rokeach, 1973, Rokeach, 1974, Leao et Mello, 2007). D'autre part, Hu, Geertman et Hooimeijer (2016) ont postulé que bien que les individus puissent varier en ce qui concerne leurs préférences de valeurs, et dépendant d'un contexte spécifique, les valeurs ne devraient pas être considérées comme idiosyncratiques.

Les recherches antérieures sur les valeurs humaines (l'auto-amélioration et le pouvoir, l'auto-transcendance, la bienveillance et l'universalisme) ont révélé que les préférences personnelles des individus sont des facteurs importants pour façonner leur comportement et leurs attitudes (Schwartz, 1992, Shin & Zhou, 2003, Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi, et Zhang, 2009, Anderson et al. 2014). Les individus évaluent ce qui est illégitime ou injuste sur la base des conséquences probables pour leurs valeurs préférées (Schwartz, 2012; Enoksen & Sandal, 2015). Par exemple, la valeur humaine personnelle élevée de l'employé (préférence de valeur : conservation) réagit de façon plus significative et positive en influençant le leadership transformationnel en affichant une plus grande créativité (Shin & Zhou, 2003). Par conséquent, il semble soutenir l'idée que la valeur humaine personnelle influencera les résultats de stress engendrés par les pratiques déloyales des autorités des organisations. Hobfoll (1989) considère les valeurs personnelles comme des ressources personnelles et l'individu utilise ses ressources personnelles pour faire face à des événements stressants. En conséquence, selon la théorie du COR, les spécialistes s'attendent à ce que les comportements d'adaptation des individus soient influencés par la connexion entre les valeurs de ces individus et les évaluations de préférences de ressources (Morelli et Cunningham, 2012). La raison de cette attente est que la réponse de l'individu à la menace ou à la perte réelle de ressources est susceptible d'être modifiée en fonction de la valeur personnelle qu'un individu a lié aux ressources spécifiques qui sont menacées (Hobfoll, 1989). Par conséquent, nous supposons que les caractéristiques de la théorie du COR sont les plus appropriées à la conceptualisation du phénomène de stress, en particulier à nos prédicteurs concernant les caractéristiques individuelles en tant que ressources pour gérer les situations stressantes sur le lieu de travail. Nous avons insisté sur les comportements d'adaptation fondés sur les ressources comme la conséquence de l'intérêt. Cela est dû au fait que les comportements d'adaptation sont ciblés dans la protection ou la récupération des ressources perdues plus que les valeurs qu'un individu préfère.

Nous supposons que la valeur humaine personnelle joue un rôle important dans l'autorégulation (comportement d'adaptation) et que l'utilisation de cette perspective dans le cadre de cette étude peut être liée aux valeurs personnelles de l'individu et à l'impact de ces valeurs sur les procédures

d'évaluation des ressources. Selon la théorie du COR, les individus sont motivés à protéger, à investir et à retrouver leurs ressources psychosociales en tenant compte des événements passés stressants (Hobfoll, 2001). Lorsque les individus sont confrontés à des facteurs de stress environnementaux (injustice), ils s'efforcent de faire face à ces facteurs de stress afin de conserver leurs ressources précieuses (traitement équitable) perdues en raison de facteurs de stress environnementaux (Hobfoll et Freedy, 1993). De cette manière, on peut s'attendre à ce que les individus participent de façon proactive à la restauration des dommages causés aux ressources et à l'investissement des ressources restantes à des fins de protection menant à un événement stressant ou à la suite de celui-ci. Par conséquent, il est tout à fait possible d'établir un lien entre la nature motivationnelle des valeurs et des ressources : Les valeurs peuvent être articulées par des actions comportementales guidées par les ressources qui sont en réponse à une expérience individuelle aux événements induits par le stress. De plus, il est soutenu que les comportements d'adaptation d'un individu sont inspirés pour protéger les ressources qui sont les plus importantes pour cette personne en fonction du système de valeurs de cet individu (Feather, 1995, et Brotheridge et Lee, 2002).

Puisqu'il y a un consensus croissant sur le fait que les valeurs humaines personnelles servent de principes directeurs pour évaluer les actions, les événements, et si les individus sont bons ou mauvais (Schwartz, 1992, Schwartz, Piurko, & Davidov, 2011). Les stratégies individuelles d'adaptation des ressources contre les pertes de ressources (injustice) peuvent être guidées par les priorités personnelles (valeurs humaines personnelles) pour prendre des décisions, investir, protéger, récupérer les ressources perdues et acquérir de nouvelles ressources pour les investissements futurs. Plus précisément, les individus qui déclarent un niveau plus élevé de valeurs d'auto-perfectionnement (pouvoir et réalisation) susceptibles de mettre davantage l'accent sur leurs propres intérêts personnels, même au détriment des autres, peuvent être davantage concernés par des ressources personnelles ou individuelles (Schwartz, 1994). Des recherches antérieures suggèrent également que la valeur humaine personnelle (valeur de la conformité) modère la relation curvilinéaire entre un certain nombre de liens faibles et la créativité (Zhou et al., 2014). En se fondant sur la discussion susmentionnée, et la notion telle que présentée, les individus souffrent d'injustice au travail (stress, injustice et déséquilibre effort-récompense) quand il y a une violation de leurs valeurs préférées et les conséquences de l'injustice peuvent être guidés par les valeurs fondamentales. Cette recherche se concentre sur la première dimension (auto-amélioration versus auto-transcendance) en raison du lien plus fort entre cette dimension et les perceptions d'iniquité (Lipponen et al. 2004). De plus, les recherches

existantes montrent des résultats mitigés en ce qui concerne les valeurs humaines personnelles, par exemple, Choi et Price (2005) ont trouvé que les effets relatifs de l'ajustement de la valeur et de la capacité s'inscrivent dans un engagement à l'égard de la mise en œuvre et de la mise en œuvre des comportements. Par conséquent, considérant les valeurs comme des principes directeurs dans la vie professionnelle et personnelle des employés et ayant un fort impact dans la réalisation de leurs objectifs et de leurs actions, il est important d'étudier systématiquement le rôle dynamique des valeurs humaines dans l'examen du stress (injustice). En conséquence, nous avons émis les hypothèses suivantes :

Hypothèse 3 : Les valeurs humaines personnelles modéreront l'impact de la justice organisationnelle sur l'épuisement professionnel, l'intention de départ, l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés et le comportement des employés dans son rôle. L'impact sera positif ou négatif en fonction des individus qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs humaines personnelles que ceux qui leurs accordent une faible importance.

Hypothèse 3a : La relation négative entre la justice organisationnelle et l'épuisement professionnel, ainsi que les intentions de départ seront plus faibles pour les personnes qui accordent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-amélioration.

Hypothèse 3b : La relation positive entre la justice organisationnelle et l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés ainsi que le comportement des employés dans le rôle sera plus faible pour les personnes qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-amélioration.

Hypothèse 3c : La relation négative entre la justice organisationnelle et l'épuisement professionnel ainsi que les intentions de départ sera plus forte pour les personnes qui accordent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs de dépassement de soi.

Hypothèse 3d : La relation positive entre la justice organisationnelle et l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés ainsi que le comportement des employés dans le rôle sera plus forte pour les personnes qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-transcendance.

Hypothèse 4 : Les valeurs humaines personnelles modéreront l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'épuisement professionnel, l'intention de départ, l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés et le comportement des employés. L'impact sera positif ou négatif en fonction des individus qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs humaines personnelles que ceux qui leur accordent une faible importance.

Hypothèse 4a : Les valeurs humaines personnelles modéreront l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'épuisement professionnel ainsi que les intentions de roulement de sorte que la relation positive sera plus forte pour les personnes qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-amélioration.

Hypothèse 4b : Les valeurs humaines personnelles modéreront l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés ainsi que le comportement des employés de sorte que la relation négative sera plus forte pour les personnes qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-amélioration.

Hypothèse 4c : Les valeurs personnelles humaines vont modérer l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'épuisement professionnel ainsi que les intentions de départ, de sorte que la relation positive sera plus faible pour les personnes qui accordent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-transcendance.

Hypothèse 4d : Les valeurs humaines personnelles modéreront l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'engagement organisationnel, la performance des employés ainsi que les employés dans le comportement sorte que la relation négative sera plus faible pour les personnes qui attribuent relativement plus d'importance aux valeurs d'auto-transcendance.

7.2.3. Effets modérateurs de la sensibilité à l'injustice :

Cette recherche s'attache à examiner la relation entre les facteurs de stress (injustice) et la pression « strain » (conséquence) tandis que, considérant les recommandations des chercheurs, nous avons inclus une autre construction de différence individuelle (sensibilité à l'injustice) qui peut significativement influencer les comportements individuels au sein des organisations (Huseman et al., 1987). De précédentes recherches suggèrent que la construction de la sensibilité à l'injustice était établie sur la base de la théorie de l'équité pour mieux comprendre et soutenir

parcimonieusement un éventail plus large de différences individuelles (Huseman et al., 1987; King et al. 1993; Hayibor, 2015). Les chercheurs ont reconnu que l'influence des perceptions de l'inégalité et les réactions face à cela semble varier selon les individus (King et al., 1993) : en effet, les individus sont différents au regard de leur sensibilité à l'injustice (Parnell & Sullivan 1992). En d'autres termes, Huseman et al. (1987, p. 223) a établi que « les individus réagissent différemment, mais individuellement, à la perception de l'équité et de l'injustice parce qu'ils ont des préférences différentes (c'est-à-dire sont différemment sensibles à) l'équité ». Huseman et ses associés (1987) ont établi dans leur ouvrage pionnier que la sensibilité à l'équité (la différence personnelle) est soit un état soit un trait. Si c'est un état, le degré de sensibilité individuelle peuvent varier selon la situation. D'un autre côté, si la sensibilité à l'équité est un trait stable alors, la sensibilité individuelle resterait à déterminer d'une situation à une autre.

Cependant, Scott et Colquitt (2007) ont considéré la sensibilité à l'équité comme un trait stable qui modère les réactions individuelles face à l'injustice. Désormais, de telles réactions sont perçues comme variant selon les traditions systématiques au travers des individus. Par conséquent, nous supposons que la sensibilité à l'équité (la différence individuelle) en tant que trait personnel peut différer mais reste persistant. Cependant, si la sensibilité à l'équité est considérée comme un trait personnel alors en prenant la perspective de la théorie COR (Hobfoll, 1989), la sensibilité à l'équité comme d'autres traits (par exemple, le self-control, le courage, l'optimisme disposition, l'estime de soi généralisée) doit être considérée comme une ressource personnelle qui peut aider à évaluer si l'événement est juste ou injuste.

Les précédentes recherches montrent des liens forts entre la variété des conséquences des attitudes comportementales tout comme les perceptions des politiques d'organisation (Adams, Treadway, Stepina, 2008), l'engagement organisationnel (King & Miles 1994), la satisfaction au travail (Ahmad, 2011; Kickul & Lester 2001), la performance des employés, (Bing & Burroughs 2001), la prise de décision éthique (Mudrack, Mason, Stepanski, 1999), les comportements de négociation (Yiu & Law 2011) et la sélection du secteur de l'emploi a été examiné par Sass et al. (2011).

La raison principale de choisir la sensibilité à l'équité est due à ses liens avec la justice dans les rapports entre les intrants et les résultats sur le lieu de travail qui est le thème potentiel de cette recherche. Cependant, la sensibilité à l'équité conceptualise (Huseman et al., 1985, 1987) les perceptions de l'équité comme une fonction des différences individuelles dans laquelle les

employés préfèrent un ratio « outcome/input » qui est soit moins bon, équivalent ou meilleur comparé aux ratios d'autres individus. (Hayibor, 2015 ; Jeon and Newman, 2016).

Dans le cas où il y a une incompatibilité entre les résultats attendus de l'employé (récompenses organisationnelles) au travail (par exemple, sous-récompensé ou trop récompensé) et les conditions de récompenses individuelles, alors s'en suivra une faible perception de l'équité (Huseman et al., 1985). Généralement, les résultats imprécis sur la construction de la sensibilité à l'équité comme plusieurs chercheurs ont rapporté (Huseman et al., 1985; Konovsky, & Organ, 1996; Blakely et al., 2005; Colquitt et al., 2006; Seitz, 2006) que la sensibilité à l'équité apparaît typiquement comme un paradoxe aux perceptions d'équité.

Plus récemment, Jeon et Newman (2016) ont redéfini la sensibilité à l'équité comme une propension à percevoir les stimuli comme justes ou injustes. Ceci diffère de la définition originale du concept par Huseman et al. (1985). La contribution de Jeon et Newman (2016) : (a) se focalise sur les résultats individuels désirés, (b) implique une comparaison avec d'autres résultats, ou (c) classe les individus en trois catégories.

Les auteurs avancent que c'est la sensibilité à l'équité et non pas l'égoïsme qui contrôle la susceptibilité individuelle à percevoir les événements professionnels comme juste ou injuste. Ainsi, il a été établi que la sensibilité à l'équité est la propension à évaluer les stimuli comme juste ou injuste.

Des recherches antérieures ont aussi démontré que la sensibilité à l'équité affecte la satisfaction liée au salaire des employés, et l'adoption d'un comportement pro-social au sein d'un groupe (Miles et al., 1989; Akan et al., 2009). Plusieurs auteurs ont prouvé que la sensibilité aux violations de la théorie de l'équité d'Adam (1963, 1965; Scott et Colquitt, 2007) varie selon les individus. Par conséquent, la sensibilité à l'équité est considéré comme une variable modératrice (Scott et Colquitt, 2007; Andiappan, et Trevino 2010). Les travaux de Blakely et al. (2005) ont permis d'affirmer le rôle modérateur de la sensibilité à l'équité entre la justice et le comportement de citoyenneté organisationnelle.

Une autre vague de recherche a déclaré que le statut ou le titre (désigné par l'organisation) est plus concerné par le concept de l'injustice et aura un impact négatif sur la sensibilité à l'équité (Scott et Colquitt 2007; Andiappan et Trevino, 2010; Hayibor, 2015). Par exemple, la sensibilité à l'équité modère la relation entre la rupture du contrat psychologique, le comportement de

citoyenneté organisationnelle et le comportement déviant sur le lieu de travail (Lloyd et al., 2007).

Plusieurs études ont examiné le rôle modérateur de la sensibilité à l'équité entre la rupture du contrat psychologique, les attitudes et le comportement de l'employé (Kickul et Lester, 2001), entre l'auto-efficacité et l'attitude au travail (O'Neill et Mone, 1998).

A contrario, les travaux de Scott and Colquitt (2007) ont démontré l'absence de support modérateur de la sensibilité à l'équité entre les dimensions de la justice organisationnelle et les conséquences au travail.

A la lumière des recherches citées précédemment, la sensibilité à l'équité peut être une importante composante pour la compréhension des attitudes et comportements de l'individu sur le lieu de travail, et nécessite d'étendre les recherches car les résultats existants restent ambigus (Allan, et White, 2002; Shanon et al., 2009).

Dans cette optique, cette étude est un premier pas dans l'exploration, l'évaluation des résultats existants en examinant si la sensibilité à l'équité a un rôle modérateur sur la relation entre l'injustice et le rendement. Par conséquent, nous présentons les hypothèses suivantes :

Hypothèse 5a : La sensibilité à l'équité a un effet modérateur sur la relation entre la justice organisationnelle et l'épuisement professionnel, ainsi que l'intention de départ. De façon à ce que les effets de la justice organisationnelle seront plus négatifs à un niveau élevé de sensibilité à l'équité (celle donnée à l'entreprise) qu'à un niveau faible de sensibilité (dégagée par l'organisation).

Hypothèse 5b : La sensibilité à l'équité a un effet modérateur sur l'impact de la justice organisationnelle et l'engagement organisationnel, ainsi que la performance des employés et l'implication des employés. De façon à ce que les effets de la justice organisationnelle seront plus positifs à un niveau élevé de sensibilité à l'équité (celle donnée à l'entreprise) qu'à un niveau faible de sensibilité (dégagée par l'organisation).

Hypothèse 6a : La sensibilité à l'équité a un effet modérateur sur l'impact du déséquilibre effort-récompense sur l'épuisement professionnel, ainsi que l'intention de départ. De façon à ce que la relation positive sera plus faible à un niveau élevé de sensibilité à l'équité (celle donnée à l'entreprise) qu'à un niveau faible de sensibilité (dégagée par l'organisation).

Hypothèse 6b : La sensibilité à l'équité a un effet modérateur sur l'impact du « déséquilibre effort-récompense » et l'engagement organisationnel, ainsi que la performance des employés et l'implication des employés. De façon à ce que la relation négative devient plus faible à un niveau élevé de sensibilité à l'équité (celle donnée à l'entreprise) qu'à un niveau faible de sensibilité (dégagée par l'organisation).

7.3. Le modèle de recherche proposé

Sur la base des théories expliquées ci-dessus, nous présentons notre modèle conceptuel qui incorpore les deux courants comme le montre la figure 7.1. Le cadre conceptuel est fondé sur des études de la perception de l'équité globale qui ont exploité deux modèles concurrents.

La figure 7.1 ci-dessous, permet de visualiser la structure utilisée pour formuler les deux études, et démontre que les employés sont confrontés à une multitude de facteur de stress en milieu du travail. Dans cette étude, nous intégrons l'injustice (la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre Effort/Récompense) comme facteur de stress.

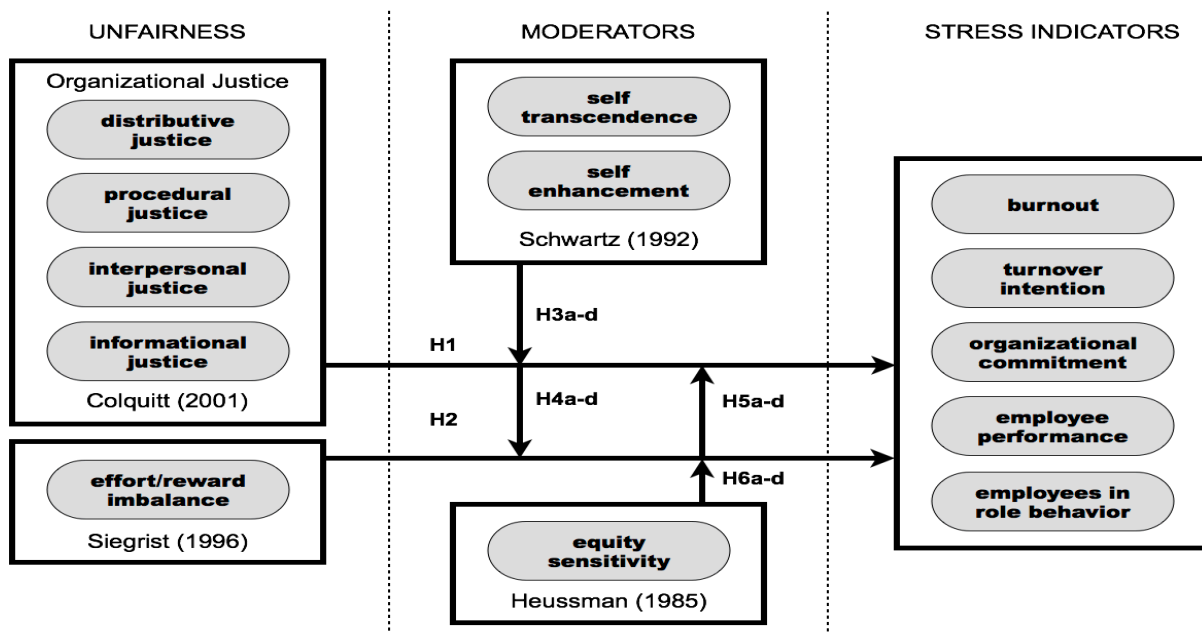


Figure-7.1 : Modèle conceptuel proposé

Nous prévoyons que l'injustice (JO ou ERI) crée un environnement stressant, affecte le bien-être des employés et a des conséquences néfastes : épuisement professionnel, intention de départ, engagement des employés et l'implication des employés.

De nombreux chercheurs dont Siegrist (1996), ont d'abord avancé que si l'effort est faiblement récompensé cela engendre une tension (conséquence du stress), de même, une perception élevée de l'injustice produit un niveau élevé de stress. Sur la base de ceci, nous choisissons notre modèle théorique de la justice organisationnelle pour cette étude. Ce modèle explique que la justice engage une rupture de quelques perceptions et attentes de la justice. Nous avançons que la justice organisationnelle peut affecter les conséquences du stress. Ce modèle illustre les résultats de Judge and Colquitt (2004) qui considèrent l'injustice comme un facteur de stress et l'associent aux perceptions du stress. Par ailleurs, le déséquilibre effort-récompense (Siegrist, 1996) permet également de comprendre les fondements conceptuels nécessaires à l'étude du stress au travail. De même, le déséquilibre effort-récompense (Siegrist, 1996) fournit une base conceptuelle complète pour étudier la tension au travail. Ce modèle combine les perspectives psychologiques des individus avec les circonstances sociales et les fondamentaux économiques authentiques. Ainsi, il peut être appliqué pour plusieurs situations professionnelles (Siegrist, 1990).

En se référant aux recherches de Siegrist, (1990), nous proposons également le modèle effort-récompense et sa relation avec le comportement et l'attitude face au stress (voir Figure 7.1).

De plus, la figure 7.1 précise la relation entre les éléments principaux de l'étude, en particulier les variables indépendantes (la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort-récompense) et la variable dépendante (conséquence du stress-épuisement professionnel, l'intention de départ, la performance des employés et l'implication des employés) avec deux modérateurs - valeurs humaines personnelles (auto-amélioration et auto-transcendance) et la sensibilité à l'équité.

7.4. Méthode

7.4.1. L'échantillon

Les données recueillies varient énormément selon le type d'organisation et selon les répondants. Sachant que les réponses sont fondées sur l'auto-déclaration des participants, nous n'avons aucun contrôle sur les erreurs de réponses. En conséquence, nous avons utilisé des techniques de contrôle comme la statistique descriptive, les valeurs manquantes, des réponses non engagées identifiant des valeurs aberrantes univariées / multivariées ont également été rapportées.

Le tableau 5.1 présente les données démographiques de notre échantillon. Au Pakistan, nous avons pu récupérer 855 questionnaires. Uniquement 824 ont été pris en compte après le contrôle des données. L'échantillon est formé de 433 hommes et 83 femmes. En revanche en France,

l'échantillon est composé de 150 femmes et de 158 hommes. Nous constatons que l'échantillon pakistanais est représenté par plus d'hommes (74%) que de femmes (26%) contrairement à l'échantillon Français où les femmes représentent plus de (65,6%). Cette disparité décrit la population active dans les organisations pakistanaises qui est plus masculine. La répartition de l'âge de nos deux échantillons se présente comme suit : 33% des répondants sont âgés entre 20 à 30 ans dans l'échantillon pakistanais et 39,8% dans l'échantillon français, 33,4% et 33,2 (entre 31 et 40), 20,7% et 16,6% (entre 41 et 50) et 12,3, 10,4% (de 51 ans et plus) respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais et français. La moyenne d'âge des participants est de 37,6 ans dans l'échantillon pakistanais et de 36 ans dans l'échantillon français. Parmi les participants, 36% ont intégré le cycle universitaire au Pakistan et 9,5% en France. 33% de l'échantillon pakistanais et 18,3% l'échantillon français ont un Master et 3% ont un doctorat dans l'échantillon pakistanais et 25,3% dans l'échantillon français. Le nombre moyen d'années d'expérience est de 11,1 ans dans l'échantillon pakistanais et de 7,9 ans dans l'échantillon Français. Cette étude comprend les cols blancs (Pakistan = 62%, France = 90,5%) et cols bleus (Pakistan = 38%, France = 9,5%). Comme le montre le tableau 5.1, la majorité des participants, 71,5% sont mariés dans l'échantillon pakistanais contre 23,2% dans l'échantillon français alors que 28,5% sont célibataires dans l'échantillon pakistanais et 76,8% dans l'échantillon français.

7.4.2. Les échelles de mesure

Les échelles de mesure utilisées sont au nombre de 14 échelles. Elles ont été évaluées à l'aide d'une échelle de Likert de 7 degrés allant de 1-fortement en désaccord à 7-fortement d'accord.

La justice distributive. Nous avons mesuré la justice distributive en utilisant l'échelle de 4 degrés développée par Leventhal (1976). Un exemple de question : « Ces résultats (récompenses organisationnelles) reflètent-ils l'effort que vous avez fourni dans votre travail ? » Les items ont été évalués sur une échelle de Likert de 7 points allant de 1 à 7 fortement en désaccord. La fiabilité avec l'alpha de Cronbach est de 0,91 pour l'échantillon pakistanais et 0,92 pour l'échantillon français.

Justice procédurale. Nous avons utilisé sept items développés par Leventhal (1980). Exemple d'item: (1) «Êtes-vous en mesure d'exprimer vos points de vue au cours de ces procédures?" L'alpha de Cronbach est de 0,81 dans l'échantillon pakistanais et 0,89 dans l'échantillon français.

Justice interpersonnelle. Les perceptions des employés concernant la justice interpersonnelle ont été évaluées à l'aide d'une échelle de quatre items développée par Bies et Moag (1986). Exemple : «Votre patron / superviseur vous a-t-il traité de manière polie? ». Les alphas de Cronbach sont de 0,87 et 0,86 respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais et français.

La Justice informationnelle. Nous avons mesuré la justice d'information en utilisant une échelle de cinq items développée par Bies et Moag (1986) et Shapiro (1994). Exemple : «Votre patron / superviseur est franc quand il communique avec vous? ». L'alpha de Cronbach est de 0,91 et 0,87 respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais et français.

Le déséquilibre effort-récompense a été mesuré en suivant deux dimensions, une version raccourcie d'ERI développée par Siegrist, Wege, Pu'hlhofer et Wahrendorf, (2009). Cette version comprend 10 éléments : 1 à 3 (3 items) liés à l'effort des employés, exemple : « Je ressens toujours la pression de temps en raison d'une lourde charge de travail », et 4 à 10 (7-items) concerne la récompense organisationnelle exemple : «Je reçois le respect que je mérite de mon supérieur ou d'une personne concernée respectivement». L'alpha de Cronbach pour les efforts des employés étaient 0.90 et 0.86 respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais et français, de même pour les récompenses organisationnelles ont été 0.87 et 0,81. Les réponses sont additionnées pour chaque échelle et le rapport effort-récompense (ratio ER) a été calculé avec la formule $(R) : E / (R \times C)$. Dans cette formule, la récompense (R) a été multipliée par le facteur de correction (C) qui tient compte du nombre différent des items dans le numérateur et le dénominateur. Ainsi, les individus qui avaient un rapport effort / récompense supérieur à 1 connaissent un déséquilibre important (Peter, Alfredsson, Hammar, Siegrist, Theorell et Westerholm, 1998).

L'épuisement lié au travail (Burnout) a été mesuré à l'aide d'une échelle de sept items développée par Kristensen, Borritz, Villadsen et Christensen (2005) (Recensement du Burnout de Copenhague). Questionnement utilisé : « Votre travail vous épuise émotionnellement ? ». La fiabilité de l'échelle est 0.92 dans l'échantillon pakistanais et 0,89 dans l'échantillon français.

Turnover intention. L'intention de départ a été mesurée en utilisant trois items développés par Mobley, Horner et Hollingsworth (1978). Exemple : « Je pense souvent à quitter mon emploi actuel » (2) « Je vais probablement chercher un nouvel emploi dans la prochaine année » Le coefficient alphas pour cette échelle est de 0,89 dans l'échantillon pakistanais et de 0,91 dans l'échantillon français.

Engagement organisationnel. Nous avons utilisé une échelle d'items six items développée par Mowday, Steer et Poter, (1979) pour évaluer les perceptions des employés. Exemple d'items : « Je dis à mes amis que c'est une excellente organisation pour laquelle travailler ». Le coefficient alpha pour cette échelle était de 0,90 dans l'échantillon pakistanais et de 0,92 dans l'échantillon français.

La performance des employés. La fiabilité de l'échelle de rendement des employés est de 0,88 dans l'échantillon pakistanais et de 0,87 en français échantillon.

L'implication des employés. L'échelle utilisée est celle de William et Anderson (1991). Elle comporte 7 items. Exemple : « Complétez correctement les tâches assignées ». Les fiabilités alphas pour le comportement des employés sont de 0,87 et 0,92 respectivement pour l'échantillon Pakistanais et Français.

Les valeurs humaines personnelles ont été mesurées à l'aide d'une échelle de 17 items semblable à celles développées par Schwartz (1995). Par conséquent, nous avons inclus deux dimensions : la première dimension est l'Auto-amélioration mesurée en utilisant 7-items. Par exemple « Il est très important pour lui de montrer ses capacités ». Le coefficient alpha de cette échelle était de 0,93 et de 0,90 respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais dans l'échantillon français. La deuxième dimension des valeurs humaines c'est l'auto-transcendance mesurée à l'aide d'une échelle de 10 items. Exemple : « Il pense qu'il est important que chaque personne dans le monde soit traitée de façon égale ». « Pardonner les gens qui l'ont blessé est important pour lui. Il essaie de voir ce qui est bon en eux et de ne pas avoir de rancune ». Le coefficient d'alpha de cette échelle était de 0,91 et de 0,93 respectivement pour l'échantillon Pakistanais et Français.

Sensibilité à l'équité. La sensibilité à l'équité a été évaluée à l'aide d'une échelle de cinq items développée par Huseman et al. (1987). Les cotations de l'échelle standard ont été légèrement modifiée. Les participants à cette étude ont répondu à tous les items de l'échelle 5 en utilisant 7. Sachant que l'échelle est de 1 « donner à une organisation » à 7 « obtenir de l'organisation ». Le répondant attribue 1-7 points entre deux sensibilités - (0-10 points). La modification de l'échelle a comme but de normaliser toutes les échelles de mesure sur des échelles Likert de 1 à 7. Le coefficient alpha de cette échelle était de 0,89 et 0,87 respectivement dans l'échantillon pakistanais et français.

Les variables de contrôle. Les recherches antérieures suggèrent que l'influence des perceptions d'équité sur la santé et le bien-être des employés peut varier selon les groupes professionnels

(Herr et al., 2015). Cette étude comprend plusieurs variables : démographiques, l'expérience, le sexe, les années d'études, l'âge et situation matrimoniale. L'utilisation de ces variables de contrôle permet d'examiner les caractéristiques qui pourraient affecter les perceptions d'injustice et les comportements des employés.

7.4.3. Analyse technique

Notre démarche est de collecter les données afin d'étudier le cadre préalablement établi. Le modèle de recherche proposé est examiné selon une étude quantitative détaillée au chapitre 4. Brièvement, l'auto-évaluation de l'étude transversale a été utilisée pour mesurer les liens entre les concepts clés inclus dans cette recherche. Les données primaires (N = 824) ont été recueillies auprès de différents types de profil cadre (assimilés, supérieurs...) au Pakistan et en France. Les participants appartiennent à trois secteurs différents : L'éducation, la santé et l'énergie. Nous avons utilisé une analyse multi-niveaux.

Notre analyse est basée sur les modèles de mesure dans l'analyse factorielle confirmatoire utilisant AMOS-22 (Schumacker et Lomax, 1996). Nous avons supprimé certains éléments au cours de la CFA pour stabiliser les modèles de mesure. Nous avons pu avoir un coefficient de détermination (model fit) adéquat ce qui nous a permis et de tester les hypothèses de l'étude.

Notre analyse est constituée de : l'analyse de fiabilité SPSS-22, l'analyse de corrélation, l'invariance et un test de régression linéaire hiérarchique (modélisation linéaire: Bryk et Raudenbush, 1992). Ceci nous a permis de tester les relations directes entre variables indépendantes et dépendantes. La raison de l'utilisation de la modélisation linéaire permet des observations dépendantes dans la structure de niveau supérieur (Snijders et Bosker, 1999).

L'objectif principal de cette étude est d'examiner le rôle modérateur des valeurs humaines personnelles et de la sensibilité à l'équité entre le facteur de stress (injustice) - Tension (conséquence du stress). Par conséquent, nous avons effectué des analyses de régression modérées hiérarchisées (Cohen et Cohen, 1983) pour étudier le rôle modérateur des valeurs humaines personnelles et la sensibilité à l'équité sur la relation entre l'injustice (justice organisationnelle et déséquilibre effort-récompense) et les indicateurs de stress (L'engagement organisationnelle, la performance des employés, l'implication, l'épuisement professionnel et l'intention de départ). Puisque nos données sont de nature perceptive, nous avons centré toutes les variables prédictives sur la réduction d'éventuelle possibilité de multi-colinéarité, lors du test des effets d'interaction. Les variables de contrôle nous ont permis d'éliminer l'effet parasite

susceptible de biaiser notre analyse. L'effet principal de chaque indicateur a été saisi à l'étape 2. Dans une troisième étape, nous avons saisi tous les principaux effets des variables modératrices et l'étape finale 4 considérée tous les termes d'interaction. Un changement significatif du R^2 dans la quatrième étape fournit des preuves d'un effet d'interaction (Cohen, Cohen, West, et Aiken, 2003).

7.5. Analyse de données

7.5.1. Analyse factorielle confirmatoire (échantillon pakistanais)

Afin de tester l'ajustement et la structure factorielle des modèles nous avons établi une CFA. Bien que les valeurs des indices d'ajustement aient des valeurs acceptables : χ^2 (1988) = 2693.834, [RMSEA = 025], [TLI = .968], [CFI = .970] et [SRMR = .0342] plusieurs items ont un poids de régression inférieur au seuil .70 (sen3, set9, set10, int1, inf3, inf4, bo1, bo4, empb7, ore4, ore6) En conséquent, nous avons supprimé ces éléments du modèle et les indices d'ajustement prennent les valeurs suivantes : χ^2 (1318) = 1642,126, [RMSEA = .020], [TLI = .982], [CFI = .984] et [SRMR = .0310].

7.5.2. Validité et fiabilité des variables

En tenant compte de nos craintes par rapport à la validité, nous avons également effectué une analyse pour mesurer les validations incluant toutes les variables de l'étude, et les valeurs de l'AVE sont supérieures à MSV et ASV, ce modèle est valide (voir tableau 7.1 ci-dessous).

Tableau 7.1: Validité et fiabilité des variables

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Employees' Effort	0.902	0.754	0.172	0.907
Self-Transcendence	0.906	0.658	0.082	0.951
Organizational Justice	0.852	0.590	0.051	0.962
Equity Sensitivity	0.900	0.643	0.015	0.972
Employees' in Role Behavior	0.856	0.543	0.086	0.976
Organizational Commitment	0.885	0.606	0.066	0.980
Job-Burnout	0.884	0.655	0.086	0.983
Turnover Intention	0.900	0.751	0.108	0.985
Employees' Performance	0.831	0.711	0.050	0.986
Organizational Reward	0.888	0.614	0.172	0.987
Self-Enhancement	0.928	0.720	0.056	0.989

7.5.3. Analyse factorielle confirmatoire (échantillon français)

Afin de tester l'ajustement et la structure factorielle des modèles, nous avons établi une CFA. Bien que les valeurs des indices d'ajustement aient des valeurs acceptables : $\chi^2 (2683) = 3249.130$, [RMSEA = .030], [TLI = .952], [CFI = .949] et [SRMR = .0444], plusieurs items ont un poids de régression inférieur au seuil .70 (*sen2*, *set5*, *set6*, *set8*, *ore2*, *ore7*). Par conséquent, nous avons supprimé ces éléments du modèle et les indices d'ajustement prennent les valeurs suivantes : $\chi^2 (1770) = 2004.009$, [RMSEA = .023], [TLI = .973], [CFI = .975] et [SRMR = .0454].

7.5.4. Validité et fiabilité

De même, nous avons testé la validité convergente et discriminante incluant toutes les variables. Nous avons démontré que la validité convergente et discriminante est adéquate.

Tableau 7.2: Validité et fiabilité de tous les variables

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)
Employees' Effort	0.785	0.550	0.450	0.795
Self-Transcendence	0.924	0.636	0.035	0.942
Organizational Justice	0.889	0.668	0.015	0.961
Equity Sensitivity	0.921	0.699	0.024	0.974
Employees' in Role Behavior	0.922	0.629	0.029	0.980
Organizational Commitment	0.894	0.628	0.022	0.983
Job-burnout	0.908	0.663	0.015	0.985
Turnover Intention	0.849	0.653	0.029	0.986
Employees' Performance	0.873	0.696	0.028	0.988
Organizational Reward	0.894	0.627	0.450	0.979
Self-Enhancement	0.882	0.554	0.035	0.950

7.6. Résultat

7.6.1. Échantillon pakistanais

Le tableau 5.29 présente les moyennes, écarts types et corrélations de toutes les variables dans l'échantillon pakistanais. Pour examiner les effets possibles des variables de contrôle, nous avons effectué le test de matrice de corrélation, comme indiqué (voir chapitre 5).

7.6.1.1. *Test des hypothèses et des attentes de l'étude*

Nous avons utilisé une analyse hiérarchique distincte de régression multiple pour tester les hypothèses au niveau de l'étude 1 (HMR, voir Raudenbush, et Bryk, 2002). Les indicateurs sont fortement centrés (Cohen, Cohen, de l'Ouest, et Aiken, 2003), et les termes interactifs entre la variable indépendante et le modérateur ont été calculés. L'effet modérateur peut être soutenu lorsque le terme de production est significatif, après l'introduction des principaux indicateurs. Ensuite, nous avons tracé les graphiques d'interaction en utilisant les outils proposés par Jeremy Dawson <http://www.jeremydawson.co.uk/slopes.htm>. Nous allons examiner l'injustice générale, donc nous n'interpréterons pas les résultats préliminaires dans cette section. (pour plus de détails voir le chapitre 5)

7.6.1.2. *Résultats de la régression hiérarchique*

Dans l'ensemble, concernant la justice organisationnelle : Pour tester un impact global de la justice sur le résultat du stress, nous avons de nouveau effectué HMR comme indiqué dans le tableau 7 (Annexeure-F1). HMR a montré que la justice organisationnelle est positivement et significativement liée à OC, EMPS, EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .33, \rho < .001$) et liée négativement à JBO, TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.32, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.27, \rho < .001$). Les principaux effets de l'auto-amélioration, de l'auto-transcendance et de la sensibilité à l'équité ont également été signalés dans le tableau 7 où nous avons constaté que l'auto-amélioration était négativement liée au OC et à l'EIRB alors qu'elle est positivement liée au JBO ($\beta_{oc} = -.15, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.08, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .05$). Les principaux effets de l'auto-amélioration, de l'auto-transcendance et de la sensibilité à l'équité ont également été signalés dans le tableau 7 où nous avons constaté que l'auto-amélioration était négativement liée au OC et à l'EIRB alors qu'elle est positivement liée au JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = -.08, \rho < .05$). D'autre part, la sensibilité à l'équité a montré une association positive avec JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .08, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .22, \rho < .001$).

En outre, la régression hiérarchique a montré l'auto-amélioration, l'auto-transcendance et la sensibilité à l'équité modère la relation entre la justice organisationnelle et les conséquences du stress. Comme le montre le tableau 7, l'auto-amélioration joue le rôle de modérateur de la relation entre OJ et OC ($\beta = -.20, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .001$) OJ et JBO ($\beta = .19, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .05, \rho < .001$) OJ et EIRB ($\beta = -.11, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$). L'auto-transcendance modère la relation entre OJ et OC ($\beta = .13, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .040, \rho < .001$), OJ et JBO ($\beta = -.14, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .050, \rho < .001$).

La relation entre JO et CO a été modéré par la sensibilité de fonds OC ($\beta = -10, \rho < .05; \Delta R^2 = .040, \rho < .001$), OJ et EMPS ($\beta = -18, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .024, \rho < .001$), OJ et EIRB ($\beta = -24, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$) également JO et TOI ($\beta = .27, \rho < .001; \Delta R^2 = .06, \rho < .001$).

L'importance de pentes a été évaluée en faisant des analyses de pentes simple (Cohen et al., 2003). Ensuite, toutes les interactions significatives a été représenté en graphique (voir Fig: 5.14-24, Annexure-G1) en appliquant la méthode décrite par Aiken et West (1991). Les limitations d'espace ne nous permettent pas de tracer les graphiques pour toutes les interactions significatives, dans cette section, nous avons représenté des effets modérateurs significatifs, un pour chaque échantillon (Pakistan & France) comme démontré dans Fig-7.2 et 3. Le graphique pour l'échantillon pakistanais (interaction OJ x SE sur OC) est comme montré en Figure 7.2 en ligne comme nous l'avons prédit.

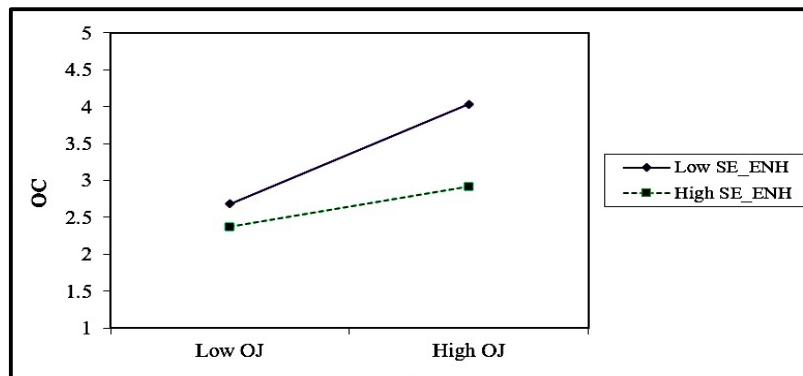


Figure 7.2 : Interaction OJ x SEN sur OC

Déséquilibre Effort-Récompense : Les effets importants du déséquilibre effort-récompense (ERI) ont été montrés dans le tableau 8 (Annexure-F1). La relation entre ERI et JOB et TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .25, \rho < .001; \beta_{toi} = .20, \rho < .001$) est positif. Etant donnée, ERI exprime l'inverse relation avec OC, EMPS, and ERIB ($\beta_{oc} = -.29, \rho < .001; \beta_{emps} = -.20, \rho < .001; \beta_{eirb} = -.25, \rho < .001$).

Les effets importants de l'auto-amélioration, de l'auto-transcendance et de la sensibilité à l'équité ont également été décrits dans le tableau 8. HMR montre que l'auto-amélioration était positivement liée à JOB ($\beta_{jbo} = .11, \rho < .05$) et l'inverse relation avec OC ($\beta_{oc} = -.14, \rho < .01$) et l'auto-transcendance est positivement liée à OC ($\beta_{oc} = .15, \rho < .01$). La sensibilité à l'équité était négativement liée à EMPS et EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.24, \rho < .01; \beta_{eirb} = -.12, \rho < .001$) et positivement liée à TOI ($\beta_{toi} = -.24, \rho < .001$). Pour tester l'interaction de l'auto-amélioration, l'auto-transcendance et la sensibilité à l'équité et ERI l'analyse de la régression modérée multiples a été réalisée. Nous avons trouvé que l'auto-amélioration modère la relation entre ERI et OC ($\beta =$

-.21, $p < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$), et ainsi que pour JBO ($\beta = .10$, $p < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .015$, $p < .05$), l'auto-transcendance aussi modère la relation entre ERI et OC ($\beta = .17$, $p < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .05$). Cependant, Nous n'avons pas trouvé d'effets modérateurs de la sensibilité à l'équité entre ERI et les stress sortants (voir table 7.3).

Table 7.3: Summary of Hypotheses Testing for Pakistani Sample

Main and Interactions Effects	Work Outcomes (Stress Indicators)				
	Job-Burnout	Turnover Intention	Organizational Commitment	Employees' Performance	Employee in Role Behavior
Hypothesis 1 Organizational Justice	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 2 Effort-Reward Imbalance	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 3(a, b) Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	√	×	√	×	√
Hypothesis 3 (c, d) Organizational Justice × Self-Transcendence	√	×	√	×	×
Hypothesis 4(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	√	×	√	×	×
Hypothesis 4(c, d) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Transcendence	×	×	√	×	×
Hypothesis 5(a, b) Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	×	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 6(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	×	×	×	×	×

7.6.2. Résultats d'étude-2 (France)

Le tableau 5.31, présente les moyennes, écarts types et corrélations de toutes les variables dans l'échantillon français. Les effets des variables de contrôle sont étudiés par le test de matrice de corrélation, comme indiqué (voir chapitre 5)

7.6.2.1. Test des hypothèses et des attentes

Des analyses de régression hiérarchique ont été effectuées pour estimer les relations linéaires et non linéaires entre les prédicteurs et les résultats du stress (JBO, OC, EMPS, ERIB, & TOI).

7.6.2.2. La justice organisationnelle globale : Un test HMR a été effectué pour évaluer l'impact global de la justice sur le résultat du stress comme le montre le tableau 13 (Annexeure-F2). La régression multiple hiérarchique montre que la justice organisationnelle est positivement et significativement liée à OC, EMPS, et EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = .32, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = .31, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = .34, \rho < .001$) et négativement et significativement liée à JOB et TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = -.34, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = -.32, \rho < .001$).

Les effets importants de l'auto-amélioration, de l'auto-transcendance et de la sensibilité à l'équité ont également été rapportés dans le tableau 13 (Annexeure-F2), nous avons constaté l'auto-amélioration était négativement liée à EMPS et EIRB ($\beta_{emps} = -.20, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.14, p < .05$) et positivement liée à JBO et TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .19, p < .05$; $\beta_{toi} = .29, \rho < .01$). L'auto-transcendance a exprimé une association positive avec OC ($\beta_{oc} = .22, \rho < .01$). D'autre part, la sensibilité à l'équité a montré une association positive avec JBO ($\beta_{jbo} = .18, \rho < .05$) ainsi qu'une liaison positive avec TOI ($\beta_{toi} = .28, p < .001$) cependant une relation négative à OC et EIRB ($\beta_{oc} = -.17, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.40, \rho < .001$). De plus, la régression multiple hiérarchique a montré que l'auto-amélioration, l'auto-transcendance et la sensibilité à l'équité modèrent la relation entre la justice organisationnelle et les conséquences de stress. Comme il est montré dans le tableau 13, l'auto-amélioration a modéré la relation entre OJ et JBO ($\beta = .14, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .12, \rho < .001$). La sensibilité équité a modéré la relation entre OJ et EIRB ($\beta = -.32, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .09, \rho < .001$), OJ et OC ($\beta = -.51, \rho < .001$; $\Delta R^2 = .11, \rho < .001$), OJ et JBO ($\beta = .21, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .12, \rho < .001$) ainsi que entre OJ et TOI ($\beta = .26, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .08, \rho < .001$).

7.6.2.3. Déséquilibre Effort-Récompense : Les effets importants du déséquilibre effort-récompense (ERI) ont été montrés dans le tableau 14 (Annexure-F2). La relation entre ERI et JOB et TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .36, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{toi} = .34, \rho < .001$) est positive. Etant donnée, ERI exprime la relation inverse avec OC, EMPS, and ERIB ($\beta_{oc} = -.29, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{emps} = -.26, \rho < .001$; $\beta_{eirb} = -$

.32, $\rho < .001$). Les effets importants de l'auto-amélioration, de l'auto-transcendance et de la sensibilité à l'équité ont également été décrits dans le tableau 14 (Annexure-F2). HMR montre que l'auto-amélioration était négativement liée à EMPS, and EIRB ($\beta_{mps} = -.18, \rho < .05$; $\beta_{eirb} = -.16, \rho < .05$) et était positivement liée à JOB et TOI ($\beta_{jbo} = .28, \rho < .01$; $\beta_{toi} = .24, \rho < .01$). L'auto-transcendance est positivement liée à OC ($\beta_{oc} = .24, \rho < .01$). La sensibilité à l'équité était négativement liée à EIRB ($\beta_{eirb} = -.38, \rho < .001$). Pour tester l'interaction de l'auto-amélioration, l'auto-transcendance et la sensibilité à l'équité et ERI l'analyse de la régression modérée multiples a été réalisée. Nous avons trouvé que l'auto-amélioration modère la relation entre ERI et EMPS ($\beta = -.31, \rho < .01$; $\Delta R^2 = .04, \rho < .05$) et ainsi que ERI et JBO ($\beta = .14, \rho < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .02, \rho < .05$)

Cependant, nous n'avons pas trouvé d'effets modérateurs de l'auto-transcendance et la sensibilité ente ERI et des conséquences de stress.

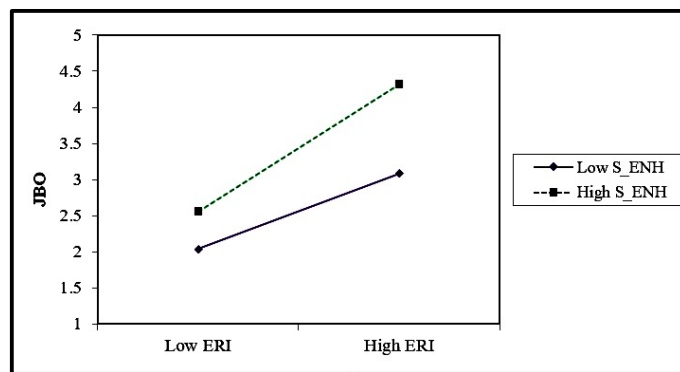


Figure-7.3 Interaction ERI x SEN sur JBO

Bien que toutes les interactions significatives aient été reproduites pour mieux comprendre les relations (voir Fig- 5.26-33, Annexure-G2). Dans cette section, nous avons seulement représenté graphiquement l'interaction sélectionnée (SEN×ERI on JBO) comme montré dans le Fig-7.3 (voir table 7.4).

Table 7.4: Summary of Hypotheses Testing for French Sample

Main and Interactions Effects	Work Outcomes (Stress Indicators)				
	Job-Burnout	Turnover Intention	Organizational Commitment	Employees' Performance	Employee in Role Behavior
Hypothesis 1 Organizational Justice	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 2 Effort- Reward Imbalance	√	√	√	√	√
Hypothesis 3 (a, b) Organizational Justice × Self-Enhancement	√	×	×	×	×
Hypothesis 3 (c, d) Organizational Justice × Self-Transcendence	×	×	√	×	×
Hypothesis 4(a, b) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Enhancement	√	×	×	√	×
Hypothesis 4(c, d) Effort-Reward Imbalance × Self-Transcendence	×	×	×	×	×
Hypothesis 5(a, b) Organizational Justice × Equity Sensitivity	√	√	√	×	√
Hypothesis 6(a, b) Effort/ Reward Imbalance × Equity Sensitivity	×	×	×	×	×

7.6.3.1. Comparaison entre la justice organisationnelle et le déséquilibre effort-récompense

Étant donné que l'objectif principal de cette recherche était de comparer deux approches concurrentes, à cette fin, nous avons considéré les coefficients β et les valeurs de R^2 pour chaque modèle à explorer (qui obtient l'effet le plus fort). Nous avons ensuite fait le calcul de grandeur de l'effet (F-carré: Aiken, & West, 1991; Cohen, 1988; Aguinis, Beaty, Boik, & Pierce, 2005) dont la taille des effets était plus grande (voir tableau 7.5-7.8) pour les deux échantillons. Les définitions conventionnelles de Cohen sont utilisées précédemment, en particulier dans les revues bibliographiques de puissance statistique (Mazen, Graf, Kellogg, & Hemmasi, 1987; Mazen, Hemmasi, & Lewis, 1987; Brock, 2003). Comme indiqué ci-dessous, le tableau 5.33 (voir chapitre 5) a illustré que le R^2 de test de régression multiple pour détecter ce qui est

classiquement défini comme un petit effet (i.e., $f^2 = .02$) est .84, le moyen effet (i.e., $f^2 = .15$) d'environ 0.98, et le grand effet (i.e., $f^2 = .35$) est de 1.0.

Table 7.5: Comparing Two Approaches OJ versus ERI (Pakistani sample)

Variables	Organizational Justice		Effort-Reward Imbalance		Observed effect size	
	β	R^2	β	R^2	(f^2)	Effect Size
Job-Burnout	-.320***	.110***	.250***	.073***	.0416	Small
Turnover Intention	-.270***	.081***	.201**	.050***	.0337	Small
Organizational Commitment	.312***	.098***	-.290***	.091***	.008	None
Employees' Performance	.313***	.109***	-.201***	.056***	.0509	Small
Employees in Role Behavior	.331***	.112***	-.250**	.064***	.0541	Small

Table 7.6: Comparing Two Approaches OJ versus ERI (French sample)

Variables	Organizational Justice		Effort-Reward Imbalance		Observed effect size	
	β	R^2	β	R^2	(f^2)	Effect Size
Job-Burnout	-.340***	.110***	.360***	.13***	.0230	Small
Turnover Intention	-.320***	.101***	.340***	.123***	.0251	Small
Organizational Commitment	.320***	.102***	-.290***	.080***	.0245	Small
Employees' Performance	.310***	.110***	-.260***	.070***	.041	Small
Employees in Role Behavior	.340***	.120***	-.32***	.100***	.0227	Small

Table 7.7: Comparing OJ versus ERI Approach with Moderators (Pakistani sample)

Stress Indicators	Overall Organizational Justice						Effort-Reward Imbalance (Ratio)					
	SEN		SET		ES		SEN		SET		ES	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Job Burnout	.19***	.05***	-.14**	.05***	-	-	.10*	.02*	-	-	-	-
Turnover Intention	-	-	-	-	.27***	.06***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Organizational Commitment	-.20**	.04***	.13*	.04***	-.10*	.04***	-.21***	.02*	.17**	.02*	-	-
Employees Performance	-	-	-	-	-.18***	.03***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employees in Role Behavior	-.11**	.06***	-	-	-.24***	.06***	-	-	-	-	-	-

Note. SEN = Self-enhancement, SET = Self transcendence, ES = Equity sensitivity

Table 7.8: Comparing OJ versus ERI Approach with Moderators (French Sample)

Stress Indicators	Overall Organizational Justice						Effort-Reward Imbalance (Ratio)					
	SEN		SET		ES		SEN		SET		ES	
	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2
Job Burnout	.14*	.12***	-	-	.21**	.12***	.14*	.02*	-	-	-	-
Turnover Intention	-	-	-	-	.26**	.08***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Organizational Commitment	-	-	.25**	.11***	-.49***	.11***	-	-	-	-	-	-
Employees Performance	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	.04*	-	-	-	-
Employees in Role Behavior	-	-	-	-	-.32*	.09***	-	.31**	-	-	-	-

Note. SEN = Self-enhancement, SET = Self transcendence, ES = Equity sensitivity

7.7. Discussion et contribution

Comme l'un des principaux objectifs de cette recherche est de faire une comparaison entre deux approches concurrentes à savoir l'OJ et l'ERI, cette étude est axée sur la justice organisationnelle globale au lieu de quatre dimensions. En conséquence, cinq variables de résultats sont exclusivement régressées sur la justice organisationnelle globale dans les deux échantillons.

7.7.1. L'échantillon pakistanais :

Dans l'étude 1, les perceptions de la justice organisationnelle étaient positivement liées à l'engagement organisationnel ($\beta = 0,31, p < 0,001$), au comportement des employés ($\beta = 0,33, p < 0,001$) et à la performance des employés ($\beta = 0,31, P < 0,001$) et négativement influencée par l'épuisement professionnel ($\beta = -0,32, p < 0,001$) et le turnover ($\beta = -0,27, p < 0,001$). Les résultats des données transversales de cette étude ont révélé que le déséquilibre effort-récompense avait une relation positive et significative avec l'épuisement professionnel ($\beta = 0,25, p < 0,001$) et le turnover ($\beta = 0,20, p < 0,001$), et une relation négative avec l'engagement organisationnel ($B = -0,29, p < 0,001$), la performance des employés ($\beta = -0,20, p < 0,001$) et le comportement des employés ($\beta = -0,25, p < 0,001$) dans l'échantillon pakistanais. Ces résultats sont les mêmes que les résultats prévus par nos hypothèses d'étude 1 et 2 pour l'échantillon pakistanais.

Sur la base des résultats de l'étude, dans l'échantillon pakistanais, la justice organisationnelle joue un rôle important et presque identique dans l'examen de JBO, OC, EMPS et EIRB avec très peu de variations. De façon générale, les résultats de notre étude corroborent également d'autres d'études précédentes (Greenberg, 1987; Moorman et al., 1993; Colquitt et al., 2001; Tremblay, & Roussel, 2001; Ylipaavalniemi et al., 2005; Derycke et al., 2010; Robbins, Ford, Tetrick, 2012; van Dijke et al., 2013; Rupp et al., 2014). En comparant les approches d'équité JO et ERI dans l'échantillon pakistanais, dans l'ensemble, l'ERI a montré des résultats mixtes dans l'examen des résultats de stress. Bien que nous ayons constaté que l'ERI au sein de l'échantillon pakistanais prédisait de façon significative les cinq variables de résultats, nous avons cependant établi que les relations avec les variables dépendantes pour l'approche de la justice ont montré des liens forts dans l'examen des résultats de stress que dans l'approche ERI.

Comme dans les recherches existantes, nous soutenons que les pratiques de gestion et la culture influencent l'importance de l'équité (Silva & Caetano, 2016). De même, les différences de culture "ne se limitent pas aux différences de valeurs ; les différences les plus frappantes résident dans les théories de l'être et la réalité. « (Markus & Kitayama, 2003). Peut-être que le pouvoir moins explicatif de l'ERI est dû à l'influence du contexte culturel. Peut-être que les variations dans les résultats est due aux répondants pakistanais. Dans les sociétés collectives, les préférences des individus sont établies par la socialisation concernant leur rôle dans la société. Cependant, un lien important qui conduit à la formation des attitudes ou des comportements des employés ne dépend pas seulement du manque de réciprocité, mais aussi aux relations interpersonnelles avec les autorités. En outre, sur la base des règles d'échange social et des

coutumes de la réciprocité, l'équité des relations entre les échanges d'employés et d'employeurs est favorisée par un échange réciproque de comportements positifs entre les gestionnaires et les subordonnés (Hofmann, Morgeson, & Gerras, 2003). De plus, les chercheurs ont soutenu que le rôle des différences culturelles dans les processus décisionnels et le choix des comportements dépend de leurs orientations culturelles spécifiques, et que les préférences personnelles des individus pour les caractéristiques situationnelles sont liées à leurs relations d'échange avec leurs employeurs. Par conséquent, nous nous attendons à ce que les variabilités contextuelles puissent altérer l'effet de caractéristiques situationnelles spécifiques (Thomas, Au, & Ravlin, 2003), puisque des recherches antérieures ont démontré que l'équité interactionnelle est influencée par la société collectiviste (Silva & Caetano, 2016). Par exemple, Tata, Fu et Wu (2003) ont examiné les préférences sociales dans le contexte de l'évaluation du rendement, mais la préférence sociale a eu un effet plus important sur l'équité globale dans une culture collectiviste. Peut-être que la puissance moins prédictive de l'ERI dans l'examen des résultats de stress est due à l'exclusion de la composante relationnelle. Un pouvoir prédictif plus important de l'approche OJ que l'ERI indique que ce pourrait être ses composantes relationnelles, et le Pakistan étant un pays collectiviste, les individus mettent davantage l'accent sur l'importance des interactions sociales favorables. Ainsi, les perceptions de traitement déloyal de gestion sont supposées réduire la contrôlabilité et la confiance entre les employés. Ces résultats corroborent les conclusions d'Erdogan et Liden (2006), qui suggèrent que les employés collectivistes mettent davantage l'accent sur l'équité interactionnelle que l'équité dans la distribution des récompenses.

7.7.2. Échantillon français : Dans l'étude 2, nous avons également constaté que l'OJ est significativement associé à cinq variables de résultat (indicateurs de stress). Plus précisément, la justice organisationnelle est positivement liée à l'engagement organisationnel ($\beta = 0,32, \rho < 0,001$), au rendement des employés ($\beta = 0,31, \rho < 0,001$) et au comportement des employés ($\beta = 0,34, \rho < 0,001$), alors qu'elle est négativement influencée par l'épuisement professionnel ($\beta = -0,34, \rho < 0,001$) et le turnover ($\beta = -0,32, \rho < 0,001$). Ces résultats sont conformes à nos attentes quant à l'hypothèse 1 de l'étude et corroborent aussi les résultats de l'étude 1.

Plus précisément, les résultats ont montré que l'ERI est positivement liée à JBO ($\beta = .36, \rho < .001$) et au TOI ($\beta = .34, \rho < .001$) alors qu'elle est négativement liée à l'OC ($\beta = -.29, \rho < .001$), à l'EMPS ($\beta = -.26, \rho < .001$) et à l'EIRB ($\beta = -.32, \rho < .001$). L'analyse statistique a produit les mêmes résultats dans les directions attendues de nos hypothèses d'étude 2 dans les deux échantillons.

Dans l'échantillon français, nous avons constaté que la justice organisationnelle joue un rôle plus important pour JBO et EMPS, cependant, des variations partielles sont apparues pour OC, TOI et EIRB. Ces résultats suggèrent que les répondants français s'intéressent également aux perceptions injustes et réagissent en conséquence. D'autre part, un ERI dans notre échantillon français a produit des résultats frappants lorsque nous l'avons comparé avec les résultats de l'échantillon pakistanais (voir le chapitre 5 tableau 7.3). Dans l'échantillon français, ERI a joué un rôle plus important dans l'influence des résultats négatifs tels que JBO et TOI que l'approche OJ.

Ces résultats suggèrent que les employés qui perçoivent un manque de réciprocité entre leurs efforts et leurs récompenses sont plus susceptibles d'avoir comporté des comportements négatifs tels que les mauvaises conditions de santé (Wada, Sakata, Theriault, Aratake, Shimizu, Tsutsumi, & Aizawa, 2008). Les perceptions injustes des employés induisent les sentiments d'incertitude au travail, où l'attribution des récompenses peut être basée sur le favoritisme qui peut changer d'un jour à l'autre, donc, dans un environnement imprévisible les individus restent moins confiants parce que les efforts ne se traduiront pas en récompenses (Cropanzano et 1997, Vermunt & Steensma, 2005, Dbaiibo, Harb, & van Meurs, 2010). Basé sur la théorie de l'échange social, les pratiques injustes des autorités sont considérées comme inéquitables, ce qui entraîne des sentiments de violation du «contrat social» donc, il a eu des implications importantes pour les relations employeur-employé. À l'inverse, l'équité améliore la confiance des employés, ce qui, à son tour, aide à montrer un comportement positif (Farh, Earley et Lin, 1997). En outre, les chercheurs s'accordent sur le fait que les perceptions d'équité peuvent diminuer les ambiguïtés dans les politiques, la procédure et le manque de contrôle, qui sont au cœur de la détresse (Judge & Colquitt, 2004).

D'autre part, nos conclusions appuient clairement l'hypothèse (hypothèse 2) selon laquelle, lorsque les employés perçoivent l'injustice sur le lieu de travail, ils réduisent leur engagement et leur performance, et cela augmente les chances de quitter l'organisation. Ces résultats appuient l'idée que l'iniquité ou le déséquilibre nuisent aux résultats souhaités sur le lieu de travail (van Vegchel, 2001; Derycke1, 2010; Siegrist et al., 2012; Weigl, 2015; Herr et al., 2015; Eib, Bernhard-Oettel, Näswall, & Sverke, 2015).

Les chercheurs ont soutenu que la culture peut affecter l'importance des événements d'équité. La raison derrière la primauté de l'approche ERI pour examiner les résultats négatifs est due aux préférences culturelles des employés français. Par exemple, prenant la perspective de la distance

du pouvoir, les employés à distance élevée du pouvoir de la société se comportent de manière soumise à leurs patrons et généralement évitent les conflits avec eux, comparés aux employés à faible distance du pouvoir. Cependant, la distance du pouvoir est étroitement liée aux préférences de la distribution des récompenses.

Il est probable que les répondants français se soient montrés plus soucieux de la réciprocité entre leurs efforts et leurs récompenses (Tremblay et Roussel, 2001), en se basant sur une faible tolérance pour les individus déloyaux pour une faible distance du pouvoir, ils se comportent plus négativement (Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001a) que dans une culture de forte distance au pouvoir (Silva & Caetano, 2016). En cas d'iniquité sur le lieu de travail, les employés français se comportent plus négativement que les répondants pakistanais en raison d'une distance du pouvoir relativement faible. Ces résultats sont conformes aux études antérieures (Siegrist, 2012; Heather & Spense, 2012). Nous avons constaté que l'approche ERI a montré des résultats plus significatifs dans l'échantillon français que dans l'échantillon pakistanais, ce qui indique que l'équité distributive était plus importante dans une société individualiste telle que la France (Erdogan & Liden, 2006). En revanche, dans un pays collectiviste comme le Pakistan, les individus mettent davantage l'accent sur l'équité interactionnelle (Erdogan et Liden, 2006). Par conséquent, l'inclusion de composantes relationnelles dans l'ERI peut augmenter la force prédictive dans une société collectiviste.

7.7.3. Le rôle modérateur des valeurs humaines personnelles. En réalité, les individus sont différents en termes d'attributs personnels, de capacité d'évaluer ou de tolérer les événements injustes (Truxillo, Steiner et Gilliland, 2004). Par conséquent, dans cette recherche, nous avons inclus les valeurs humaines de Schwartz (ressource personnelle) dans une perspective globale de préférences personnelles en tant que variable modératrice qui peut fournir une orientation pour façonner les comportements et les attitudes des individus. Rokeach (1973) a ajouté que les individus pouvaient varier en fonction de leurs priorités sur certaines valeurs personnelles. Cependant, les valeurs du phénomène de stress comme une ressource personnelle aident l'individu à faire face aux facteurs de stress environnementaux (l'injustice) dans la formation de leurs résultats de travail. Selon les arguments de Morelli et Cunningham (2012), on s'attend également à ce que les stratégies d'adaptation de l'individu soient affectées par la relation entre les valeurs de cette personne et les évaluations d'importance de la ressource. Cependant, les réactions individuelles à la menace ou à la perte réelle peuvent varier en fonction de la préférence personnelle qui est liée à la ressource spécifique qui est menacée (Hobfoll, 1989).

Échantillon pakistanais : Les résultats du tableau 5.31 du chapitre 5 montrent que dans l'étude 1, 12 des 30 hypothèses attendues concernant le rôle modérateur des différences des individus étaient significatives. Parmi les 30 hypothèses, huit étaient liées à des valeurs humaines personnelles alors que quatre étaient liées à la sensibilité à l'équité. Dans l'ensemble, nous avons trouvé des effets moins modérateurs des différences individuelles entre ERI et variables de résultat que le JO. Plus précisément, comme nous l'avons supposé, dans l'échantillon pakistanais, nous avons constaté que l'auto-amélioration a influencé de façon significative la relation entre l'ensemble du JOC et du JBO ($\beta = 0,19, p < 0,001$), OC ($\beta = -20, p < 0,01$) Ainsi que l'EIRB ($\beta = -11, p < 0,01$). Ces résultats impliquent que les individus qui signalent un niveau plus élevé de l'auto-amélioration peuvent avoir plus d'épuisement et de diminution de l'engagement et de la performance. Étonnamment, l'amélioration de soi n'a pas affecté de façon significative les relations entre le JO et la performance de l'auto-évaluation ainsi que les intentions de turnover. Le rôle modérateur important de l'auto-amélioration entre l'ensemble du JD et les résultats du stress confirment les hypothèses 3a et 3b de notre étude.

Les résultats de notre étude corroborent l'idée que les perceptions de traitement injuste par les autorités des organisations ont un fort impact sur les résultats de stress des employés, Cependant, la valeur incongruente contribue au stress des employés. Par exemple, les individus évaluent les événements d'injustice en particulier lorsque leurs valeurs préférées sont violées (Lipponen, Olkkonen, & Myyry, 2004). D'autre part, les valeurs sont considérées comme ayant un impact direct sur le bien-être des individus, car les individus sont plus susceptibles d'afficher leur état de bien-être dans cet environnement où ils estiment que leurs valeurs sont satisfaites lorsqu'elles ne le sont pas (Sagie & Elizur, 1996, Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Par conséquent, nous soutenons que l'influence du JO sur les résultats de stress (JBO, OC et EIRB) est soumise aux préférences de valeurs.

Nous contribuons à l'idée que la préférence pour les individus, comme l'auto-amélioration, est plus préoccupée par le pouvoir et reste axée sur leurs réalisations personnelles (Fischer & Smith, 2004). En conséquence, les valeurs de réussite les forcent à rechercher le succès. La distribution des récompenses élevées aux employés les plus productifs est un succès à l'organisation. Cependant, les individus qui préfèrent de telles valeurs sont également susceptibles de favoriser les principes de répartition axée sur la performance.

L'auto-amélioration a joué un rôle moins modérateur entre l'ERI et le résultat du stress car nous avons trouvé deux interactions significatives pour JBO ($\beta = -21, p < 0,001$) et OC ($\beta = .10, p$

<.05), ces résultats sont semblables aux hypothèses 4a et 4b. Bien que nous ayons trouvé moins de modulation de l'auto-amélioration entre ERI et les résultats, nos résultats ont montré que la force de la relation entre ERI et OC ainsi que JBO est soumise aux orientations de valeur de l'auto-amélioration. La relation négative entre ERI et OC est plus forte pour les individus qui ont un haut niveau d'auto-amélioration. Alors que la relation positive entre ERI et JBO était plus forte pour les personnes qui étaient plus sensibles à l'auto-amélioration. En effet, la violation des règles de réciprocité influence l'estime de soi des individus parmi ceux qui sont plus orientés vers eux-mêmes et ces individus sont conceptuellement proches des préférences d'auto-amélioration.

Dans l'échantillon pakistanais, nous avons constaté que l'auto-amélioration a montré une plus grande préoccupation à influencer l'impact du JO sur les résultats de stress qu'ERI.

Dans l'échantillon pakistanais, l'auto-transcendance a régulé l'influence de OJ et de JBO ($\beta = -14$, $\rho < .01$) ainsi que OC ($\beta = .13$, $\rho < .05$), bien que l'auto-transcendance ait montré un rôle moins modérateur entre OJ et le résultat du stress, ces résultats sont conformes à l'hypothèse 3c et 3d de notre étude. En revanche, l'auto-transcendance n'a fait que modérer la relation entre ERI et OC ($\beta = .17$, $\rho < .01$), ces résultats sont similaires à notre hypothèse 4d.

Les individus qui approuvent les valeurs de l'auto-transcendance manifestent davantage d'intérêt pour le bien-être des autres (Gaerling, 1999). Les individus ayant une transcendance personnelle semblent être plus tolérants, mais ils reçoivent des récompenses relatives à la performance et qui ne sont pas étroitement associés à la perspective relationnelle. Nous avons également constaté que l'auto-transcendance globale a également montré une moindre influence sur les effets de JO et les résultats de stress, encore une fois, nous avons trouvé une seule relation modérée par l'auto-transcendance entre ERI et les résultats de stress.

Échantillon français : Les résultats de notre étude pour l'échantillon français ont révélé que 8 des 30 interactions étaient significatives en ce qui concerne les différences individuelles. Là où nous avons trouvé que l'amélioration de soi modérait seulement la relation entre OJ et JBO ($\beta = 0,14$, $\rho < 0,05$) dans l'échantillon français. Ces résultats sont conformes à l'hypothèse 3a mais pas à l'hypothèse 3b.

Les résultats de notre étude ont également montré que l'auto-amélioration a modéré la relation entre l'IRM et la JBO ($\beta = 0,14$, $p < 0,05$) ainsi que EMPS ($\beta = -31$, $p < 0,01$). Ces résultats sont conformes aux hypothèses 4a et 4b de notre étude sur l'échantillon français. Ces résultats

indiquent que l'auto-amélioration a montré un effet de modération plus important entre l'ERI que l'OJ. Pour l'échantillon français, l'auto-transcendance n'a montré qu'un rôle modérateur significatif entre OJ et OC ($\beta = 0,25$, $p < 0,01$). Ces résultats sont également soutenus par notre hypothèse 3d.

Dans l'ensemble, nous avons trouvé un rôle moins modérateur de l'auto-transcendance entre OJ et les résultats, mais nous n'avons pas trouvé de rôle significatif de l'auto-transcendance entre l'IRA et les résultats. Comme nous avons constaté le rôle relativement moins modérateur de l'auto-transcendance, le répondant du Pakistan a montré une plus grande préoccupation pour le bien-être de l'autre par rapport à l'échantillon français. Cependant, cela ne signifie pas que les autres répondants ne sont pas concernés par la transcendance parce que l'auto-transcendance est juste une partie fondamentale de l'être humain. Cependant, se baser sur des conditions culturelles, socio-économiques peut induire une préférence diminuée de l'auto-transcendance. Dans un premier temps, nous avons soutenu que les valeurs d'un individu étaient un indicateur des règles culturelles qui pouvaient être par la suite une évaluation de l'importance des ressources (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001; Schwartz et Bilsky, 1990). Ainsi, les individus avec un niveau plus élevé d'auto-amélioration mettent davantage l'accent sur l'intérêt personnel même au détriment des autres. Ils montrent moins d'intérêt aux autres et accordent une plus grande priorité à l'amélioration des ressources personnelles. Dans le cas de la menace de ressources ou de la perte réelle de ressources (injustice au travail), les individus doivent investir davantage de ressources pour récupérer la perte de ressources qui a été causée par l'injustice (stress) au travail. Par conséquent, le processus de récupération des ressources perdues et l'investissement de nouvelles ressources peut conduire à une plus grande perte de ressources. Par conséquent, les personnes qui accordent la priorité à l'amélioration des ressources personnelles sont plus susceptibles d'être touchées par les événements injustes en termes de JBO, TOI et à la diminution de leur l'engagement et leur rendement. D'autre part, les individus qui ont un niveau supérieur en ressources personnelles (auto-transcendance) mettent davantage l'accent sur le service des autres, ils ont l'intention de travailler pour l'amélioration de la société, par conséquent, ils sont moins préoccupés par leurs ressources personnelles (Schwartz, 1994). En résumé, ils ont moins d'anxiété à investir des ressources pour récupérer la ressource perdue lors d'un élément d'injustice. Ainsi, on s'attend à ce que les individus soient moins susceptibles d'être influencés par les effets négatifs de l'événement injuste et demeurent productifs sur le lieu de travail. En outre, lorsque les individus se perçoivent comme victimes d'injustice, ils ont tendance à décider de la façon de répondre. Alors que les cadres de stress nous permettent d'appliquer la

théorie de l'évaluation cognitive du stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) pour comprendre la relation facteurs de stress-tension dans les milieux de travail. La théorie de l'appréciation cognitive du stress met l'accent sur les circonstances et les évaluations des individus pour déterminer si la situation (l'injustice) est stressante (évaluation primaire) et si des ressources suffisantes (évaluation secondaire, auto-transcendance) sont disponibles pour faire face à la situation stressante. Les gens évaluent la situation pour déterminer le degré de préjudice potentiel, de menace ou de contestation de soi (par exemple, Lazarus, 1999), qui, à son tour, guide (les valeurs humaines de l'auto-transcendance) leur réponse. En cas d'injustice, l'évaluation entraînerait une forme extrême, telle que l'épuisement professionnel, les intentions de départ et un faible engagement. Cependant, l'évaluation de l'injustice en milieu de travail semble dépendre en particulier des caractéristiques d'une personne et / ou d'un environnement (par exemple Compas et Orosan, 1993; Cortina et Magley, 2009), car les principes d'évaluation de la tolérance de l'individu à l'injustice ou à d'autres situations stressantes peuvent varier selon les contextes. Dans cette étude, nous avons exploré la relation facteurs de stress-tension en présence de valeurs humaines personnelles et, comme nous l'avons vu plus haut, les individus qui sont à un niveau supérieur d'auto-transcendance évalueront la situation (injustice) moins nuisible / menaçante. Ainsi, ils accorderont moins d'attention à l'injustice et ne présenteront pas de comportement négatif tel que l'intention de quitter leur travail.

7.7.4. Effets modérateurs de la sensibilité à l'équité

Les chercheurs ont suggéré que les individus diffèrent en comparant leurs rapports entre le résultat et la contribution, ils peuvent varier dans leur sensibilité aux violations des perceptions. Nous avons juxtaposé le rôle modérateur d'une construction de différence individuelle plus étroite avec des exigences plus générales (exigences universelles de l'existence humaine) avec les intentions de « bandwidth-fidelity discussion ». L'inclusion de la sensibilité à l'équité nous a permis d'examiner l'effet modérateur relatif des prédicteurs les plus généraux et étroits entre l'équité et le résultat.

L'Échantillon pakistanais : Les résultats de notre étude 1, précisent que la sensibilité à l'équité a significativement modéré l'influence de l'OJ sur les résultats de stress variables telles que OC ($\beta = -10, p < .05$), EMPS ($\beta = -18, p < .001$), EIRB ($B = -24, p < .001$) ainsi que TOI ($\beta = 0,27, p < .001$), ces résultats confirment les hypothèses 5a et 5b de notre étude. Ces résultats montrent que les répondants pakistanais sont sensibles à leurs rapports entre les contributions et les résultats. Cependant, ces résultats reflètent les propositions de Huseman et coll. (1987) qui ont

suggéré d'utiliser la sensibilité à l'équité (variable de différence individuelle) comme modérateur entre les perceptions d'équité au travail et les individus et les résultats organisationnels.

En effet, les individus sont différents quant à leur degré de sensibilité à l'équité (donner à l'organisation et obtenir de l'organisation). Cependant, la différence dans la sensibilité à l'équité conduirait à des réductions de contributions où les individus ne sont pas récompensés équitablement. Les individus qui donnent semblent être motivés à s'investir pour des organisations et seraient moins touchés par l'événement d'injustice. Peut-être ces individus considèrent-ils les tâches comme un défi plutôt que comme une charge de travail (Huseman et al., 1987) et veulent une association à long terme entre l'organisation et une plus grande sensibilisation à l'équité. Ainsi, ils pourraient sembler moins affectés par les événements injustes.

Par conséquent, les individus peuvent être moins enclins à JBO, et présentent une plus faible intention de départ, s'efforçant d'être performant et restent attachés à leurs organisations. D'autre part, les individus qui sont « preneurs » sont motivés à prendre plus de l'organisation et mettent davantage l'accent sur les résultats que sur contributions. Et dans ce cas si ces individus obtiennent moins de récompenses, ils réagissent finalement plus négativement en réponse aux événements injustes que les « donneurs ». En conséquence, les individus qui réalisent les résultats ciblés peuvent facilement être exposés en termes de sensibilité aux résultats et aux sur-récompenses. D'autre part, de façon surprenante, nous n'avons pas observé d'effets de modulation significatifs de la sensibilité à l'équité entre l'ERI et les résultats de stress. Même si nous ne nous attendions pas à ces résultats, peut-être y aurait-il d'autres facteurs tels que les facteurs liés au groupe (comme la sensibilité à l'équité est un facteur lié à l'individu). Ainsi, ces résultats ne soutiennent pas les hypothèses 6a et 6b de notre étude.

L'Échantillon français : Dans l'étude 2, les résultats ont montré que la sensibilité à l'équité a influencé la relation entre le JOC et quatre résultats de stress tels que JBO ($\beta = 0,21$, $p < 0,01$), OC ($\beta = -0,49$, $p < 0,001$), EIRB ($\beta = -0,32$, $p < 0,05$) ainsi que TOI ($\beta = 0,26$, $p < 0,01$). Ces résultats sont conformes au modèle attendu de nos hypothèses 5a et 5b. Cependant, nous n'avons pas trouvé d'effets significatifs d'interaction entre l'ERI et les résultats de stress. Par conséquent, ces résultats ne confirment pas l'hypothèse 6a et 6b de notre étude. Pourtant, ces résultats sont en accord avec les études antérieures de l'étude de Scott et Colquitt (2007) qui n'ont trouvé aucun soutien des effets d'interaction de la sensibilité à l'équité entre l'iniquité et les résultats.

Nous avons trouvé des résultats intéressants lorsque nous avons comparé deux échantillons, et nous avons trouvé que la sensibilité à l'équité n'a pas modéré la relation entre ERI dans les deux études. Il semble que la construction ERI contienne un mécanisme plus fort qui nécessite certains composants supplémentaires pour influencer sa plus forte relation avec les résultats de stress. Afin de mieux comprendre les effets modérateurs de la sensibilité à l'équité entre l'iniquité et les résultats, la lumière de la théorie du COR (Hobfoll, 1989). Basé sur la littérature antérieure qui a considéré la sensibilité à l'équité comme un trait de personnalité, et par conséquent, les individus peuvent varier selon leurs préférences en matière d'équité. Les personnes qui préfèrent contribuer à l'organisation semblent moins susceptibles de percevoir la situation comme stressante (injuste). En effet, la préférence personnelle des individus à contribuer à des organisations peut servir de ressource personnelle, qui peut aider les individus à faire face aux facteurs de stress environnementaux (iniquité) dans la formation de leurs résultats de travail.

Nous avançons que les individus qui préfèrent contribuer, se focalisent moins sur les récompenses organisationnelles (extrinsèques) et sont plus tolérants envers l'injustice (Kickul et Lester, 2001; Shore, 2004) et ont moins d'effets négatifs sur l'organisation (l'optimisme) ces traits personnels peuvent fonctionner comme des réserves qui soutiennent l'individu en cas de perte de ressources. En outre, cela peut aider les employés à mieux gérer les événements déloyaux, où ils ne se soucient pas de savoir s'ils obtiennent des récompenses élevées ou non comparés à leurs efforts. Compte tenu de la discussion précédente, nous pourrions suggérer que les individus qui mettent l'accent sur leur travail et sur une « idéologie axée sur les contributions » (une plus grande tolérance pour la récompense) sont moins affectés par les effets négatifs de l'injustice au travail. Les résultats de notre étude ont également contribué à la littérature sur la sensibilité à l'équité et ont appuyé les résultats de recherches antérieures (Shore, Thomas et Strauss, 2006 ; Restubog, Bordiaw et Tangz, 2007).

7.7.5. Implications managériales

Malgré que nos recherches aient contribué à la littérature relative à l'injustice comme facteur de stress et sa relation avec les conséquences du stress, elles ont quelques limites, et plusieurs implications pour les gestionnaires et des orientations futures de la recherche. Cette recherche propose une comparaison de deux modèles de stress au travail en utilisant des échantillons de l'enquête transversale provenant de deux pays différents, et étudie les conséquences du stress en présence de deux constructions de différences individuelles. Nous avons étudié que les

perceptions d'équité au travail peuvent améliorer les individus ainsi que le bien-être organisationnel. Lorsque les individus perçoivent que l'organisation, l'autorité les traitent équitablement, en retour, les membres de l'organisation feraient des efforts pour maintenir un haut niveau de performance au bénéfice de l'organisation. D'autre part, la perception qu'ont les employés des traitements injustes infligés par leurs gestionnaires induit des sentiments négatifs parmi les membres de l'organisation qui finissent par affecter le bien-être des organisations. Par conséquent, l'autorité dans l'organisation devrait se rendre compte que les perceptions injustes de l'individu pourraient avoir des effets préjudiciables sur les résultats des employés et la productivité organisationnelle.

Les gestionnaires devraient considérer que les efforts élevés et les faibles récompenses pour une personne pourraient améliorer encore ces transactions négatives entre les subordonnés et les gestionnaires. Notre recherche suggère que l'amélioration de l'infrastructure en mettant l'accent sur l'équilibre entre les récompenses et les efforts pourrait être efficace pour réduire les perceptions d'injustice. Comme nous l'avons mentionné précédemment, les composantes relationnelles ont un impact important dans l'évaluation de l'équité ou de l'injustice de l'événement, les gestionnaires doivent être conscients de son importance, en particulier lors de l'évaluation du rendement. Grâce à une forte communication interne, la perception des employés de l'injustice peut être réduite en informant sur la raison pour laquelle certaines procédures ont été suivies et pourquoi les récompenses sont réparties différemment parmi l'autre groupe d'employés. Notre recherche suggère que la congruence de valeur avec l'organisation prédit un niveau plus élevé de satisfaction, d'engagement, de performance et de fidélité (Cable, & Jung 1996). Il est peu probable que les valeurs soient quelque chose qui puisse être « gérées ». Selon Argandoña (2003), tout dirigeant qui ne prend pas en compte les valeurs ne pourra pas réussir. En outre, selon les conclusions de Puohiniemi (2006) concernant la relation entre les valeurs et les opinions d'un employeur idéal, on pourrait conclure que les employés de l'organisation étudiés préféreraient généralement que leur entreprise adopte des « principes de fonctionnement humain » et « inspirant » plutôt qu'à offrir des avantages économiques considérables. Les gestionnaires qui travaillent dans des organisations internationales doivent comprendre quelles valeurs de leurs employés peuvent être prédictives de la satisfaction des employés, l'engagement, et peut-être le maintien de leurs performances. Les décideurs et les gestionnaires devraient essayer de préparer des procédures et de s'assurer que toutes les politiques soient justes et fondées sur les croyances des individus en utilisant des critères universels libres et non biaisés qui peuvent être jugés équitables pour tous les employés. Avec l'introduction de la technologie

de pointe, il y a des changements considérables dans l'environnement de travail mondial et une nécessité de la diversité de la main-d'œuvre. Les organisations devraient embaucher des gestionnaires qui pourraient détenir des valeurs identiques aux valeurs de l'organisation. Les gestionnaires des entreprises multinationales doivent être flexibles lorsqu'ils généralisent les valeurs des personnes sur la base d'études sur les valeurs culturelles, car le contexte peut créer des différences (Osland et al., 2000). Puisque les organisations s'attendent à ce que leurs employés montrent des comportements éthiques au travail de la même façon, le devoir moral des autorités des organisations est de montrer un comportement éthique et de traiter leurs membres de manière équitable. Considérer cela juste ou injuste est une question éthique, et les organisations devraient mener une formation éthique et des séminaires, de sorte que les gestionnaires puissent traiter leurs subordonnés équitablement et que les perceptions injustes diminuent et leur bien-être s'améliore. Enfin, les gestionnaires doivent se renseigner sur le niveau de sensibilité des employés en tenant compte des différences et des besoins des personnes; et en promouvant l'équité pour améliorer le bien-être.

7.7.6. Limitations de l'étude et orientations futures de recherche

Bien que cette recherche complète la recherche sur l'injustice et le stress ainsi que la pratique, nous reconnaissons certaines limites importantes. En premier lieu, cette recherche utilise un plan d'enquête transversal, il est donc difficile de déduire la causalité des facteurs de stress au travail, JBO, TOI, OC, EMPS et EIRB, les valeurs humaines personnelles et la sensibilité à l'équité ont été mesurées. Le biais monométhodique (Podsakoff, & Organ, 1986) peut alors exister comme une possibilité. De futures recherches pourraient être menées pour contrôler les biais d'étude en utilisant une conception de recherche longitudinale pour reproduire ces résultats. Les recherches antérieures ont inclus l'ERI comme une variable indépendante ou médiatrice entre deux dimensions de la justice organisationnelle (justice procédurale ou interactionnelle) et la détresse psychologique, et ont trouvé un rôle médiateur important (Inoue et al., 2010).

La recherche a considéré l'ERI comme un construit indépendant pour examiner les résultats du travail (indicateurs de stress), cependant, dans la recherche future le rôle médiateur de l'ERA peut être examiné entre les quatre dimensions de la justice ainsi que les perceptions générales de justice et les résultats de stress. Puisque les résultats de notre étude démontrent que l'approche OJ a montré une plus grande force prédictive dans l'examen des résultats de stress que ERI dans l'échantillon pakistanais. D'autre part, dans l'échantillon français, l'ERI a fourni des résultats plus forts dans la prévision des résultats négatifs que le JO. Ces résultats sont tout à fait

conformes à la déclaration prudente de Siegrist et ses collègues (2007) selon laquelle les deux approches devraient être interprétées avec beaucoup de prudence, car l'opérationnalisation des deux n'a peut-être pas eu autant de succès. Ce paradoxe apparent peut être concilié en considérant des relations particulières à l'avenir. Par exemple, comme nous n'avons pas inclus le concept de l'engagement excessif qui est également une composante importante du modèle de l'ERI, des recherches futures pourraient être utiles pour reproduire nos résultats en incluant cet élément important de l'ERI.