Counterproductive Work Behaviors in Public Sector: Role of Perceived Organizational Justice and Emotion Regulation

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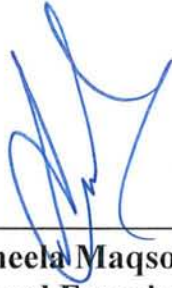
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Abstract

The current research aimed to see the relationship of organizational justice and emotional regulation strategies with counterproductive work behaviours in public sector organizations. Data was collected from 301 employees of public sector organizations (men = 198, women = 103) with age ranging from 18 to 60. Checklist for Counterproductive Work Behaviours (Rasool, 2019), Urdu version of Organizational Justice Scale (Rasool, 2019), and Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (Butt, Malik, & Kaleem 2012) were used. Findings showed satisfactory alpha coefficients for all measures. All types of organizational justice (interactional, distributive, & procedural justice) and emotion regulation strategies (cognitive reappraisal & emotional suppression) were negatively related with counterproductive work behaviours. Compared to women, men perceived less distributive justice and more procedural justice. Age was significantly positively related with counterproductive work behaviours, organizational justice and emotional regulation strategies. Education appeared to positively relate with emotional regulation strategies and distributive justice. Monthly family income was negatively related with counterproductive work behaviours. Job tenure and scale were positively related with organizational justice but were not related with counterproductive work behaviours. The results also show that the group involved in part-time jobs is perceiving less justice and using less emotional strategies as compared to their counterparts.

Introduction

One of the most challenging issues effecting modern organizations revolves around the harmful work ethics of employees and the subsequent adverse impact on the success of the organization. These detrimental working habits are common in numerous organizations (Raman, Sambasivan, & Kumar, 2016) and literary works suggest that these are volitional acts and may include social loafing, theft, bullying, incivility, withdrawal , interpersonal aggression(Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2005).

The reasons behind why employees engage in counterproductive behaviors in the workplace are numerous. Mostly, they are unsatisfied with their jobs, hold grudges against their employers or colleagues, feel betrayed or just want to make sure that they can get away with lazy. Counterproductive work behaviors are actually carried out by organizational members with the intention of damaging the organizational output or the members of the organization (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001) Researchers utilize the term Counterproductive work behaviors to categorize a huge range of negative behaviors including theft, bullying, incivility, withdrawal, interpersonal aggression etc-and observe their mutual antecedents and drawbacks (Fox, Spector & Miles, 2001; Spector & Fox, 2005). Organizations are aware of the huge financial losses lead by these behaviors (Dalal, 2005). Counterproductive work behavior are present in workplaces and showcase one of the most serious issues facing today's organizations in many countries (Chappell et al., 2006). These types of malicious behaviors not only affect the performance of the employees involved in Counterproductive work behaviours but also cause a significant impact on the work of other employees in the organization. Thus creating an anti-productive environment that has multiple risks and harmful consequences.(Martinko et al., 2002; Robinson et al., 1995) Additionally, Counterproductive work behaviour can also directly or indirectly effect the overall financial performance of organizations (Nasir & Bashir, 2012). The losses in the financial performance of a company then further s impacts the economic conditions of the community (Impelman et al., 2019). Results from these studies have pointed out many predictors of Counterproductive work behaviours. Moreover, researchers have suggested reducing such behaviors (Ambrose et al., 2013;

Biron, 2010; Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Chao, Cheung, & Wu, 2011). Nonetheless, Counterproductive work behaviours are still common in many organizations costing them millions of dollars annually (Coffin et al., 2005). For example, It has been reported that over 75 % of employees have stolen from their employees at least once (Coffin et al., 2005), and Case et al., (2012) has commented that 95 % of all organizations experience employee theft. However, theft is not the only aspect of Counterproductive work behaviors. Counterproductive work behaviors showcase an outcry for concern from an employee wellness perspective since they are associated with high levels of stress and strain (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001).

An analysis drawn by Berry et al., (2012) pointed out that the perceptions of organizational justice and employee emotion were two vital predictors of Counterproductive work behavior. Mostly, research has shed light on identifying the facets of the job that relate to the Counterproductive work behaviour. These involve environmental or situational factors of Counterproductive work behaviour such as low distributive, procedural or interactional justice (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Greenburg, 1990, 1993; Henle et al., 2005; Moorman, et al., 2000; Skarlicki & Folger, 2005); the presence of frustrators (Fox & Spector, 2001); and stressors in the workplace (Chen & Spector, 1992; Fox et al., 2001). Whenever employees observe that they have experienced low organizational justice, there is the presence of frustrators or there is an increase in job stressors, this could increase an individual's tendency to engage in Counterproductive work behaviours. These low organizational justice events cause employees to feel the pressure to regulate their emotions (Kuppens, Van Mechelen, & Meulders, 2004). Therefore, we are compelled to study the emotional regulation literature, specially the cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression of Gross's (1998) model of emotional regulation to aid employees in regulating their justices perceptions.

Hence, the main reason behind the current study is to explore the understanding of Counterproductive work behaviours behavior by looking at how perceived organizational justice and emotion interact to predict the likelihood of Counterproductive work behaviour. Researchers have carried out many studies to investigate the role of antecedents in predicting and reducing Counterproductive work behaviours.

Counterproductive work behavior

Counterproductive work behaviour is most often described as "voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). This damage can be for the organization, in form of theft, sabotage, absenteeism etc and for individuals in form of drugs, alcoholism etc. Counterproductive work behaviour goes against the goals and objectives of organizations (Spector et al., 2006), which may harm the employees, organization and its stakeholders and may cause disorderliness of the organization to be at risk (Martinko et al., 2002). Counterproductive work behaviour showcases many acts which involve nasty rumors among co-workers, absenteeism, stealing, sabotage of co-workers, theft, refusal to cooperate , withholding of efforts of the coworkers, physical assault, withdrawal, and lying against co-workers (Anjum & Parvez, 2013). Counterproductive work behaviour disobeys the organizational rules and harassment makes the survival of organization difficult (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Robinson and Kelly (1998) maintain that individual's Counterproductive work behaviours are set with the help of their colleagues there is an important relationship between their anti-social portrayed by newly inducted individuals and that of the co-workers. Counterproductive work behaviour is hazardous to the organization in all its forms. In order to control such attitude, actions carried out before events need to be revealed, anticipated and shared. Spector et al., (2006) enumerate Counterproductive work behaviour into five different dimensions including sabotage, production deviation, withdrawal, abuse and theft.

Types and Dimensions of Counterproductive work behavior

Counterproductive work behaviour is intended to harm the organization or its members. Consequently, it can be categorized around the target of the behavior: The organization (CWB-O) and other individuals (CWB-I). Aggression and hostility are directed at people (CWB-I). Other acts such as performing incorrect tasks or sabotage are also directed towards organizations (CWB-O).

Spector et al. (2006) sort CWBs into five distinct dimensions like abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal. Abuse means behaviors directed

towards other individuals that damage them either physically or mentally. This includes making threats and nasty comments, ignoring a person or undermining a person's ability to work effectively. Production deviance is the purposeful failure to do job tasks effectively. This definition is similar to Robinson and Bennett (2000), with the exception of withdrawal that included in another category. The examples of production are purposely failing to perform tasks correctly or working slowly when in contrast they need to be done quickly. Withdrawal involves behaviors that pose as an obstacle in the adequate amount of working time required by organizations and includes behaviors such as being absent, coming late or early and taking long breaks. Sabotage is defined as damaging physical property belonging to the employer. Employee means employees taking other's possessions or the organization's property. (Spector et al., 2006). Usage of drugs by employees or organizations is categorized under "Drugs" to Spector et al., (2006) model.. This involves consuming drugs or bringing them to the organization's premises is not allowed. With these definitions in mind for the various dimensions of CWB, the main focus is itself on the results of the behavior.

Predictors of CWB

Many divergent factors lead to Counterproductive work behaviours. These range from personal factors to the systems that are present in the environment. In this section, personal factors and human resource factors that impact the likelihood of an employee having Counterproductive work behaviours will be studied.

On the personal level, it has been discovered that employees who engage in one act of Counterproductive work behaviours is more likely to partake in other CWBs (Wasserman et al., 1998). Noticeably, males are more likely to engage in Counterproductive work behaviours such as theft, violence and alcohol abuse (Moretti, 1986) Furthermore, younger employees are twice more likely to engage in theft than older employees. Some personality traits are also found to affect an employee's involvement in Counterproductive work behaviours. The most vital personality traits contributing to Counterproductive work behaviours that have been studied are emotional stability, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010). Emotional stability is a consistency in mood, agreeableness is referring to a person's desire to get on with other, conscientiousness is related to

impulse control and behaviors like thinking before acting, extraversion is being interested in and stimulated by other people, confidence to follow the unknown and openness to experience refers to the degree to which an individual is open to new experiences (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010). What is still debatable is which of these personality traits predict which Counterproductive work behaviours. However, it has been discovered that all five of the above mentioned traits predict counterproductive work behaviors (Chang, & Smithikrai, 2010). Among these, the strongest predictor of Counterproductive work behaviours is conscientiousness (Chang & Smithikrai, 2010). Conscientious employees are most productive and engage in fewer Counterproductive work behaviours in comparison to less conscientious employees. The reasons behind this are that they have more control over behavior relating to work. Other personality traits have an increasing relationship to Counterproductive work behaviours, agreeableness and emotional stability (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007). Employees who have a high level of emotional stability, conscientiousness or agreeableness are less likely to participate in Counterproductive work behaviours during work than those who show low levels of these traits.

One more antecedent of CWB is organizational justice. This is defined as the extent to which individuals perceive that they are treated fairly (Greenburg, 1987). It has been examined by Fox et al., (2001) in response to organizational justice. They have argued that people would monitor and appraise events in the environment, and seemingly threatening events are referred as job stressors. In this regard, organizational justice – individuals feel that they are not treated with respect and dignity – befits the definition of a job stressor. In their opinion, stress from organizational injustice may then lead behaviorial strain which is manifested in the form of Counterproductive work behaviour. Consistent with their argument, these findings portray that the organizational justice that was related to Counterproductive work behaviours and it was more strongly related with organizational than personal types of Counterproductive work behaviours.

Research has also been carried out to study the demographic variables as antecedents of Counterproductive work behaviours. But, they are not related to Counterproductive work behaviours at all. For example, Berry et al., (2012) carried out a meta-analysis on the relationship between demographic variables (i.e. Gender, age, tenure and work experience) and Counterproductive work behaviours which were separated into

individual deviant behaviors and organizational deviant behaviors. Results have shown that except for work experience, there was little to no relationship between these demographic variables and these two form of deviant behaviors. Work experience was negatively associated to both individual deviance behaviors and organizational deviance behaviors such that the more work experience employees had, the less likely they were involved in both individual and organizational deviant behaviors.

Theoretical Perspective

Every theoretical perspective that attempts to make Counterproductive work behaviours more understandable make use of a factor concerned with information processing (Martinko et al., 2002). Two mutual elements of these perspectives are that they explain: (1) how individuals evaluate the quality of their results (e.g. perceived fairness, justice and success or failure); and (2) how beliefs about the reasons behind their consequences (e.g. attributes) effect behavior and affect. The process of checking the quality of results has been described extensively in numerous ways and usually includes a comparative process that causes perceptions of disequilibria, injustice, or inequality of some type. Some examples of components related to the evaluation of outcomes include: Greenberg's (1990, 1993) focus on perceptions of injustice as stimuli for employee theft; Aquino's et al., (2013) notion of regarded as victimization (2000); Harris (2004) description of image compatibility relating to alcohol and drug abuse; Martocchio and Judge's (1994) policy capturing approach to discuss individuals' decisions to be absent; and Folger and Skarlicki's (1998) equity comparisons. The next stage of cognitive procedure invariably involves an analysis of the causes of the results that cause perceived disequilibrium. It has been noted by Neuman (1998) that attributions for the reasons behind negative results are driving forces for aggressive behavior; Bies and Tripp's (1998) and Murray's (1999) description of the role of the overly personlistic attributions (or 'blame attributions') in acts of organizational revenge; Martinko and Zellar's (1998) emphasis on the part of attributions in precipitating aggressive behaviors; Martinko and Gardner's (1982) description of how attributions result in organizationally induced helplessness, and Judge's (1996) focus on employees' attributions for absenteeism for the disequilibrium; our primary focus is on the attribution side of this process. There are two factors influencing this. First, it visible that there is a high degree of consensus regarding

the procedure by which results are evaluated. Even though, literature has pointed out that there are many various ways of describing the nature of the evaluation process such as relative as opposed to absolute equity (Martinko et al., 2000) and distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Folger & Skarlicki 1998; Murray 1999), the literature has mostly, confirmed that perceptions of the quality of outcomes are vital antecedent cognition that precedes counterproductive behavior (Martinko et al., 2002).

Although the recent literature has pointed out that there are many different ways of describing the nature of the evaluation process including relative as opposed to absolute equity (Martinko, 2000) and distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Folger & Skarlicki 1998; Murray 1999), the literature has, for the most part, confirmed that perceptions of the quality of outcomes are a necessary antecedent cognition that precedes counterproductive behavior (Martinko et al., 2002). Although it is important to understand the process by which the quality of outcomes is evaluated, we believe that it is the attributions for the cause of the outcomes that will be most predictive of the nature and form of counterproductive behavior. More specifically, although two individuals may both perceive that their outcomes are undesirable and inequitable; we believe that it is their causal reasoning processes, manifested through the attributions that they make for the causes of their outcomes, which are most important in predicting their counterproductive reactions to the outcomes. Thus, as we will describe below, if a person attributes a disappointing outcome to his or her own internal and unstable characteristics such as a lack of effort, the individual will be likely to assume blame and will probably not engage in counterproductive behavior. On the other hand, if the individual attributes the disappointing outcome to an external, stable, and intentional cause, such as a jealous or malevolent coworker (Bies & Tripp 1996), the individual is much more likely to engage in some form of counterproductive retaliatory behavior. Although different theories have been used to describe how and why various causal reasoning processes are associated with counterproductive behavior, we believe that attribution theory provides the most comprehensive, parsimonious, and integrated explanation of why some individuals, as opposed to others, when presented with the same stimuli, choose to engage in counterproductive behavior. Moreover, we also believe that attribution theory helps to explain why, when confronted with negative outcomes, some individuals choose

to direct their behavior externally through retaliatory forms of counterproductive behavior, while others direct their efforts internally to produce self-destructive forms of counterproductive behavior, such as alcohol and drug abuse. More specifically, we believe and have evidence, which supports that specific patterns of attributions for perceived inequitable/unjust workplace outcomes are highly predictive of individuals' proclivities to engage in retaliatory versus self-destructive counterproductive behaviors. These relationships are depicted in Figure 2, and explained in more detail below. Although many of the sources cited above describe aspects of attribution theory, the primary sources which form the basis of our arguments regarding the central role of attributions are Abramson, Seligman and Teasdale (1978); Weiner (1986); Martinko and Gardner (1982); Martinko and Zellars (1998); Douglas and Martinko (2001), and Weiner's (1995) book on judgements of responsibility. Essentially these works argue that one's attributions about the causes of outcomes (equitable or inequitable) are a primary force motivating counterproductive behaviors. More specifically, the locus of causality dimension affects affective reactions. Internal attributions for negative incidents often develop negative feelings about the self, including self-deprecation and helplessness (Martinko & Gardner, 1982).Furthermore, external attributions stimulate negative affective reactions that are directed outward such as revenge, particularly when individuals discern that there are no mitigating circumstances and when the perpetrators' actions are seen as deliberate (Martinko & Zellars, 1998; Weiner, 1995). The stability dimension affects expectancies. When negative outcomes are discerned to be the outcome of unstable causes, they do not change the expectancies. As a consequence, disregarding the attribution is internal or external, because the outcome is unstable, it is not expected in the future, and counterproductive behavior is unlikely. On the other hand, if the cause of an undesirable outcome is perceived to be stable, regardless of whether it is perceived as internal or external, the outcome is expected to continue and counterproductive behavior is more likely. More specifically, when negative outcomes are ascribed to internal and stable causes such as lack of ability, it increases the possibility of counterproductive behavior that is internally focused, such as learned helplessness and alcohol and drug abuse (Martinko & Gardner, 1982).Moreover, negative outcomes that are attributed to external and stables causes, which are also professed to be intentional,

and without mitigating circumstances, like a punitive manager, are more expected to result in externally directed counterproductive behaviors such as aggression, revenge, and sabotage (Bies & Tripp, 1996; Douglas, 2007).Predominantly, this perception emphasis that the cognitive interpretation of a negative outcome is a primary driving force in determining whether or not an individual adopts to participate in counterproductive behavior, and whether the behavior is demonstrated internally or externally resulting in either self-destructive or retaliatory behaviors, respectively. In the subsequent chapters of this thesis author will intricate on the centrality of attribution progressions by demonstrating how they are interrelated to individual difference and situational variables.

Pakistani context

A study conducted by Bashir, Nasir, Qayyum and Bashir (2012) attempted to analyse dimensionality of CWB in public sector organizations of Pakistan. Their data analysis of data collected from 785 public servants in Pakistan and the findings revealed that CWB has become a routine activity in public sector organizations. This pervasiveness of high rate of corruption also indicates the need for having an effective control mechanism to restrain the menace of corruption. Khan, Quratulain, and Crawshaw (2013) examined the mediating role of discrete emotions in the relations between employee perceptions of distributive and procedural injustice, concerning annual salary raise, and counterproductive work behaviours. Their findings were chiefly vital to national and multinational organizations based in Pakistan, where previous research into these issues has been non-existent. Cultural models propose that expressions of aggressive emotions and behaviours may be less endured in high power distance and collectivist cultures such as Pakistan. It is deliberated essential that managers working in Pakistani organizations are also conscious of the emotional milieu of work and the potential insinuations of employees' negative emotions for damaging retaliatory behaviours.

Organizational Justice

Saleem and Gopinath (2015) explain organizational justice as the most important part for the environments of psychological as well as social organizations. It has an

established relationship with a vast variety of organizational variables, due to which it is a stimulus for organizational behavior. Some of these variables are; productivity, morale, the loyalty for a job as well as its satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior and the performance of an employee. In order to achieve success, development and the objectives of any organization effectively and efficiently, these variables are important to be accomplished. The impacts of the organizational variables are important in employee's evaluation. It also reflects the treatment of supervisor on his subordinate on both social and professional levels.

The theory of equity given by Adams (1963), forms the base for the organizational justice. The theory proposes that an employee tends to evaluate the fairness/justice level of his overseer by a comparison of the input vs. the output, that is; they evaluate the profit they are provided as a result of their contribution of a task. Furthermore, he believes that an employee may also compare his results with that of his co-worker. Organizational level according to Byrne (2003), Elovainio et al. (2005), Karrikar & Williams (2009), and Rupp (2011), refers to when an employee appraises how fair his boss is by evaluating his treatment on both human as well as professional level. As far as Tatum & Eberlin (2008) and Nadiri & Tanova (2010) are concerned, they propose that organizational justice relates to the degree of appreciation by workers for the level of equality in their work treatment arising from the prevailing relationship among the company and its staff and its effect on many organizational outputs. Beuqre (2002), Ishak & Alam (2009), Chernyak-Hal & Tziner (2014) propose that organizational fairness is the valuation derived from the acknowledgement by the workers of the competence and objectivity of the existing processes of the institution. In view of the above, a concept for the term (organizational justice) is given by the current study researcher. They describe it as the human appreciation and meaning of the staff members for the honesty of the allocation of organizational profits among them compared with their investments as part of accomplishing the dignity of the organizational operations and the impartiality of the decision making. These judgments can include choices concerning the incentive allocation. These investigators also describe organizational justice as managing the organization's workers as per the sacrifices they have made for the accomplishment of the workers and the institution's objectives.

Dimensions of Organizational Justice. Most scholars think the following three components make up the organizational justice system:

The distributive justice. This component is drawn from the suggestions made by Adams (1963) on equity principle. The above theory offers a definition of a way of obtaining justice among the workforce of the company (Le Roy et al., 2012). Greenberg & Baron (2009) argues that allocative fairness is among the types of organizat ional justice that aims to make workers think that they have earned sums of cash (i.e. sala ries and many others) equivalent to the results of their efforts. Noruzy et al. (2011) think that allocative justice includes the equal resource allocation, as well as the b ehavior and belief systems of the workers regarding the equality of the incomes and reme dies granted to them. In context of the above, it can even be deduced that the results are the focal point of the distributive justice. Therefore, the current study's investigator describes it for being appreciated by the workforce for the equality of the outcomes they have earned.

The procedural justice. Procedural justice addresses the equality of the decision-making processes followed by that of the company, which affect its staff. These choices may include rewards, performance evaluation, incentive allocation, etc. (Roch & Shanock, 2006). Folger & Cropanzano (2001) suggests that procedural justice leads to matters related to equality which involve the processes, procedures and activities used for determination of the results. Greenberg and Baron (2009) address the nature of a procedural justice system. These latter researchers believe that equality and fairness cannot exist exclusively in just the results of procedures but as well as in the equality in the procedures of the operation.

The interactional justice. The interactional justice relates to the views of the workers as to the equality of the way they're treated by applying organizational procedures (Isalam & Sadaqar, 2011). The fairness of personal relationships defines the degree of respect and gratitude the workers receive from their superiors. As regards information justice, it relates to the degree to which the knowledge obtained is correct and that of the standard. Greenberg & Baron (2009) argues that the distributive justice

relates to the expectations of the workers as to the degree and equality of how top executives handle them.

Outcomes of Justice

There have been a few surveys examining how procedural and distributive justice influences results (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1987; Konovsky, Folger & Cropanzano, 1987). Specifically, researches has found distributive justice to foresee compliance with particular, private results, higher than that of procedural justice, like those of in trial verdicts. Nevertheless, the opposite is also true when individuals make somewhat generalized judgments of, for example, legal establishments, or their members (Lind & Tyler, 1988). However, some researches that were carried out in organizational environments appeared to promote the idea that the forecasting functions of procedural and distributive justice rely, at least partially, on the quality of the result at stake. For example, procedural justice founded by Alexander and Ruderman (1987) took into account for further variability in assessments of management, job performance and apparent strife than distributive justice. Konovsky et al. (1987) observed that organizational loyalty was foreseen by procedural justice and not just by paying gratification, while the opposite was true for distributive justice. Additionally, Folger and Konovsky (1989) observed that procedural justice accounts for more variation in an administrator's institutional loyalty and confidence than distributive justice, while the opposite was true to fulfillment with a pay increase. Study by Nasir and Bashir (2012) suggests that numerous factors may be accountable for producing disturbance in the workplaces, such as economic constraints, low job contentment, organizational inequality, organizational climate, perceptions of employees, etc., but perhaps the most significant elements are organizational unfairness and job contentment. A significant amount of organizational study supports the view that assumed inequality contributes to adverse responses at the workplaces (Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). Witnessing inequality, for example, leads to these kind of adverse consequences as reduced work output (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993) and additional avoidance activity (Hulin, 1991). While substantial research focus has been given to breaching the standards of organizational justice, the relations most commonly regarded

by investigators have included result factors of a cognitive or behavioral type, such as institutional loyalty (Alexander, Sinclair, & Tetrick, 1995), fraud (Greenberg, 1990), and confidence in the institution (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). Often correlated with anxiety-related results are preconceptions of institutional unfairness, such as mental pressure (Elovainio, Kivimaki, & Helkama, 2001), anxiety (Tepper, 2001), and futile conduct at job (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). The adverse effect of presumed prejudice on employee performance and employee contentment was explored by Parker and Kohlmeyer (2005). Pay and success are connected in the public service institutions, so workers in a public service tend to recognize discrimination in their employment depending on their experience of mistreatment (Aslam, Arfeen, Mohti, & Rahman, 2015). Workers whom experience mistreatment can begin protesting about either the injustice or complain against it. Additionally, unequal treatment does have a detrimental effect on the job performance of the workers. Such workers might get unhappy with the work, miss work, show poorer levels of responsibility and might even eventually try to resign (Aslam et al., 2016; Aslam, Mohti, Imran, & Arfeen, 2015). Government administration agencies may not be sufficient to provide workers with the tools which they might require to efficiently fulfill their duties. Additionally, government organizations neglect their staff and delegate them extra duties and also do not give any incentive, resulting in work disappointment, which has an adverse effect on adaptive engagement and expected institutional efficiency (Aslam et al., 2015; Muqadas, Rehman, & Aslam, 2017). Several researches have with great care weighed organizational inequality as a source of anxiety, and noticed it had a negative effect on an individuals' capacity to fulfil the necessary task (Cope et al., 2010; Vermunt & Steensma, 2001; Muqadas, Rehman, & Aslam, 2017; Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Staff members handled unfairly might have greater levels of work discontentment and turnover motive, leading to increased replacement costs such as the expense of selection, recruiting, instructing, and train new staff members (Aslam, Rehman, & Imran 2016; Sulu, Ceylan & Kaynak, 2010; Hinkin & Tracey, 2000).

Pakistani Context

Research results by Faheem and Mahmud (2015) showed, the organizational justice is adversely effected by the deviations from the office, whereas job satisfaction

has a positive correlation to organizational justice. Whereas the research by Nasir and Bashir (2012) suggests that various aspects may be capable for building deviance from the work-space, e.g. economic stress, low job productivity, institutional indifference, institutional climate, employer perceptions, etc., the most significant factor is organizational injustice. Hussain and Khan (2018) examined the extent of corporate justice within the traditional media industry in Pakistan. The study aimed to examine the influence of organizational justice on employees ' employment turnover attitude within Pakistan's traditional media industry. It has been stated in the findings that presumed allocative fairness, administrative fairness and informational fairness have a negative correlation with expectations of turnover, while interpersonal fairness didn't result in a positive relationship of the employees.

Theoretical Perspective

Folger & Cropanzo (2001) argues, in the context of the equity theory put forth by Adams (1963), that exposing workers to unjust (unfair) conditions should not simply leave them feeling dissatisfied. In reality, sentiments of rage toward the institution will also grow. These emotions will allow them to do some acts like: (decelerate, robbery, and mismanagement). Dadi (2012) claims that infringing the mental and emotional level tasks will result in a faction of problematic behavior, recklessness and inflexibility. It will also result in a reduction in the amount of corporate satisfaction for the worker. The above investigator indicates that depending onto such violations depend greatly on the situation variables. Those considerations can include: interesting job opportunities. Priesmath et al. (2013) have worked on Bandura's suggested theory of social learning (1977) and Salancik & Pfeffer's suggested theory of social information processing (1978). Priesmath et al., (2013) assert that these concepts presume that workers of the institution examine and discover from others regarding unjust behavior, or perceive equality-related indications in the atmosphere that trigger correlating future actions. This above concept also propose that even if the staff member is treated equally, he will exhibit positive views and good morale and feel grateful of his team-work, which will drive one to elevated level of work commitment, and supportive habits of involvement in work. They further claim that unless the staff member is treated poorly, he will show

lower level of work commitment, and contribute and also be allowed to demonstrate deviant actions (such as revocation) and activities that represent just his own self-interest.

Brimecombe (2013) argues that the principles and ideals of social justice get a significant influence on the actions of the workers and the activities they execute. Researchers also indicate that one of the main elements of organizational justice is reflected in combating the feeling of being unfairly treated by the workers. They also argue that the use of authority inhumanely or to cruelly influence workers would cause the marginalized working teams to shape negative views, conduct unhealthy behaviors and gain some self-hatred sentiments. This will also contribute to disputes occurring amongst workers. The interaction and effect of social equality and negative job activity has been discussed in many reports. These reports also include the work done by Le Roy et al. research (2012). The above investigators have argued that perhaps the adverse job activity has a statistically relevant effect on interactional fairness. They have found the connection around affectivity and interactional justice is significant. As Ansari et al. (2013) asserted, a negative relation exists among a variety of skills as well as distributive fairness from one side and counterproductive work actions from the other. The above authors also indicate that a strong relationship exists among the institutional restrictions or the counterproductive actions of the job. They further found that the association among personal factors and the counterproductive conduct is statistically relevant. Monanu et al., (2015) examined the connection among the aspects of organizational justice (i.e. distributive, administrative, and interactional equality) and the parameters of problematic job conduct (i.e. intrapersonal violence, vandalism, robbery, deviations of output, and abandonment). The latter authors found that perhaps the parameters of counter productive work actions are having a statistically meaningful effect for the aspects of organizational justice. Saleem & Gopinath (2015) geared to explore the influence of the aspects of organizational justice (i.e. distributive, constitutional, as well as interactional equality) onto the aspects of counterproductive labor conduct (i.e., deviant behaviors and discontinuation from output). The bond among perceived injustice with CWB may be mediated by the feelings. Fox and Spector (1999) found proof that the interaction among organizational pressures and CWB is regulated by emotions. These researchers proposed a paradigm to clarify the connection among attitudes of the organizational scenario (i.e.,

equality, disappointment, limitations) and participating in CWB via emotional understanding.

Emotion Regulation

For employee well-being, individual and organizational performance, emotions are considered most important (Grandey & Brauburger, 2002). Subsequently, emotions are usually incorporated into various areas of organizational research including decision-making , interpersonal behaviours, creativity, solving issues, negotiation, citizenship withdraw behaviours, job attitudes and satisfaction (Breif & Weiss, 2002; Straw & Barsade, 1993). Moreover, emotions are considered an important factor in the perception of customer service quality and employee customer service performance (Barger & Grandey, 2006; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989; Pugh, 2001). The complexities involving both the cause and outcomes of emotions in the workplace causing individuals to experience a huge range of emotions at work impacted by numerous unique affective events. Since individuals do not experience and answer to affective events, importance of observing emotion regulation mechanisms to study how individuals manage the emotional events at work (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007 and to emotions in the same way (Muchinskly, 2000) researchers have begun to recognize the; Callahan, 2000; Côté & Morgan, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner (in press); Morris & Feldman, 1997; Zammuner & Gali, 2005).

Various approaches are present to investigate how individuals control emotions in workplaces (e.g. emotional intelligence, emotional labor, emotional competence, emotion management). Regulating emotion provides one framework to see how individuals manage emotional events. Regulating emotions is generally defined as the process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions (Gross, 1998).

Studying this process oriented definition of emotion, it can be stated that emotion regulation is defined as individuals monitoring their emotional experiences and expressions that occur at numerous points of the emotion process. During this, they may come to decide which, when and how to experience and express emotions. (Gross, 1998; 1999). This meaning has put importance on self-focused emotion regulation (Gross,

1999; Pugliesi, 1999; Throits, 1996; Woulters, 1989). This is entirely different from other forms of emotion regulation, such as those directed towards others' emotions with or without changing one's own emotional states.

Theories of emotional regulation supply prospective frameworks to systematically learning how people deal with emotions triggered by setting off events and results relate with numerous regulation strategies. The general desire for emotion regulation in the workplace is rarely asked. In spite of this, there exists a need to perceive the complex nature of emotion regulation in the context of the work environment, like the impacts of the individual's emotion regulation tendencies and the nature of affective events. The most widely used and well-researched model of emotion regulation is Gross's (1998) model. Gross's model is used as the guiding frame work in this study for examining the complexities of emotion regulation in the work place, test development. Gross's model is important for our reasons for its procedural orientation, its empirical founding, also its capacity to fit within other important frameworks. However, the presence of emotions in organizations is likely to be a mixed blessing. For example, even though being content is associated to the feeling of "oneness," indicating an enhanced sense of well-being (Fredrickson, 1998), grievances is also related to a decreased motivation to change the status quo which affects creativity and innovation (George & Zhou, 2002); although anger may usually uplifts one's social status (Tiedens, 2001), it may activate counterproductive work behaviours (Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001). Hence, although many have discussed the functional role of emotions (Plutchik, 1980; Fredrickson, 1998; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Keltner & Kring, 1998; Lazarus, 1991; Scherer, 1984), it is nevertheless the truth that emotions could at times become quite dysfunctional for individuals, groups, and organizations (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994).

Strategies

The most hugely used and well-researched model of emotion regulation is Gross's (1998) model. Gross's model is used as the guiding frame work in this understands for examining the complexities of emotion regulation in the workplace and also for test development. Gross's model is suitable for our purposes for its procedural orientation, its

empirical founding, also its capacity to fit within other relevant frameworks. In Gross's (1998) model, emotion regulation ways are organized into a conceptual framework however, numerous strategies influence the emotion generative process at specific points, increasing, decreasing, or altering felt emotions. At the broadest conceptualization, this model groups regulation strategies into antecedent and response strategies. Antecedent focused emotion regulation plan of actions take place before emotion appraisals give rise to responses, however response centric strategies take place after the emotional response has been manifested (Gross & Munoz, 1995). Gross's model poses a series of recursive sequential processes. Here at any given point during the emotion generation process; one, or none of the strategies may be occur. But, he notes that none of these strategies is characteristically optimal in every kind of situation. In this antecedent and response strategy dichotomy, five categories of regulation strategies comprise Gross's (1998) model including, situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation. The first of these, situation selection, it involves approaching or avoiding some people, places, or objects in order to regulate emotions. Situation selection needs a degree of perspective taking, where an understanding of the likely features of a situation and forecasting the likely emotional response is necessary (Gross & Thompson, 2007). Effective use of the situation selection regulation strategy also needs the evaluation of the short-term costs of emotional regulation versus the longer-term costs, of selecting in or out of a set of circumstances. Let's take an example of a shy person who was recently hired into an organization. In the short term, they can prevent the Friday after work happy hours attended by their new workgroup. But, the long-term costs of usually avoiding this after work social get together may consequently lead in this individual being socially isolated from the workgroup. Alternatively, one can modify the situation, by directly changing aspects of the situation to alter the emotional impact. This is similar to problem-focused coping, because it involves a strong problem-solving component. Situation modification involves steps that are taken to directly modify the external physical environment, for the purpose of modifying felt emotions. For example, during work on a difficult task, asking a co-worker for assistance on the task would be an example of situation modification .Individuals would also regulate their emotions without directly effecting their

environment. Attention deployment includes selectively directing one's attention within a situation to impact their emotions. The two vital aspects of this course of action are distraction and concentration. Distraction focuses attention on different aspects of the situation that instigate a different emotion, or moving attention away from the situation through evoking inconsistent thoughts and memories. For example to evoke a past memory of excitement or enjoyment when feeling depressed; or thinking "happy thoughts" when filled with anger. Drawing attention to the non-emotional features of the situation include concentration.

Individuals can also make the way they think about a situation, through processes considered as cognitive change in Gross's (1998) model. Most of this course of actions are either associated to or identical to many of the classical defense mechanisms (e.g. denial, isolation, and intellectualization). Another cognitive change strategy, cognitive reframing or reappraisal, involves the changing of one's perspective or the meaning of an event. For example, cognitive reappraisal occurs when one thinks about how another person would feel or think about the situation. The common cliché of putting yourself in another person's shoes" showcases this strategy quite well.

Furthermore, several methods are present for regulating emotion after the emotion has been evoked. These response-focused strategies, are considered as response modulation which include physiological, experiential, or behavioral responses that change the experience or showcase of emotion. Regulating expressive emotion behavior (i.e. suppression) is the most popular form of emotion regulation (Gross, 1998). The often-repeated adage of "grin and bear it" displays this principle. Suppression follows an individual not showing their emotional expression. Individuals may also fake their emotions, by showing an emotion they do not feel. Studies have shown that staring emotion expressive behavior can grow the feeling of that emotion (Izard, 1990; Matsumoto, 1989). Other examples of response modulation include the use of relaxation techniques, such as deep breathing, or even the use of drugs or alcohol. Response modulation also includes physical exercise, if it is utilized as a way to relieve negative emotional states.

Emotional Experiences and Work Outcomes

Individual experience a diversity of emotions at work, and these emotional ex presences have an important impact on attitudes and behaviors at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Empirical results and theoretical work with association to the relationship between emotion and job performance have not been consistent. Let's take an example, on the one hand, it has been argued that positive emotions ease creativity (Isen & Daubman, 1984) and interpersonal functioning (Fredrickson, 1998). In contrast, positive emotions have also been associated with lowered motivation for creativity (George & Zhou, 2002) and decreased analytical ability (Mackie & Worth, 1991; Schwartz & Bless, 1991). With regard to negative emotions, whereas they prevent individuals' where center of attention on the pressing concern of the situation (Frijda, 1988), which halts the potential for improvisation and creativity (e.g., Staw, Sandelands & Dutton, 1981), they may also serve to shift individuals' attention to areas that need improvement, which holds the potential to increase performance (George & Zhou, 2002). One cause that causes the emotion–performance link is the nature of the task. For tasks that need attention, such as those that require accuracy of decision making, positive emotions may not always be beneficial. However, for tasks primarily characteristic of interpersonal interactions, positive emotions may facilitate performance. In service jobs, for example, it has been found usually that positive emotional expressions are related with superior customer-service quality and customer satisfaction (e.g., Pugh, 2001; Tsai, 2001), taking that positive emotions increase customer-service performance. Usually, positive emotions promote sociability, benevolence, and a sense of connectedness with other people (Fredrickson, 1998; Isen, 1984). In this regard, individuals in an optimistic mood usually offer assistance to others (e.g., Isen & Levin, 1972). Also, Clark, Pataki, and Carver (1996) points out that individuals are attached to those who display happiness, regarding them as more trustworthy and likable. Hence, the tendency to display positive emotions will likely build smooth interpersonal relationships, which gives increase to cooperation and satisfaction within the work environment (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). In opposition, negative emotions may be detrimental to customer service when the negative inner experiences are incorporated in customer encounters. Tschan, Rochat, and

Zapf (2005) discovered that deviance from expected optimistic emotional displays associated to lower levels of well-being.

Relationship of the study variables

According to Al-A'wasa (2018) there is a negative relationship of moderate strength between the counterproductive work behavior and the organizational justice. Similarly, research conducted by Gotileb (2011) also displayed a negative relationship between system-referenced organizational justice and organizational-counterproductive work behavior (CWBO), and between agent-referenced organizational justice and interpersonal- counterproductive work (CWBI), while Holley (2012) argues that emotion regulation is a strong predictor for counterproductive work behaviors, as cognitive reappraisal has the power to reduce both the instrumental and expressive motives behind CWBs. It also argues that other strategies like expressive suppression results in the increase of CWB.

Several studies have dealt with the relationship and impact between organizational justice and the counterproductive work behavior. Such studies include the study conducted by Le Roy et al. (2012). The latter researchers concluded that there is a statistically significant impact for interactional justice on the counterproductive work behavior. They also concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between affectivity and interactional justice. As Ansari et al., (2013) concluded that there is a negative relationship between skills variety, and distributive justice from one hand and counterproductive work behavior from another hand. The latter researchers also suggest that there is a positive relationship between the organizational constraints and the counterproductive work behavior. They also concluded that there is a statistically significant relationship between personal factors and the counterproductive work behavior.

Research carried out by Monanu et al. (2015) explored the relationship between the organizational justice dimensions – (i.e. distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) – and the counterproductive work behavior dimensions (i.e. interpersonal abuse, sabotage, theft, production deviance and withdrawal). The results concluded that there is

a statistically significant impact for the organizational justice dimensions on the counterproductive work behavior dimensions. While the researches carried out by Saleem & Gopinath (2015) aimed at exploring the impact of the organizational justice dimensions (i.e. distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) on the counterproductive work behavior dimensions (i.e. production deviance and withdrawal). The latter researchers also aimed at identifying the impact of work pressure - as a mediating variable – on the relationship between the organizational justice and the counterproductive work behavior. They concluded that there is a statistically significant impact for the organizational justice dimensions on the counterproductive work behavior dimensions. They also concluded that there is a statistically significant impact for the work pressure - as a mediating variable – on the relationship between organizational justice and the counterproductive work behavior. The latter researchers also concluded that the distributive justice is the dimension that has the greatest impact on the counterproductive work behavior.

A study conducted to determine the impact of organizational justice on the counterproductive work behaviors on the Jordan customs department, which also investigated the ability of the organizational justice dimensions to interpret the changes in the employees' behavior. It was concluded that the employees were aware about the significance of organizational justice. That reflects the significant role of organizational justice in the extent of displaying a counterproductive work behavior towards the organization, individuals or both. It was concluded that there is a statistically significant impact for the organizational justice dimensions (i.e. the distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) on the counterproductive work behavior dimensions towards the organization and individuals.

In the area of counterproductive workplace behaviors (CWBs), researchers have investigated discrete emotions such as anger and hostility in predicting the enactment of CWBs (Fox & Spector, 1999; Lee & Allen, 2002). Specifically, research on emotional regulation in the workplace has found that employees use a wide variety of emotional regulation strategies, and in fact, these strategies tend to line up with certain negative emotions and affective events (Diefendorff et al,. 2008). Diefendorff, et al (2008) found that reappraisal strategies were most often linked to customer affective events as well as

negative discrete emotions such as annoyance, anger and frustration. Seeing customers as a potential source of anger is in line with what Rupp, McCance, Spencer, and Sonntag (2008) found in their study where they examined customer interpersonal and informational injustice experienced by customer service workers. Perceptions of injustice are often accompanied by anger, and anger is a strong motivator for employees to restore equity by taking action against either another individual or toward the entire organization (Bies & Tripp, 2002)

Fitness (2000) found that many employees felt that the expression of their anger resulted in the successfully resolution of the initial anger-inducing event, interestingly, employees who were angered by their supervisors were much less likely to think that the anger-provoking event was successfully resolved. Therefore, if only given the choice between expression and suppression in environments where it may not be favorable to express their anger, employees may find themselves holding onto anger, and potentially perceptions of injustice. This suppression may result in increased stress for the employee, continued negative emotions, and impaired performance due to the consumption of cognitive resources required by suppression (Gross, 2002).

Holley (2012) in her research has described specific discrete emotions as we can use the affective circumplex to distinguish emotions from one another (e.g. anger can be described as having high activation, low positive affect, high negative affect, and unpleasant hedonic tone). While it was also found that reappraisal can influence affect through the reciprocal influence of affect and cognition and that there is a strong case for studying the discrete emotion of anger and its regulation in the context of justice and CWBs.

Greenberg & Scott, (1996) have argued in their research that there are specifically, two basic motives that lead to CWBs, cognitive motives, and expressive motives. Cognitive motives are "exchange-based explanations of deviant behavior" that involve the use of equity theory to restore and repair perceived justice perceptions for the individual (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Expressive motives, on the other hand, arise from an individual's "need to vent, release, or express feelings of outrage, anger or frustration" to others following unjust events (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Supporting this theory, Lee and Allen (2002) found that both job affect (as represented by

anger/hostility) and job cognition played a crucial role in predicting retaliation. Notably, interpersonal justice has been found to be a strong predictor of CWBs (Colquitt et al., 2001). Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006) found that certain CWBs may be caused by predominately instrumental motives and others primarily by expressive motives. Specifically, Spector, et al. (2006) found that abuse and sabotage were most strongly related to anger and stress and that theft was unrelated to emotion.

Rationale

Counterproductive work behavior is a significant problem pervasive in the organizations in this modern age as it has caused not only the less productivity of the organizations but also been the cause of the downfall of economic development of the organization as well as the economy of any country. This study would provide an extensive, qualitative and quantitative review of the antecedents of CWB along with its mediators and moderators in Pakistani organizational settings.

The current investigation is having many different aspects. It will not only explore the psychological mechanism underlying CWB in Pakistani organizational settings but also aimed to assess how organizational justice affects the employees of public service sector organizations of Pakistan with diverse nature of jobs and how emotion regulation with its strategies affect (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) affect them. Conducting research on CWB represents significant challenges because of the detrimental and even illegal nature of these acts. This has led in large part to an almost exclusive reliance on anonymous self-report questionnaires (Bowling & Gruys, 2010).

In addition, Pakistan provides a very good contrasting context for validating those findings identified in western cultures considering that past counterproductive work behaviours research have been mainly conducted in western cultural settings (Bashir, Nasir, Qayyum, & Bashir, 2012). This study would provide organizations the understanding of underlying mechanism of cause of occurrence of counterproductive work behaviours that would help them in combating the counterproductive work behaviours of employees in Pakistani organizational settings with diverse nature of jobs. The present study contributes by exploring the role of organizational justice and emotion regulation in the counterproductive work behaviours, although there has been much

literature exploring relationship between counterproductive work behaviours and organizational justice but a very few studies have explored the role of emotion regulation in the counterproductive work behaviours (Holley, 2012). The results suggest a strong link between expressive suppression and counterproductive work behaviours, which further implicates that possible mediating role of emotion regulation strategies need to be explore by future researchers.

The present study contributes to the expanding literature of CWB by investigating the link between demographic variables and counterproductive work behaviour in the Pakistani organizational context (Manzoor, Hassan & Arif, 2014; Bashir, Nasir, Qayyum, & Bashir, 2012; Gruys, & Sackett, 2003; Lasisi, Olukayode, Okuneye & Shodiya, 2014), however, the findings suggests inconsistent role of demographic variables with CWB and there is further need to explore the dynamics of these relationships.

Method

Objectives

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

1. To explore the phenomenon of counterproductive work behaviour and its relationship with organizational justice and emotional regulation (Cognitive Reappraisal & Expressive Suppression) among employees of public sector organizations.

2. To investigate role of demographic variables (i.e., age, gender, education, marital status, family system, number of dependent family members, monthly family income, tenure in current organization, job scale, involvement in any other part time job) in relation to the study variables.

Hypotheses

Following were the hypotheses of the present:

1. Perceived organizational justice will be negatively related with counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) among public sector employees.

2. Cognitive Reappraisal will be negatively related with CWBs.

3. Expressive Suppression will be positively linked with CWBs in employees.

4. Education will be negatively related with CWBs among employees.

Conceptual and Operational Definitions

Counterproductive work behaviours. Counterproductive work behaviours (CWBs) are deliberate actions that harm the organization and its members (O'Boyle, Forsyth & O'Boyle, 2011) for example destroying organizational property, purposely doing work incorrectly, and taking unauthorized work breaks, hitting a co-worker, insulting others, and shouting at someone. In the present research this was measured by a

Checklist for Counterproductive Work Behaviours (Rasool, 2019). High scores on the measure show high involvement in CWBs.

Perceived Organizational Justice. It refers to the degree to which employees felt their needs were considered, and adequate explanations were made for job decisions. There are three types of organizational justice including distributive justice which is mostly associated to the justice of the results the workers received, procedural justice, a kind of justice stating the fairness of procedures used to determine organizational outcomes (Greenberg, 1987). The third type of organizational justice is called interactional justice and the way in which organizational justice is taken by supervisors to subordinates. In the present research this was measured by Urdu Version of Organizational Justice Scale (Rasool, 2019). High scores on the measure show high involvement in CWBs.

Emotional Regulation. Emotion regulation refers to the processes by which we influence which emotions we have, when we have them, and how we experience and express emotions (Gross, 1998). It is further categorized into two categories: Cognitive reappraisal, which involves reinterpretation of a situation in such a way that adjusts its meaning and changes its emotional effect (Gross & John, 2003). The other category is expressive suppression, which is characterized as the endeavour to hide, repress or reduce the progressing emotion expressive conduct (Gross & John, 2003). In the present research it was measured by Urdu Version Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (Butt, Malik, & Kaleem 2012). High scores on each dimension show higher emotional regulation in that area.

Sample

The sample of the current research comprised of employees (N = 301) working in public sector organizations (i.e., WAPDA, NADRA, Sui Gas, PIA, Railways, PTCL, and Postal Services through purposive sampling technique). Only those employees were taken as participants who had been working in the organization for more than six months. Following is a detailed description of sample:

Table 1

Demographic Details of the Sample (N = 301)

Variables	Frequencies	Percentage (%)
Age		
21-39	249	82.7
40-50	52	17.3
Gender		
Men	198	65.8
Women	103	34.2
Education		
Up to Bachelors	129	42.9
Masters and above	118	57.1
Marital Status		
Unmarried	113	37.5
Married	188	62.5
Family System		
Nuclear	203	37.4
Joint	98	32.6
Number of Dependent Family Members		
0-3	173	57.5
4-7	128	42.4
Monthly Family Income		
10000-100000	251	83.3
100001-200000	33	11
200001 and above	17	5.7
Tenure in Current Organization (in Years)		
1-10	248	82.4
11-20	41	13.6
21-30	12	4
Job Scale (BPS)		
5-10	24	8
11-16	168	55.8
17-22	109	36.1
Involved in any Part time Job		
No	265	88
Yes	36	12

Table 1 illustrates the frequencies and percentages of various demographic categories. As shown in the Table 1, majority of the participants are between 21-39 years, men, and have completed their education up to masters and above. Most of the participants are

married, living in nuclear family system, having 100000 or less monthly income and have up to three dependents. Most of the participants are working in BPS-11 and above, are in the same organization from 1-10 years and are not involved in any other part-time job.

Instruments

Following instruments were used in the present study:

Checklist for Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CCWB). Rasool (2019) developed this instrument (35-items) in order to measure level of counterproductive Work Behaviors in organizational setup with the reliability of (α = .91). The rating was done on a 5 point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*). High scores showed employees involvement in CWBs.

Organizational Justice Scale. Neihoff and Moorman (1993) developed this scale to check the perceptions of justice within the organization and how the employees are treated. In the present research it was measured through Organizational Justice Scale (Rasool, 2019). This scale has 20 items. It consisted of three subscales, which are Distributive Justice (item no. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5), Procedural Justice (item no 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11), and Interactional Justice (item no 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20). The rating was done on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). High scores showed high perceptions of justice in each domain.

Emotional Regulation Questionnaire. Gross and John (2003) developed this scale to measure the emotional regulation strategies used by people. In the present research emotional regulation was measured by Urdu version of Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (Butt, Malik, & Kaleem, 2012) with the reliability of (α = .90). It consisted of 10 items classified into two subscales Cognitive Reappraisal (item no. 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 10) and Expressive Suppression (item no. 2, 4, 6, 9). The rating was done on a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). High scores show high use of the respective emotional regulation strategy.

Demographic sheet. Demographics included in the study were age, gender, education, marital status, family system, number of dependent family members, monthly family income, tenure, job scale and part time job.

Procedure

First permission was received from the respective administrations of the organizations for the purpose of collecting information from organization. Purposive sampling technique was used after permission was given to identify potential participants. They were first asked for consent, and then told to fill in the instruments. Guidance was provided to the participants in case of any ambiguity. Confidentiality of responses was assured. A copy of three instruments was then provided to the participants to fill it as per their own views. Participants were thanked for giving their precious time. After collecting the data, it was analyzed by using SPSS-22.

Results

Data was analyzed through SPSS-22 using descriptive and inferential statistics. The alpha reliability coefficients of measure were computed to check internal consistency of these scales on present sample. To check the normality of data, descriptive statistics were computed. The relationships among variables and predictions were established through Pearson Product Moment correlation and multiple regression analysis, respectively. Independent sample t-test was done to study group differences (e.g., gender, marital status, and part time job).

Table 2

Reliabilities and Descriptive Statistics of the Measures ($N = 301$)

Scales	No. of items	M	SD	α	Range		Skew	Kurt
					Actual	Potential		
CR	6	19.28	4.82	.85	10-27	6- 42	-.09	-1.27
ES	4	13.18	3.28	.76	6-18	4-28	-.32	-1.08
OJS	20	67.96	13.12	.90	40-93	20-100	.02	-1.10
OJ-D	5	16.69	3.95	.76	8-23	5-25	-.45	-.91
OJ-P	6	19.63	4.12	.64	10-28	6-30	.22	-.29
OJ-I	9	31.64	6.54	.85	16-42	9-45	-.07	-.90
CCWB	35	87.09	14.08	.86	40-114	35-175	-.64	1.40

Note. k = no. of items; Skew = Skewness; Kurt = Kurtosis, CR = Cognitive Reappraisal Scale; ES = Expressive Suppression Scale; OJS = Organizational Justice Scale; OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution; OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural; OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional; CCWB = Checklist for Counter Productive Work Behaviours.

Table 2 shows alpha reliability of scales and subscales. The alpha coefficient values for all measures range from .64 to .90 indicating acceptable to satisfactory reliability. The table also shows descriptive of measures. The value of mean on each scale represents the participants' average scores. The value of standard deviation indicates that responses are scattered from the mean. The skewness values of all the scales lies between +1 and -1, negative values indicate that lower values are present, tail is towards the left side and distribution lies within normality while the positive values are indicating higher values.

Table 3

Correlation Matrix Among Demographic Variables on Study Variables (N = 301)

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1	CR	-	.79**	.58**	.47**	.49**	.58**	-.37**	.22**	.19**	.29**	.21**	.35*	.38**
2	ES		-	.63**	.57**	.46**	.62**	-.22**	.24**	.36**	.25**	.11	.30**	.44**
3	OJS			-	.89**	.82**	.95**	-.22**	.37**	.04	.36**	-.02	.50*	.17**
4	OJ-D				-	.57**	.82**	-.15**	.25**	.15**	.23**	-.02	.35**	.17**
5	OJ-P					-	.67**	-.20**	.41**	-.03	.32**	.08	.56**	.15*
6	OJ-I						-	-.22**	.34**	.02	.38**	-.08	.44**	.14*
7	CWB							-	.17**	-.05	-.09	-.36**	-.00	-.09
8	Age								-	-.08	.49**	-.17**	.86**	.10
9	Edu									-	-.18**	.39**	-.12*	.57**
10	DFM										-	-.19**	.45**	-.06
11	MFI											-	.05	.49**
12	Ten.												-	.15*
13	JS													-

Note. CR = Cognitive Reappraisal, ES = Expressive Suppression, OJS = Organizational Justice Scale, OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution, OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural, OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional, CWB = Counter Productive Work Behaviour; Edu = Education, DFM = Dependent Family members, MFI = Monthly Family Income, Ten. = Tenure, JS = Job Scale.

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

Table 3 shows that organizational justice (along with its subscales) and emotional regulation strategies (both cognitive reappraisal and emotional suppression) are negatively related with CWBs. Results also reveal that all types of organizational justice are positively linked with emotional regulation strategies. Age is positively related with CWBs while monthly family income appears to be negatively related with CWBs. The subscales of emotional regulation and organizational justice are positively linked with each other showing an evidence of construct validity of the measures. Relationship of other demographic variables with CWBs is non-significant.

Table 4

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for Predictors of Counterproductive Work Behavior Among Study Variables (N = 301)

		CWB		
		Model 2		
Predictors		95%CI		
	Model 1β	β	LL	UL
Constant			86.59	107.54
Age	.17***	.30	.39***	.84
Gender	.07	.00	-3.27	3.40
CR		-.13	-.94***	.04
ES		-.13	-.74	.15
OJ-D		-.47	-1.91	-.87
OJ-P		.19	.01	1.61
OJ-I		.06	-.41	.90
R^2	.03	.23		
ΔR^2	.03	.19		
F	4.92	12.55		
ΔF	4.92	15.14		

Note. CR = Cognitive Reappraisal, ES = Expressive Suppression, OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution, OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural, OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional.

Table 4 presents a predictability of demographic factors along with the study variables. Thus, in light of the literature multiple linear regression analysis is

conducted. Results indicate that age is positively predicting while cognitive reappraisal is negatively predicting CWB.

Table 5

Gender Differences on Study Variables (N = 301)

| Variables | Women (n = 103) | | Men (n = 198) | | | | 95%CI | | Cohen's |
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p	LL	UL	d
CR	18.77	5.26	19.55	4.56	1.28	.20	-0.42	1.99	-
ES	13.65	3.01	12.93	3.39	-1.89	.06	-1.47	0.03	-
OJS	67.32	11.79	68.29	13.78	0.64	.52	-2.02	3.96	-
OJ-D	17.41	3.54	16.31	4.11	-2.41	.02	-1.99	-0.19	0.28
OJ-P	18.6	3.17	20.17	4.44	3.52	.00	0.69	2.44	0.40
OJ-I	31.31	6.34	31.81	6.65	0.62	.53	-1.07	2.06	-
CWB	87.79	10.86	86.73	15.5	-0.69	.49	-4.09	1.96	-

Note. M = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation; *CI* = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; CR = Cognitive Reappraisal, ES = Expressive Suppression, OJS = Organizational Justice Scale, OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution, OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural, OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional, CWB = Counter Productive Work Behaviour.

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

The results in Table 5 shows significant differences on distributive justice and procedural justice. Men report less distributive justice while women report significantly less procedural justice as compared to their counterparts. There are non-significant gender differences on other study variables.

To check the impact of marital status on study variables, Independent sample *t*-test was carried out. Findings in Table 6 indicate married participants are perceiving significantly high organizational justice as compared to their counterparts. Differences on CWBs and emotional regulation are non-significant.

Table 6

Mean Difference Along Marital Status on Study Variables (N = 301)

	Unmarried (*n* = 113)		Married (*n* = 188)				95%CI		
Variables	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*P*	*LL*	*UL*	Cohen's *d*
CR	19.33	4.63	19.26	4.94	0.13	.90	-1.06	1.2	-
ES	12.7	3.43	13.46	3.16	-1.93	.05	-1.54	0.02	0.23
OJS	65	12.23	69.73	13.34	-3.14	.00	-7.7	-1.77	0.36
OJ-D	16.04	4.29	17.08	3.69	-2.15	.03	-2.00	-0.09	0.25
OJ-P	18.68	3.47	20.2	4.37	-3.33	.00	-2.42	-0.62	0.38
OJ-I	30.28	6.36	32.45	6.53	-2.82	.01	-3.68	-0.65	0.33
CWB	88.05	12.39	86.52	15.00	0.96	.34	-1.62	4.68	-

Note. ; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation; *CI* = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; CR = Cognitive Reappraisal, ES = Expressive Suppression, OJS = Organizational Justice Scale, OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution, OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural, OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional., CWB = Counter Productive Work Behaviour.

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

To check the impact of part time job among the groups that are involved or not involved on study variables, Independent sample *t*-test was carried out. Findings indicate significant differences on the study variables. Findings in Table 7 show that the group involved in any other part time job is significantly reporting high involvement in CWBs as compared to the other group. The results also show that the group involved in part-time jobs is perceiving less justice and using less emotional strategies as compared to their counterparts.

Table 7

Difference on Study Variable Across Groups Involved or Not Involved in Part Time Job (N = 301)

Variables	Yes (n = 36)		No (n = 265)		t	P	95%CI		Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			LL	UL	
CR	16.08	3.43	19.72	4.82	4.37	.00	2.00	5.27	.87
ES	10.97	3.11	13.48	3.19	4.43	.00	1.39	3.62	.80
OJS	61.44	8.06	68.84	13.43	3.22	.00	2.88	11.91	.67
OJ-D	15.03	3.42	16.91	3.97	2.71	.00	.52	3.25	.51
OJ-P	18.31	2.65	19.81	4.25	2.07	.03	.08	2.93	.42
OJ-I	28.11	3.29	32.12	6.72	3.51	.00	1.76	6.25	.76
CWB	91.22	12.01	86.53	14.26	-1.88	.06	-9.59	.22	.36

Note. ; *M* = Mean; *SD* = Standard Deviation; *CI* = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; CR = Cognitive Reappraisal, ES = Expressive Suppression, OJS = Organizational Justice Scale, OJ-D = Organizational Justice Distribution, OJ-P = Organizational Justice Procedural, OJ-I = Organizational Justice Interactional., CWB = Counter Productive Work Behaviour.

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

Discussion

The study aimed at examining the relationship of organizational justice and emotional regulation with counterproductive work behaviors in the public sector organizations. For this purpose three scales, Checklist for Counterproductive Work Behaviours (Rasool, 2019), Urdu Version of Organizational Justice Scale (Rasool, 2019) and Urdu version of Emotional Regulation Questionnaire (Butt, Malik, & Kaleem, 2012) were used. A sample of 301 public sector employees was used in this study. Reliability estimates on all scales were satisfactory.

For the first hypothesis, it was assumed that perceived organizational justice will be negatively related with counterproductive work behaviors (CWBs) among public sector employees. The results showed that organizational justice along with all its types were significantly and negatively related with CWBs supporting this hypothesis (see Table 3). This finding is consistent with previous literature, where it perceived organizational justice was found to be negatively related, over and over again, with the CWBs (Chernyak-Hai et al., 2014; Devonish et al., 2010; Dalal, 2005; Fox et al., 2001). Researchers have discovered that perceived organizational justice has been shown to influence task performance, negative and positive employee behaviors at work (Fox et al., 2001) and perceived injustice as a major stressor for the employees. Hence, Spector and Fox's (2005) model gets support by the present findings.

For the second hypothesis, it was assumed that high levels of cognitive reappraisal, an emotional regulation strategy, will negatively relate with CWBs. Based on the previous research it was assumed that emotional suppression, an emotional regulation strategy, will be positively related with CWBs. The results of the study supported both of these hypotheses and are in line with previous findings which suggest that different strategies of emotion regulation have different kind of effect on CWB. In cognitive reappraisal strategy, the negative events are reinterpreted which lessens negative emotions and ultimately it leads to positive work behaviours instead of CWBs. whereas in emotional suppression strategy, negative emotional expressions are inhibited. Cognitive reappraisal won't be related to CWB and the other strategy of

emotion suppression has a positive effect on the CWB (Matta et al., 2014). The results suggest that possible mediating role of emotion regulation strategies need to be explore by future researchers.

For the fourth hypothesis, it was assumed that education will be negative related to CWB. The results of the study supported this hypothesis (see Table 3). Previous study also support it, highly educated workers appear to engage in fewer CWBs like workplace aggression, workplace substance use, and absenteeism (NG & Feldman, 2009).

To check the mean differences between gender differences on CWB, perceived organizational justice and emotion regulation, t-test was applied (see Table 5). The results showed significant differences on distributive justice and procedural justice. Men reported less distributive justice as compared to women while women reported significantly less procedural justice as compared to their counterparts.

On CWBs, non-significant gender differences have been found. The literature found on this shows mixed findings regarding gender differences on CWBs. Davilla et al., (2011) found that women exhibit more CWB than men as women are expected to be kind, supported and to be interested in the well-being of others when compare to men. While other studies have found that men tend to report doing more CWB than women (Berry et al., 2007; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Spector & Zhou, 2013). However, Spector and Zhou (2013) argue that this difference is tend to be very low and men are not automatically prone to CWB, in other words gender did not have a significant influence on the exhibition of CWB.

Similarly mean differences on marital status was also calculated. Results showed that there was no difference between married and non-married employees in CWB, as it has been proven from the previous research as well (Uche et al., 2017). However, unmarried employees perceived less organizational justice as compared to their married counterparts. The reasons could be that they have more responsibilities and because of that they are looking for security of the job.

Job tenure appeared to be significantly positively related with organizational justice. These results could be because employees who perceive organizational justice stay long in the organization and they start owning the organization as compared to

employees with short tenure. (NG & Feldman, 2008). Another important finding of the present study was differences between employees who were or weren't involved in any part-time job. Employees who were doing any other part-time job significantly perceived low organizational justice as compared their counterparts.

Limitations and Suggestion

Keeping in mind the whole study, few limitations and suggestions are as follows

1. This study has only included public sector employees. For future studies it is suggested that both private and public sector employees should be included to see the difference among both sectors as it is considered that counterproductive work behaviors occur less in private sector.
2. All the constructs used were assessed via self-reported measures. Using self-reported measure increases the chance of biasness. So, it is recommended that counterproductive work behaviors should also be assessed by others rater version. To overcome any chances of biasness.

Implications of the study

This research was focused on exploring the role of perceived organizational justice and emotion regulation in counterproductive work behaviors among the public sector employees. In essence, notwithstanding the limitations of the study, this research would prove immensely beneficial in public sector organizations. CWB is one of the major problems faced by the public sector organizations in recent. This study helps in understanding the role of organizational justice and emotion regulation among the employees and how in return it affects the productivity and enforce them for the counterproductive work behaviors. This study will hold a particular significance for the psychological researchers who aim to study the dynamics of the relationship of these variables in organizational set ups.

In terms of practical implications, the direct effects of justice on all performance outcomes must not go unnoticed. Managers must ensure that the procedures and interactions involved in various systems of organizational governance including human resource management practices and industrial relations systems are applied in a fair and unbiased manner, and that the outcomes distributed from these systems are perceived in a similar light. Employees who are treated fairly and

equitably in the organization are more likely to engage in positive job behaviors which benefit the organization, and less likely to engage in negative job behaviors which harm the organization and its members.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the role of organizational justice and emotion regulation which cause the counterproductive work behaviors among the public sector employees. Results of the research revealed that the organizational justice and emotion regulation both play an important role in the counterproductive work behaviors.

There is a need for further investigation with regard to the present study variables and other related variables of interest. Possible mediating role of emotion regulation strategies need to be further explored by future researchers.

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اجازت نامہ

میں قومی ادارہ نفسیات، قائداعظم یونیورسٹی اسلام آباد، میں ایم ایس سی کا طالب علم ہوں، اور اس سلسلے میں ایک تحقیق کررہا ہوں۔ ہر ادارے میں ملازمین مثبت اور منفی دونوں طرح کے رویے اختیار کرتے ہیں۔ جس کی بہت سی وجوہات ہیں۔ میری تحقیق کا مقصد پاکستان کے مختلف اداروں میں ملازمین کے منفی رویوں کی ان بات کے بارے میں جاننا ہے۔ اس سلسلے میں آپ کا تعاون درکار ہے۔

اگر آپ اس ریسرچ میں حصہ لینے کا فیصلہ کرتے ہیں تو آپ کو یہ سوالنامہ دیا جائے گا جسکو آپ اپنا نام مصفہ راز میں رکھتے ہوئے مکمل کرسکتے ہیں۔ اس سوالنامے کو مکمل کرنے میں تقریباً 15-20 منٹ لگ سکتے ہیں۔ آپ سے درخواست ہے کہ سوالنامے میں دی گئی ہدایات کو غور سے پڑھیں اور ان کی روشنی میں جوابات دیں۔ سوالنامے میں درج بیانات سے متعلق صحیح اور غلط کوکوئی تصور نہیں ہے۔ اپنی رائے کا اظہار اپنے ذاتی تجربات کی روشنی میں کریں۔ برائے مہربانی کوئی بھی بیان خالی نہ چھوڑیں اور تمام بیانات سے متعلق اپنی رائے کا اظہار کریں۔

آپ کو یقین دلایا جاتا ہے کہ آپ کی رائے کو صفر راز میں رکھا جائے گا اور صرف تحقیقی مقاصد کے لیے استعمال کیا جائے گا۔ آپ کو یہ حق حاصل ہوگا کہ کسی بھی وقت آپ یہ ریسرچ چھوڑ کر جاسکتے ہیں، اگر آپ کا کوئی بھی سوال ہے تو آپ tariqgurchani@gmail.com پر رابطہ کرسکتے ہیں۔ برائے مہربانی اپنی رضامندی ظاہر کرنے کے لیے نیچے دستخط کیجے۔

آپ کے وقت اور تعاون کا شکریہ۔

دستخط: ------------------------

تاریخ: ------------------------

کوائف نامہ

عمر: ------------------------------ سال
جنس: مرد ------------------------ عورت --------------------------
تعلیم: ------------------------------ سال
ازدواجی حیثیت: شادی شدہ -------------------------- غیر شادی شدہ --------------------------
خاندانی نظام: انفرادی -------------------------- اجتماعی --------------------------
افراد خانہ کی تعداد: --------------------------
آپ پر منحصر افراد خانہ کی تعداد: --------------------------
آپ کی ماہانہ آمدن: --------------------------
مجموعی خاندانی ماہانہ آمدن: --------------------------
اس ادارے میں ملازمت کا دورانیہ: --------------------------
ملازمت کا سکیل: --------------------------
کام کے اوقات: --------------------------
کیا آپ کوئی پارٹ ٹائم نوکری بھی کرتے ہیں: ہاں -------------------------- نہیں --------------------------

Organizational Justice Scale

ہدایات: یہ سوالنامہ آپ کی جاب سے متعلق آپ کے احساسات کی تر جمانی کرتا ہے۔ آپ کی نظر میں آپ کی جاب/ادارے میں کس حد تک منصفانہ طریقہ کار اپنایا جاتا ہے اپنے خیالات کا اظہار مندرجہ ذیل دیے گئے اختیارات/جوابات (Options) کے ذریعے کیجیے۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بالکل غیر منصف	غیر منصف	غیر جانبدار	منصف	بالکل منصف
1	میرے کام کا شیڈول منصفانہ ہے۔					
2	میرے خیال میں میری تنخواہ (کام کے حساب سے) منصفانہ ہے۔					
3	میرے نزدیک میرے کام کا بوجھ بالکل منصفانہ ہے۔					
4	مجموعی طور پر مجھے یہاں سے بالکل منصفانہ صلہ (تنخواہ/مراعات) ملتا ہے۔					
5	مجھے محسوس ہوتا ہے کہ میری جاب کی ذمہ داریاں منصفانہ ہیں۔					
6	باس کی طرف سے جاب سے متعلق فیصلے غیر منصفانہ/جانبدارانہ انداز میں کیے جاتے ہیں۔					
7	میرا باس اس بات کا یقین دہانی کرتا ہے کہ جاب سے متعلق فیصلہ کرنے سے پہلے تمام ملازمین کے تحفظات سن لیے جائیں۔					
8	جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرنے کے لیے میرا باس مکمل اور درست معلومات اکٹھی کرتا ہے۔					
9	میرا باس ملازمین کی درخواست پر فیصلوں کی وضاحت اور اضافی معلومات فراہم کرتا ہے۔					
10	جاب سے متعلق تمام فیصلوں کا مسلسل اطلاق تمام متاثرہ ملازمین پر ہوتا ہے۔					
11	ملازمین کو اجازت ہے کہ وہ باس کے کیے گئے فیصلوں کے خلاف اپیل یا چیلنج کریں۔					
12	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس اخلاق و کردار میں رحم دلی سے پیش آتا ہے۔					
13	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس مجھ سے عزت اور وقار سے پیش آتا ہے۔					
14	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس میری ذاتی ضروریات کے بارے میں حساس ہوتا ہے۔					
15	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس میرے ساتھ ایمانداری سے پیش آتا ہے۔					
16	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس ادارے کے ملازم کے طور پر میرے حقوق کا خیال رکھتا ہے۔					
17	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس ان فیصلوں کے نتائج و اثرات کے بارے میں بات چیت/بحث کرتا ہے۔					
18	میری جاب سے متعلق لیے گئے فیصلوں کے متعلق میرا باس مناسب جواز/وضاحت پیش کرتا ہے۔					
19	میری جاب سے متعلق فیصلے کرتے وقت میرا باس معقول اور کمزور میرے آنے والی وضاحت پیش کرتا ہے۔					
20	میرا باس میری جاب سے متعلق کیے گئے کسی بھی فیصلے کی بہتر انداز میں وضاحت کرتا ہے۔					

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

ہدایت: ہم آپ سے آپ کی جذباتی زندگی کے بارے میں کچھ سوالات پوچھنا چاہیں گے۔ خصوصاً کس طرح آپ اپنے جذبات قابو پاتے ہیں (جو یہ ہے درست رکھنا اور ضبط)۔ مندرجہ ذیل سوالات آپ کی جذباتی زندگی کے دو مختلف پہلوؤں کے بارے میں ہیں۔ ایک پہلو آپ کے جذباتی تجربہ یا آپ کیا محسوس کرتے ہیں۔ کے بارے میں ہے۔ دوسرا آپ کے جذباتی اظہار کے بارے میں ہے۔ یا آپ کس طرح اپنے جذبات کا اظہار کرتے ہیں۔ بات کرنے کے اشارے یا بدترتا کے انداز میں۔ اگر چہ درج ذیل میں سے کچھ سوالات ایک جیسے لگ سکتے ہیں۔ وہ اہم طریقوں سے مختلف ہیں۔ مہربان کے لیے برائے مہربانی مندرجہ ذیل پیمانہ استعمال کرتے ہوئے جواب دیں۔

انتہائی غیر متفق	غیر متفق	غیر جانبدار	متفق	انتہائی متفق	بیانات	نمبر شمار
					جب میں زیادہ مثبت جذبات محسوس کرنا چاہوں جیسا کہ (خوشی یا لطف) تو میں جس بارے میں سوچ رہا / رہی ہوں اسے بدل لیتا / لیتی ہوں۔	1
					میں اپنے جذبات اپنے تک رکھتا / رکھتی ہوں۔	2
					جب میں کم منفی جذبات محسوس کرنا چاہوں (جیسا کہ اداسی یا غصہ) تو میں جس بارے میں سوچ رہا / رہی ہوں اسے تبدیل کر لیتا / لیتی ہوں۔	3
					جب میں مثبت جذبات محسوس کر رہا / رہی ہوں، میں احتیاط ہوتا ہوں کہ ان کا اظہار نہ کروں۔	4
					جب مجھے کسی دباؤ والی صورت حال کا سامنا ہو میں اس بارے میں اسی طرح سوچتا / سوچتی ہوں جس سے مجھے پر سکون رہنے میں مدد ملے۔	5
					میں اپنے جذبات کا اظہار نہ کرکے ان کو قابو میں رکھتا / رکھتی ہوں۔	6
					جب میں زیادہ مثبت جذبات محسوس کرنا چاہوں تو میں صورتحال کے بارے میں جس طرح سوچ رہا / رہی ہوں اسے تبدیل کر لیتا / لیتی ہوں۔	7
					میں جس صورتحال میں ہوں اس کے بارے میں اپنے سوچنے کا انداز تبدیل کر کے اپنے جذبات کو قابو میں کرتا / کرتی ہوں۔	8
					جب میں منفی جذبات محسوس کر رہا / رہی ہوں تو میں احتیاط کرتی ہوں تاکہ / یقینی ہوں کہ ان کا اظہار نہ کروں۔	9
					جب میں کم منفی جذبات محسوس کرنا چاہوں تو میں اس صورتحال کے بارے میں سوچنے کا طریقہ بدل دیتا / دیتی ہوں۔	10

Checklist of Counterproductive Work Behaviour

ہدایات: آپ نے مندرجہ ذیل افعال، اپنی حالیہ ملازمت پر کتنی دفعہ انجام دیئے۔

کبھی نہیں	شاذ و نادر	بعض اوقات	زیادہ تر	ہمیشہ	بیانات	نمبر شمار
					جان بوجھ کر اپنا کام غلط طریقے سے انجام دیا۔	1
					جان بوجھ کر اپنا کام سست روی سے انجام دیا۔	2
					جان بوجھ کر روی کی ہدایات پر عمل پیرا نہیں ہوئے۔	3
					جان بوجھ کر کام پر تاخیرے سے پہنچے۔	4
					جان بوجھ کر کام سے جلدی اُٹھ گئے۔	5
					دیئے گئے دورانیہ سے طویل وقفہ کیا۔	6
					بیماری کا بہانہ بنا کر کام پر نہیں آئے۔	7
					جان بوجھ کر طے شدہ ملاقات پر تاخیرے سے پہنچے۔	8
					فارغ رہتے ہوئے مصروف دکھائی دینے کی کوشش کی۔	9
					اپنا کام کرنے کے بجائے غیر ضروری کاموں میں وقت ضائع کیا۔	10
					دوسرے ملازمین کی ویکھا دیکھی کام کرنے کے بجائے وقت ضائع کیا۔	11
					کام نہ کرنے کے لیے جان بوجھ کر غیر ضروری / نامناسب بہانے بنائے۔	12
					دفتر کے ساز و سامان کو نقصان پہنچایا۔	13
					دفتری مشینری کو نقصان پہنچایا۔	14
					اپنے کام کرنے کی جگہ پر گندگی پھیلائی۔	15
					آفس کے سامان کو بااجازت اپنے ذاتی استعمال میں لائے۔	16
					کسی اور سے کوئی چیز کچھ چرا لیا۔	17
					آفس کے آلات / مشینری کی خرابی کی اطلاع جان بوجھ کر دیر سے دی تا کہ دوسری یہ خراب ہو جائے۔	18
					اپنے ساتھ کے ملازمین کے کام میں دشواری / رکاوٹ ڈالی۔	19
					اپنے ساتھ کے ملازمین کے کام میں مشکل کے وقت مدد نہ کی۔	20
					کسی صارف (customer) سے غلط کے طور پر کوئی چیز کی ہو۔	21
					غلط کے طور پر غلطی پر کے باعث کو ادارہ میں فرق پڑا۔	22
					صارفین سے اثر و رسوخ کی وجہ ان کو کام پر کتنی بار دوں پر کیا۔	23
					صارفین کے اثر و رسوخ کی وجہ ان کے ساتھ دوسرے فرق پڑا۔	24
					صارفین کے اثر و رسوخ نہ ہونے کی وجہ ان کے کام میں رکاوٹ ڈالی۔	25
					ادارے میں ملازمین کو کام دلانے (جبری) (job hiring) (جبری) (promotion) سے متعلق جانب داری (favoritism) سے ایسا کیے۔	26
					ادارے میں ملازمین کی بھرتی (job hiring) کے وقت اہلیت اور قابلیت کو اہمیت نہیں دی۔	27
					ادارے میں بھرتی (job hiring) کے وقت اثر و رسوخ کو اہمیت نہیں دی۔	28
					ادارے کے دوران ترقی (promotion) کے وقت اہلیت اثر و رسوخ اور قابلیت پر نہیں دی۔	29

Frequencies and Percentage of Counterproductive Work Behaviours Reported by

Employees

S. no	Statement	Always F(%)	Frequently F(%)	Sometimes F(%)	Rarely F(%)	Never F(%)
1	Deliberately performing one's work incorrectly.	16 (5.3)	28 (9.3)	102 (33.9)	119 (39.5)	36 (12)
2	Deliberately performing your work lazily.	5 (1.7)	14 (4.7)	95 (31.6)	153 (50.8)	34 (11.3)
3	Deliberately not following the given instructions.	6 (2)	26 (8.6)	93 (30.9)	145 (48.2)	31 (10.3)
4	Deliberately showing upto work, late.	11 (3.7)	24 (8)	119 (39.5)	112 (37.2)	35 (11.6)
5	Deliberately leaving work early.	10 (3.3)	14 (4.7)	88 (29.2)	145 (48.2)	44 (14.6)
6	Extending the given break time.	17 (5.6)	33 (11)	125 (41.5)	106 (35.2)	20 (6.6)
7	Using illness as an excuse to not go to work.	22 (7.3)	23 (7.6)	90 (29.9)	123 (40.9)	43 (14.3)
8	Deliberately arriving late at scheduled meeting.	15 (3.1)	20 (6.6)	106 (35.2)	119 (39.5)	56 (18.6)
9	Trying to look busy while not doing anything.	8 (2.7)	17 (5.6)	101 (33.6)	147 (48.8)	28 (9.3)
10	Wasting time in doing useless things instead of doing work.	13 (4.3)	21 (7)	131 (43.5)	104 (34.6)	32 (10.6)
11	Wasting time instead of doing work like other employees.	21 (7)	38 (12.6)	75 (24.9)	46 (48.5)	21 (7)
12	Deliberately making useless and unsuitable excuses to not do work.	9 (3)	41 (13.6)	82 (27.2)	134 (44.5)	35 (11.6)
13	Damaging office equipment	12 (4)	25 (8.3)	99 (32.9)	128 (42.5)	37 (12.3)