ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE: ANTECEDENTS AND IMPACT ON KNOWLEDGE SHARING BEHAVIOUR

Ph.D THESIS

by

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CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

I hereby certify that the work which is being presented in the thesis entitled "**ORGANIZATIONAL JUSTICE: ANTECEDENTS AND IMPACT ON KNOWLEDGE SHARING BEHAVIOUR**", in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy and submitted in the Department of Management Studies of the Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee is an authentic record of my own work carried out during a period from January, 2013 to April, 2016 under the supervision of Dr. M.K. Rao, Assistant Professor, Department of Management Studies, Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee, Roorkee

The matter presented in the thesis has not been submitted by me for the award of any other degree of this or any other Institute.

(Vandana Tamta)

This is to certify that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of my (our) knowledge

(M.K. Rao)
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The Ph. D. Viva-Voce Examination of Ms. Vandana Tamta, Research Scholar, has been held on…………………

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ABSTRACT

In today's competitive business arena, organizations are striving for sustainability and competitive advantage. It is argued that the sustainability and competitive advantage of organizations are mainly dependent on the knowledge, skills and competencies of human resources. Human resources are considered as one of the crucial strategic assets of the organization, and if they are happy and contended the probability of survival and success increases tremendously. In this context, justice or fairness is one of the important factors which can help organizations in gaining the sustainable competitive advantage and organizational effectiveness. Thus, it is worthy to investigate the antecedents of justice perceptions within an organizational setting. Organizational justice has garnered substantial research attention over the past five decades. Most of this attention, however, has focussed on investigating the relationship between organizational justice and outcome variables, such as work attitudes and behaviours. The inquiry on the antecedents of organizational justice has not been fully explored in the extant literature. Moreover, most of the prior research on fairness perceptions has been performed in western countries. The amount of studies available from non- western settings is limited. The current study investigates antecedents (personal and contextual) of organizational justice and its subsequent impact on knowledge sharing (KS) behaviour in an Asian context, using a sample of managers (junior and middle-level managers) from public sector banks of India. This research also examines the mediating effects of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and work engagement in predicting KS behaviour. Data were collected using 380 structured questionnaires from a sample of managers, which were administered via a field based survey in public sector banks operating in the northern region part of India. Convenience- based sampling method was used to select respondents. Data were analysed employing the structural equation modeling (SEM) technique. The mediating effects of organizational justice perceptions and work engagement were examined by using SPSS macro, i.e., PROCESS. The results offer empirical evidence of the significant influence of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence (EI), and psychological contract (PC) fulfillment on all the three dimensions of organizational justice. The result also exhibits that perceptions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) positively predict KS behaviour. Further, the results indicate the role of organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) as partial mediators between ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour. The results further reveal that work engagement act as a partial mediator between all the three dimensions of organizational justice and knowledge sharing behaviour. Additionally, the

current study reveals some other interesting findings. The results revealed that emotional intelligence plays a vital role in predicting distributive justice than PC fulfillment and ethical leadership. In the case of procedural justice, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment are the main predictors. Next, emotional intelligence and ethical leadership are the major facilitators of interactional justice. In the case of predicting KS behaviour, distributive and procedural take precedence over interactional justice. Overall, the current study offers a comprehensive framework that assimilates organizational justice with personal and contextual antecedents, and KS behaviour as an individual outcome in the context of Indian public sector banks. Further, implications both theoretical and practical are discussed, and future research directions are recommended.

Keywords: Organizational justice, ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, psychological contract fulfillment, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, knowledge sharing behaviour, work engagement, public sector banks, India

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

S.No.	Abbreviation	Full Form
1	PC	Psychological contract
2	KS	Knowledge sharing
3	KM	Knowledge management
4	PSUs	Public sector units
5	SET	Social exchange theory
6	OCB	Organizational citizenship behaviour
7	SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
8	AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
9	EFA	Exploratory factor Analysis
10	SD	Standard deviation
11	CMB	Common method bias
12	CFA	Confirmatory Factor analysis
13	SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

In today's competitive business arena, organizations are striving for sustainability and competitive advantage. It is generally believed that the sustainability or viability of an organization depends on the skills, knowledge and competencies of its workforce or human resources (Kanter, 1983). Human resources are considered as crucial strategic assets of nations and organizations (Pfeffer & Veiga, 1999), and if they are satisfied and happy, the probability of survival and success of organization increases enormously. In a like vein, Acquaah and Tukamushaba (2015) advocated that the effectiveness of the organizations in today's competitive environment depends on the capabilities of employees' to create competitive advantage. They further validated that the capabilities of employees can be improved by enhancing the perceptions of fairness. Fairness or justice is of utmost significance to employees in organizations (Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel & Rupp, 2001). Administration of justice is one of the basic and intrinsic needs of human. Employees expect fair treatment from their employer in exchange for the services they offer to the organization. Thus, employees nowadays are seeking for those organizations which can provide them a fair atmosphere where they feel valued, respected and embraced (Suliman & Kathairi, 2013). Providing support and treating employees fairly is crucial because it affects their future attitudes and behaviours, and subsequently the organization's success and effectiveness (Coetzee, 2005; Rani, Kumar, Rao, Rastogi & Garg, 2012). Moreover, to develop an understanding of organizational behaviour (how people behave in an organization) it is important to know or understand how individuals make judgments about fairness and how they react to injustice in their organizations (Maleki & Taheri, 2012). Greenberg (1990a: 399) posits that fairness is a basic prerequisite for the effective functioning of organizations. Seyyed Javadin, Farahi and Taheri Atar (2008) stated that the main focus of organizations should be in creating and maintaining a sense of fairness among employees as it is a key element in sustaining the development of the organization and its employees. Moreover, it is witnessed that employees will act according to the rules and regulations of the organizations if they are treated justly (Tsai & Cheng, 2012). Therefore, organizations should create an atmosphere which is fair in terms of distributing outcomes and resources, processes used to decide those outcomes and interpersonal treatment given to the employees by organizational decision- makers, as this practice is advantageous for both individuals and organizations. Therefore, organizations should find out the ways or approaches

of enhancing fairness perceptions of employees because it is generally believed that sustaining justice in organizations can lead to favourable organizational outcomes, such as innovation, organizational effectiveness and firm performance (Acquaah & Tukamushaba, 2015; Mahajan & Benson, 2013; Suliman, 2013).

Since 1990 organizational justice has become one of the popular research topics of organizational behaviour (Fortin, 2008). The concepts of justice, fairness and ethics have become important topics of discussion for management because of the evolving nature of employment contracts and alterations in work arrangements (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). Individuals' perceptions of fairness and their responses to fairness have been investigated exhaustively under the caption of organizational justice (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). The notion of justice has solicited the enormous attention of scholars in the area of psychology, law, economics and organizational sciences (Dulebohn, Conlon, Sarinopoulos, Davidson & McNamara, 2009), as it underlies much of the behaviour in the workplace (Greenberg, 2011). The notion of justice or fairness (used interchangeably) (Miller, Konopaske & Byrne, 2012) is an imperative issue for managers and employees alike because when it exists, it can "bind together conflicting parties and build stable social structures" (Konovsky, 2000, p. 489) whereas injustice can pull them apart (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, p.12). Justice has been acknowledged significant for organizations, society and individuals (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998), particularly in respect of developing nations where challenges like social, political and economic are mostly found prevalent, injustice, therefore, can hasten the happening of disastrous outcomes in the organization (Shan, Ishaq & Shaheen, 2015).

The current academic literature has seen an enormous amount of reviews and inquiry on organizational justice (Chang & Dubinsky, 2005; Colquitt, Scott, Rodell, Long, Zapata, Conlon & Wesson, 2013) due to its impending impact on various attitudinal and behavioral responses of individuals in organizations (Cole, Bernerth, Walter & Holt, 2010; Colquitt et al., 2013) in the past five decades. Moreover, a considerable amount of scholarly submissions have demonstrated that "people's perceptions of fairness in organizations, along with their associated behavioural, cognitive, and emotional reactions" (Greenberg, 2011, p. 271) are linked to innumerable outcomes in different contexts (e.g. Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001). Knowing the array of outcomes justice influences and its evolving popularity in several domains, the fact "people care about fairness is unquestionable" (Greenberg, 2011, p. 313). Further, researchers have suggested that studying organizational justice is an important endeavour as justice is a social phenomenon and encompasses aspects of social or

organizational life (Jafari & Bidarian, 2012). Suliman and Kathairi (2013) and Suliman (2007) have also emphasised upon exploring this soft issue of the organizations in the context of emerging economies.

Organizational justice refers to the subjective appraisals of the moral appropriateness of managerial conduct (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland, 2007). Basically, it refers to employees' perceptions of fairness in the work settings (Moorman, 1991). Scholars have acknowledged that organizational justice is a multifaceted construct comprises of three components: distributive, procedural and interactional justice (Colquitt, Greenberg & Zapata- Phelan, 2005). The three components of organizational justice have garnered the much empirical attention of researchers and practitioners alike (Cohen- Charash & Spector, 2001; Erdogan, 2002). However, earlier research on organizational justice has focused on distributive justice, emphasizing the perceived fairness of outcomes (Adams, 1965; Crosby, 1976; Deutsch, 1975). Afterward, research was extended to procedural justice, which includes fairness of the decision-making processes (Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Later, scholars have recognized the presence of interactional justice as the third aspect of justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Tyler & Bies, 1990) addressing the quality of interpersonal treatment an individual gets from organizational authorities during the enactment of procedures. The current study will use tripartite (three-factor) model of justice perceptions.

Organizational justice has become an issue of immense interest in the rapidly changing life (Colquitt et al., 200; Konovsky, 2000). Therefore, one of the key questions for organizational scholars is "What affects perceptions of fairness?" (Colquitt et al., 2001; Colquitt et al., 2005 Cropanzano et al., 2001). Moreover, several scholars in the domain of organizational justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Choudhary, Deswal & Philip, 2013; Moghimi, Kazemi & Samiie, 2013; Rai, 2013; Taneja, Srivastava & Ravichandran, 2015; Thurston & Mcnall, 2010) have called for more inquiry into the antecedents of organizational justice. Though past research has demonstrated some of the antecedents of organizational fairness perceptions encompassing individual and contextual factors. For instance, Rai (2013) examined centralization, formalization, communication, and leader–member exchange as precursors of organizational justice. It was theorized that the exchange between centralization and formalization and the justice dimensions will be dominated by rationality and supplemented by reciprocity. Further, Zhang and Agarwal (2009) examined HR practices, such as communication, psychological contract, and empowerment as determinants of justice perceptions (distributive and procedural) in Chinese organizations. Suprisingly, despite the

scholarly submissions on the antecedents of organizational justice, few studies have devoted attention to leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment as some of the robust personal and contextual antecedents of organizational justice perceptions. Moreover, extant literature has indicated that there is a scarcity of research on an integrative framework of organizational justice, which includes different predictors (personal and contextual) of justice perceptions. Thus, this research takes into account leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment as potential determinants of fairness perceptions in a banking context.

Leadership has always been one of the crucial social- contextual factors in organizations influencing employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses. House and Javidan (2004) and Yukl (2006) posit that leader plays a significant role in influencing employees' conduct immensely at all the levels of organizations to achieve organizational goals. Leaders are the one who represents the organization in front of their employees. They play an important role in implementing organizational practices and policies which affects employees' fairness perceptions and subsequently their attitudinal and behavioural responses. Van knippenberg, De cremer and Van knippenberg (2007) posited that scholarly submissions on the effectiveness of leadership have paid minimal attention to the role of justice perceptions than probably it should have. Leadership plays a vital role in bringing changes for effective management in public sector organizations (Kim, 2013). However, the extant literature reveals that few studies have been conducted on leadership within public sector organizations, particularly in Asian settings (Andersen, 2009; Currie, Lockett & Suhomlinova, 2009; Fernandez, Cho & Perry, 2010; Van Wart, 2003, 2005).

Leaders adopt different styles of leadership that has varied impact on employees' behaviour at the workplace. One of the leadership styles that have garnered the attention of various scholars and practitioners in recent times is ethical leadership. Ethical leadership style has gained enormous importance because of the scandals happened in the corporate world that resulted in the downfall of various big corporate bodies. Toor and Ofori (2009) mentioned that leaders who lack ethical conduct can be damaging to the workplace and impact the social fiber of the organization. Prior research has shown that one of the reasons behind the scandals is the unethical behaviour of leaders within organizations. The prevailing uncertainty and growing corporate scandals in the current business environment make the need of ethical leader's imperative in every organization.

Further, personal or individual factors also play a pivotal role in affecting fairness perceptions of employees. Emotional intelligence (EI) is one such individual characteristic which can affect

fairness perceptions of employees. EI is considered as an individual characteristic that can be nurtured through training and development program (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011), whereas personality traits are considered as stable. EI has been presented as a new theory or variable in the research on justice perceptions (Binbin & Jian'an, 2008; Devonish & Greenidgey, 2010; Wang, Cai & Deng, 2010), therefore, requires additional empirical examination (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi 2012; Meisler, 2013). Shi, Lin, Wang and Wang (2009) indicated that the relationship between EI and justice has been examined scarcely in the extant literature. Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012) suggested that studying the linkage between EI and justice perceptions in different organizational contexts would bring fruitful insights, specifically the mediating role of justice perceptions between EI and work-related outcomes (Meisler, 2013). Moreover, past research has indicated that few studies have devoted attention to EI in service sector context (Beigi & Shirmohammadi, 2011).

Another important concept which has gained immense interest of practitioners and researchers alike is psychological contracts. The current ambiguities in the business environment have led a shift in employees' interest from job security within the workplace to employment security in the labour market (which means a shift from the old to the new psychological contracts). Therefore, the psychological contract theory has become one of the important frameworks to comprehend better the exchange association between employer and employees. Despite the emerging interest in the concept of psychological contracts, minimal research has been done in Asian settings, specifically in India (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009; Blancero, DelCampo & Marron, 2007). Moreover, researchers have suggested (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008) that little attention has been given to psychological contract and organizational justice perceptions as distinct concepts of social exchange relationships (SET), particularly the influence of psychological contract on perceptions of fairness. Further, previous research has focused more on the consequences of PC breach than fulfillment (Nelson & Tonks, 2007).

On the other hand, amongst the consequences of organizational justice, this study focuses on the KS behaviour of employees. Growing global competition, fast change of technology and increasing consumer demands have prompted organizations to look for competitive advantage for survival (Black & Synan, 1997; Vijayalakshmi & Natarajan, 2012). Among the various available resources an organization has knowledge is considered as one of the critical resources for success, survival and competitive advantage in today's knowledge-intensive economy (Grant, 1996; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Therefore, knowledge management has become one of the critical activities of organizations. Moreover, among the various processes of KM,

knowledge sharing is the most important one. Knowledge sharing as well as the underlying factors that impact knowledge sharing is an important topic of research for both practitioners and scholars. Thus, it is crucial to find out the factors that foster KS behaviour of individuals (Tangaraja, Ismail & Samah, 2015). For that reason, this study focuses on one of the less explored topics in organizational fairness research, i.e. the effect of fairness perceptions on the KS behaviour of employees (Wang & Noe, 2010). With a greater understanding of the workplace correlates that can impact KS behaviour, organizations can be cognizant of the elements needed in the workplace to invigorate KS behaviour of employees. Moreover, to the finest of the author's knowledge, no research has documented the linkage among the constructs of current research in a single study.

In summation, the current study investigates antecedents of organizational justice and its subsequent impact on KS behaviour within one of the emerging economies of the world, that is, India, and for a section of the workforce, managers that form the basis for an organization's competitive advantage (Alvesson, 1995; Tushman & O' Reilly, 1996). This study provides a holistic view on perceptions of organizational justice by investigating its antecedents (individual and contextual), the mediator (work engagement) and its subsequent impact on individual behaviour in banking context.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Organizational justice has been investigated extensively in human resource management and organizational behaviour research (Zhang & Agarwal, 2009). There are two kinds of scholarly submissions on organizational justice in the extant literature: antecedents and outcomes of organizational justice. However, much of the research work has been conducted on the consequences of organizational justice and minimal consideration has been devoted to the antecedents of justice perceptions (Chaudhary et al. 2013; Moghimi et al., 2013). Thus, an important area of research has been the investigation of organizational justice antecedents (Rai, 2013). Though past studies have explored various antecedents of the organizational justice, including individual factors, such as personality, age, tenure, race and gender (Bye & Sandal, 2015; Lilly & Virick, 2006; Shrivastava &Purang, 2012), socio-contextual factors (e.g., leadership) and contextual factors (organizational structure, policies and support, HR practices) (Lilly & Virick, 2013; Schminke, Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2000; Schminke, Cropanzano & Rupp, 2002; Yue, Foley & Loi, 2006), little research attention has been devoted to ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and psychological contract (PC) fulfillment as some of the antecedents of employees' organizational justice perceptions. This study is an answer to these

voids in the extant literature. Moreover, several researchers have suggested (Demirtas, 2013; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012; Meisler, 2013; Shi et al., 2009) to examine the influence of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment on perceptions of justice. Further, the existing research on these above-mentioned antecedents has been conducted largely in the context of western settings; therefore require more empirical inquiry in Asian settings.

Scholars have differentiated organizational justice into three constituent: distributive, procedural, and interactional (Bobocel & Holm Vail, 2001; Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Greenberg, 1990a). However, most of the previous research has examined only one or two types of organizational justice (e.g. Folger & Konovsky, 1989; McFarlin & Sweeney 1992; Manogran, Stauffer, & Conlon, 1994; Rosen, Harris & Kacmar, 2011), mainly distributive and procedural justice and paid little attention to interactional justice (Cropanzano et al., 2001; Luo, 2007). Moreover, in many cases, interactional justice has been treated as a subcategory of procedural justice in the operationalization (e.g. Moorman, 1991; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Given this, researchers suggest a research approach that includes the separate measures of organizational justice within a single analysis (e.g. Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997). This approach not only allows researchers to understand factors that affect different types of justice but also shed light on the predictive power of different types of fairness (Kernan & Hanges, 2002). However, such studies have been sparse in the literature. Deconinck (2010) also suggested that in order to fully understand the social exchange process all three forms of justice needed to be included in the research.

Further, several researchers (Fischer, Ferreira, Jiang, Cheng, Achoui, Wong, Baris, Mendoza, Meurs, Achmadi, Hassan¸ Zeytinoglu, Dalyan, Harb, Darwish & Assmar, 2011; Shao, Rupp, Skarlicki & Jones, 2013; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009) have argued that much of the research on organizational justice perceptions have been performed in western contexts (individualistic culture), such as North America, Netherlands, US, Europe, and Canada. The extent to which these findings can be generalized to other countries and cultures is still unexplored (Wong, Ngo & Wong, 2006), particularly in Asian Settings (Li & Cropanzano, 2009). Therefore, research on justice perceptions warrants further investigation in non–western contexts, particularly Asian settings.

Coming to the consequences of organizational justice, though there is a considerable amount of scholarly submissions on the influence of fairness perceptions on various positive attitudes and behaviours, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, OCB and job performance (McCain, Tsai & Bellino, 2010; Suliman & Kathairi, 2013; Orlowska, 2011). But little

scholarly attention has been dedicated to organizational justice and knowledge sharing linkage (Wang & Noe, 2010). Yesil and Dereli (2013) suggested that exploring the relationship between justice and knowledge sharing in developing countries context would add valuable insights to the existing literature. Moreover, it would be intriguing to recognize mediators between organizational justice and knowledge sharing. Until now, to the finest of the author's knowledge, no study has examined work engagement as a mediating variable between organizational justice and knowledge sharing. Much of the extant research has documented the role of trust and organizational commitment (Fang & Chiu, 2010; Lin, 2007a; Tsai & Cheng, 2012) as mediators between justice and knowledge sharing. In the current study, it is proposed that work engagement (WE) would mediate the linkage between organizational justice and KS behaviour. Thus, this study would be helpful to excavate our understanding of the intricate relationship between organizational justice and KS behaviour in a developing country context.

In the age of knowledge economy, knowledge sharing is considered as a key ingredient for organizational survival and success (Witherspoon, Bergner, Cockrell & Stone, 2013). However, scholars have underlined that stimulating knowledge sharing has always been a tough task (Welschen, Todorova & Mills, 2012) as employees are reluctant to share their knowledge with others and show some inappropriate behaviour such as knowledge hiding and hoarding. Extant literature has documented the positive influence of knowledge sharing on several organizational and individual outcomes. Thus, it becomes imperative for organizations to find out the predictors or motivators of knowledge sharing (Tangaraja, et al, 2015). Moreover, researchers have mentioned that a modicum body of research exists on KS behaviour in public sector organizations (Sandhu, Jain & Ahmad, 2011: Razzaque, Eldabi & Jalaa- karim, 2013; Yusof, Ismail, Ahmad & Yusof, 2012), specifically in the banking industry (Chatzoglou & Vraimaki, 2009). Further, few studies have given attention to work engagement and KS behaviour linkage (Chen, Zhang & Vogel, 2011). The current study addresses the aforementioned voids and inconsistencies in the extant knowledge base by developing a holistic framework of organizational justice perceptions.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Against the above backdrop, the primary aim of the current study is twofold. First, it aims to add to the existing knowledge base of organizational justice literature by investigating the potential direct antecedents of employees' perceptions of justice. Three different potential antecedents of organizational justice are selected. These are as follows: ethical leadership (social- contextual factor), emotional intelligence (personal factor), and PC fulfillment

(contextual factor). These three variables are selected as antecedents of organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural, and interactional) due to their potential relationship with organizational justice and their importance to the functioning of organizations. By linking ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment with perceptions of organizational justice, the current study would substantially enrich our understanding of the antecedents of organizational justice in the banking context. Moreover, this study sought to investigate the influence of organizational justice perceptions on KS behaviour of banks employees. Additionally, this study sheds light on the mediating influence of work engagement between justice perceptions and KS behaviour which is rarely investigated in the current literature.

1.4 Research Questions

The literature review provides insight into the problem and also provides a basis to raise some research questions. After reviewing literature, this work intends to explore solutions to the following research problems.

RQ 1: Does ethical leadership influence organizational justice perceptions of employees in public sector banks of India?

RQ 2: Does emotional intelligence influence organizational justice perceptions of employees in public sector banks of India?

RQ 3: Does PC fulfillment influence organizational justice perceptions of employees in public sector banks of India?

RQ 4: Does organizational justice perceptions influence KS behaviour of employees in public sector banks of India?

RQ 5:- To what extent does work engagement mediates the influence of organizational justice perceptions on knowledge sharing behaviour?

RQ 6:- To what extent does organizational justice perceptions mediates the effect of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment on KS behaviour.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the effect of ethical leadership on organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) of employees in public sector banks.
2. To examine the effect of emotional intelligence on organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) of employees in public sector banks.
3. To examine the effect of PC fulfillment on organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) of employees in public sector banks.

4. To examine the effect of organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) on the KS behaviour of employees in public sector banks.

5. To study the mediating effect of work engagement between organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) and KS behaviour.

6. To study the mediating effect of organizational justice perceptions between the antecedents of organizational justice (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and psychological contract fulfillment) and KS behaviour.

1.6 Study Context

India is the fastest growing and fourth largest economy in the world. It is one of the members of BRICS and G-20 economies. Indian economy is the third largest in terms of PPP (purchasing power parity) and tenth largest in the world in terms of nominal GDP (Agarwal, 2014). According to a World Bank report, the GDP of India is expected to grow at 7.5 percent in the year 2015-2016. India is set to evolve as a fast growing economy of the world by 2015 ahead of China. According to a report released by Goldman Sachs in September 2015, from the fiscal year 2016 to 2020, India could grow at a rate of 8 percent powered by better access to urbanization, technology adoption, structural reforms and banking.

According to CEBR (Centre for Economics Business and Research), India could become the third largest economy of the world post-2030, just behind US and China (IBEF, 2015). India has robust economic potential like other powerful economies of the world, however, India is dissimilar from other countries in terms of its culture (high-power distance, strong long-term orientation, low uncertainty avoidance, medium collectivist orientation and medium masculinity) (Hofstede, 2001). In a collectivist country like India, the values and belief system of people are quite different from those found in the western context. People in India show respect for hierarchy as well as personal relationships; the style of management is generally paternalistic and employee view their workplace as an extended family (Aycan, kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl & Kurshid, 2001). In collectivist cultures, the main focus is on maintaining interpersonal relationships as people are more forbearing to the amount of injustice. This indicates that people may have different perceptions of justice as they belong to different cultures (Greenberg, 2001; Skarlicki, 2001). Therefore, a concept like perceptions of fairness has become a topic of utmost significance in a context like India, where keeping one's word is observed as a defining characteristic of dignity and upbringing (Shah, 2000). Further, Greenberg (2001) posits that culture affects the formation of employees' justice perceptions and subsequently affects their attitudes and behaviours. Therefore, investigating the antecedents

of justice perceptions and its subsequent impact on KS behaviour in collectivist cultures like India would enrich our understanding of its effect on employees' work attitudes and behaviours in a competitive globalized economy.

In the Indian economy, the service sector is one of the dominant sectors. It is one of the biggest and fastest growing sectors. According to a report, in the year 2014-2015, the service sector has contributed 52 percent to GDP and expected to reach 62 percent by FY 2020. It comprises of different sectors such as storage and communication, financing, insurance, restaurants and hotels, real states and many others (IBEF, 2015). In India, the banking sector is one of the fastest growing financial service sectors which got momentum post liberalization in India.

Some of the factors which contribute towards its growth are rising disposable income, fast growth of the Indian corporate sector, technological deployments etc. (Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). The banking sector is becoming increasingly competitive around the world (Heffernan, O' Neill, Trvaglione & Droulers, 2008; Popescu & Sandu, 2010; Popescu & Poanta, 2010) and plays a pivotal role in the economic growth of the country (Goh, 2005; Natarajan, 2010; Padmavathy, Balaji & Sivakumar, 2012). India's banking system is a vigorous one and is classified into commercial banks and co-operative credit institutions. Commercial banks include 1) scheduled commercial banks (SCBs) and non-scheduled commercial banks. SCBs are further classified into public sector banks (PSBs) (26), private banks (25), foreign banks (43) and regional rural banks (56) (RRBs). Co-operative credit institutions include the various co-operative banks, such as urban cooperative banks (1,589) and rural cooperative banks (93).

According to a report by KPMG- CII (2013) banking industry in India will become fifth largest in the world by 2020. This study will focus on the Indian banking industry, mainly public sector banks, which dominate the Indian banking sector. In India, public sector undertakings are those where 51 percent of the equity rests with central or state governments. Public sector banks differ from private sector players in terms of culture, structure, practices, and operations. Private sector banks work more toward profitability, whereas profitability is secondary in case of public sector banks as they are still involved in various non- profit social welfare activities. Public sector banks hold 80% (percent) of the market. However, the entry of new foreign and private banks has given an impetus to public sector banks to be more effective and innovative in their approaches (Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). There is a constant pressure on public sector banks to improve their profitability and be competitive as they are lagging behind their counterparts. In fact, last five years were not very good years for public sector banks in terms of profitability. Banks are under constant pressure to show improved year-on-year

performance. This creates a huge pressure on bank managers to be competitive and innovative. It is, therefore, intriguing to examine whether equity sensitivity among managers impacts their behaviours.

Further, over the past decades, banks have transformed many times. The Indian banking industry has been at the nib of innovation. Innovation in processes, products, customer service, distribution, and payments has helped banks to grow immensely and become more competent. Innovations could make banks in India better than some of the best banks across the world. Extant studies have shown that knowledge management (KM) is a key ingredient for innovation in organizations and competitive advantage (Kamasak & Bulutlar, 2010; Lin, 2007b; Popescu, 2007; Kamasak & Bulutlar, 2010; Yesil & Dereli, 2013). Dzinkowski (2001) mentioned that in order to improve their core competitiveness, banks should look into managing knowledge as one of the critical activities. Organizations can face the growing challenges well only when they are able to leverage one of the vital resources of organizations, i.e. human resources. They are crucial because knowledge lies in the mind of individuals. Human resources are the vital assets of every organization. The quality of employees' within the organization contributes towards the value creation (Rudawska, 2007). They are considered as a crucial success factor for organizations, especially in the service sector because they are the one who can achieve sustainable performance for their organization. KM is crucial for banking organizations as it is for any other organization. KM is also crucial for banks in managing relationships with customers, which in turn helps in fostering customer loyalty, trust, retention and market value of banks (Frackiewicz & Rudawska, 2004; Moreno & Melendez, 2011; Padmavathy & Sivakumar, 2012; Rudawska, 2011). The capability of management to manage the knowledge and experience of their employees determines the core competitiveness of the banking industry. However, managing knowledge is more difficult in the banking industry as it is more complex than any other sector.

Rao and Varghese (2009) posited that India will be one of the top nations for human capital in the next two decades. According to a report by IBEF (2013), addressing the challenges related to human capital will be a significant growth driver (Heitor, Horta & Mendonca, 2014) for public sector banks. Therefore, due to the growing worth of human assets in the service sector, issues like justice perceptions, emotional intelligence (EI), work engagement, ethics, KS behaviour, and fulfillment of psychological contract become important and considered as crucial topics of study by researchers and practitioners alike. On the basis of the above discussion, public sector banks seem to be a suitable context to conduct this study.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to human resource management, strategic management, and organizational behaviour literature. This study will add to research on organizational justice in many ways. This study provides a holistic view of the determinants of organizational justice perceptions. Thus, this research helps to understand the factors that will foster or promote employees' fairness perceptions within the organizations, particularly banking firms. Moreover, extant research has demonstrated that there is a paucity of research on knowledge sharing in banking firms. Thus, this study contributes significantly to the body of research on knowledge sharing in public sector enterprises, particularly banking industries. Banking firms are regarded as a knowledge-intensive sector. In banking industries, particularly public sector units are facing an intense competition from private and foreign players. Oluikpe (2012) mentioned that KM is important for the banking industry to stay ahead of their competitors. One of the resources which can help banks in gaining a competitive advantage is knowledge. Thus, management of knowledge is of great significance. Out of the various components of KM, knowledge sharing is the crucial one and act as a survival strategy of organizations (Witherspoon et al., 2013). The current study is imperative for business organizations that seek to enhance justice perceptions and KS behaviour of employees. The findings of this research may help banking firms in formulating and reviewing policies, strategies, and actions to gain competitive advantage and sustainability.

1.8 Organization of the Thesis

Chapter 1: presents the introduction of the study, which includes a statement of the problem, research questions, objectives, and significance of the study.

Chapter 2: This chapter represents a comprehensive literature review on the variables of the current study encompassing organizational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional), its antecedents (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment), the mediator (work engagement) and outcome variable i.e. KS behaviour. Grounded in the extant literature, several hypotheses were developed, and also a research framework has been presented.

Chapter 3: This chapter contains the study research methodology which includes research design, sampling frame, target population, sampling method, sample size, data collection and data analysis procedures. Moreover, it includes the pilot study and pre-test information.

Chapter 4: This chapter presents an analysis of the data with the help of statistical tool SPSS, AMOS 20 and PROCESS macro. It presents the results obtained through exploratory analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), structural equation modeling (SEM) and SPSS MACRO i.e. PROCESS for mediation.

Chapter 5: This final chapter includes discussion of the findings, implications of the study, limitations and future research avenues along with a conclusion.

1.9 Chapter Summary

The chapter discussed the background of the study first. Next, the chapter discussed the statement of the problem in the domain of justice, knowledge sharing, ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment and public sector banks. Further, research questions, objectives, study context and significance of the study have been discussed.

CHAPTER-2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The pursuit for literature review was conducted on these databases such as EBSCO host, ProQuest, Google Scholar, Emerald, Wiley and Taylor &Francis using the following pair of keywords: ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment, organizational justice, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, work engagement and knowledge sharing. Apart from the empirical and theoretical research articles, dissertations, conference papers were also included in the literature search. In this study, three variables (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment) are examined as essential factors influencing employees' justice perceptions based on a comprehensive literature review. This chapter offers an intensive inquiry on ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment, organizational justice (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice), work engagement and knowledge sharing (KS) behaviour and the interrelationships among them. Drawing on the current literature and theoretical perspectives, a theoretical framework has been proposed and study hypotheses have been formulated to examine the proposed linkages. The first section highlights the theoretical perspectives, followed by a literature review on study constructs and hypothesis formulation. These theoretical perspectives have been used to establish the linkages among the variables under study.

2.2 Theoretical Underpinnings of the Study

Major theories used to develop the framework and hypotheses of the present study include a) Equity theory (Adam's, 1963, 1965) b) Norms of reciprocity (Gouldner's, 1960) c) Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). The subsequent sections explore these theoretical perspectives.

2.2.1 Equity Theory (Adam's, 1963, 1965)

The inquiry on organizational justice was pioneered with Adam's (1965) equity theory. The theory of equity was one of the first studies on perceptions of people regarding the distribution of outcomes in psychology (Cohen- Charash & Spector, 2001). Inputs and outcomes are the main structural constituents of equity theory. Adam's theory of equity was based on the belief that judgments of equity and inequity are derived from an employee's comparison between themselves and others based on inputs (time, skills, flexibility, ability, time, etc.) and outcomes (pay, development, recognition, promotions and opportunities for advancement). Individuals compare ratios of their outcomes generally tangible rewards to inputs, such as contributions to

the ratios of other organizational referents. The comparisons will lead to modification of work behaviour. When employees perceive a huge difference between inputs and outcomes they get motivated to change the situation or dissonance by changing their referent, modifying their inputs and outcomes, changing the perception and leaving the organization (Mitchell, Holtom & Lee, 2001). Several studies (Andrews, 1967; Pritchard, Dunnette & Jorgenson, 1972) have been done to examine various aspects of the theory and corroborated the predictability on work behaviours. Researchers (Greenberg, 1987, 1990b) have also indicated that the evidence for equity theory is quite strong. The equitable distributions of outcomes and resources can be viewed as a crucial expression of evaluating justice perceptions in an organization.

2.2.2 Principle of Reciprocity (Gouldner's, 1960)

Reciprocity remains a key principle in almost all societies, so too in the area of organizations. Gouldner (1960) was the first sociologist to offer the existence of a universal, generalized norm of reciprocity. The principle of reciprocity is constructed on two key notions. First, the individual should help others who have helped them in the past. Second, individuals should not harm those who have helped them in the past. Reciprocity thus described as positive reactions to favourable treatment and negative responses to unfavourable treatment. The norm of reciprocity plays an important role in relationships. It enhances stability in social relationships and structures, and maintains the social relationships. Thus, reciprocity may work as a positive enabling preliminary mechanism for the development of stable and enduring social relations in newly made relationships. Gouldner (1960) suggests that social exchange is a fundamental kind of social interaction learned in childhood.

2.2.3 Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964)

SET is an appropriate framework to explain a number of employee behaviour and attitudes in organizations. Social exchange theory has been used widely in various disciplines encompassing sociology, social psychology, clinical psychology and anthropology (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1958; Foa & Foa, 1980; Firth & Banton, 1967). SET was founded on Gouldner's (1960) theory of the norm of reciprocity. SET is the main theoretical lens used in the justice literature. The theory of SET conceptualizes human relationships as exchanges of resources. According to social exchange theory (SET), organizations act as a medium for transactions whereby each party (employer and employee) to the exchange reciprocates the other's contribution (Blau, 1964). Kabasakal, Dastmalchian and Imer (2011) indicated that individual interactions can be viewed as transactions wherein individuals exchange resources in the expectation of a definite benefit. Blau (1964) in his book, Exchange, and Power in Social life

identified two categories of exchange namely, economic and social exchange. Economic exchange relationships are based on quid pro quo understanding of mutual duties and responsibilities and are relatively overt. These economic exchanges emphasized more on the material, financial and tangible aspects of the exchange relationship and comprise of short-term exchanges between parties (Cropanzano & Prehar, 2001; Shore, Tetrick, Lynch & Barksdale, 2006). Specifically, economic exchanges seem to stimulate employees to fulfill the formal contract of employment (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993), whereas social exchange focuses on socio- emotional aspects of the exchange relationship (i.e. feelings of obligation and trust).

Social exchange relationships are characterized by communal uniqueness, sense of allegiance and affective regards (Materson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000). Researchers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Niehoff & Moorman, 1993) mentioned that social exchanges are associated with 'open- ended obligations' and 'close personal attachment' and are more related to the psychological contract. This continuous reciprocation reinforces the exchange relationship (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2002; Gouldner, 1960). Further, Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner (2007) defined social exchange as the "subjective, relationship-oriented interactions between employers and employees characterized by an exchange of social- emotional benefits, a long-term focus and open end commitments".

Several researchers (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) have acknowledged that, in general, social exchanges encompass a sequence of interdependent that engenders obligations between two parties. An individual relationship with a specified other party has been theorized as a form of social exchange in which individuals attempt to strike a balance between the perceived cost and benefits of maintaining the relationships (Homans, 1958). A social exchange relationship starts when one party offers a benefit to others. When the party receiving the benefits returns or reciprocates with something valued by another party, a series of exchanges develop over time. Therefore, social exchange is a procedure that involves the unceasing exchange of benefits over time in which both parties comprehend that "the bestowing of benefits forms an obligation to reciprocate (Coyle- Shapiro & Shore, 2007, p. 167).

There are three facets of social exchange that are pertinent in the context of employment relationships: the parties to the exchange, the content of the exchange, and the process underlying the exchange (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004). The parties to the social exchange contain the organizational agents (e.g. supervisor or manager) and the employee. The content facet of the exchange emphasises on what is provided by the organization that stimulates reciprocation by the employee. The process facet denotes to the mechanism through which the

employee reciprocates towards those agents. In other words, the content (what is exchanged), the parties (who are the parties involved), and the process (how the exchange occurs). These three facets of social exchange relationship are considered as the building blocks of social exchange relationship (Coyle- Shapiro & Shore, 2007). Organizational justice dimensions expedite the configuration of social exchange relations and these, in turn, stimulate employees to greater levels of attachment and involvement with their work and organization (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The ensuing sections elaborate the different constructs of the study. Organizational justice will be explained first, followed by its antecedents (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment), the mediator (work engagement) and outcome (KS behaviour).

2.3 Organizational Justice

The modern age workforce is more extroverts enough, in order to raise their own rights at the workplace. The commitment from the employees would be possible, provided if the working environments are equity based. Nevertheless, organizational justice has been and would be the most important activity or issue (Cropanzano, Li & Beson, 2011; Jiang, Gollan & Brooks, 2015) which gives an impact to the employee behavioural outcomes (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993). Fairness is viewed as a core value of organizations and has been linked to the success of every organization (Konovsky, 2000). French (1964) was the first one who has used the term justice to refer in general to the fairness matters in personnel management. However, the notion of "organizational justice" was introduced or denoted by Greenberg (1987) to describe employees' perceptions of fairness within organizations (Suliman & Kathairi, 2013).

Organizational justice denotes the fairness perceptions of employees towards outcomes allocated, procedures employed to allocate resources and outcomes, and interactions in the workplace (Colquitt et al., 2005; Greenberg, 1990a). The fairness perceptions of employees' affect their attitudes and behaviours toward their job and organization (Barling & Phillips, 1993; Choi, 2011), positively or negatively (Adams, 1965). The field of organizational justice investigates the processes and outcomes that influence employees' perceptions of how fairly they are treated. Extant research has recognized three forms of justice: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Khan & Rashid, 2012).

This section provides the reader with an overview of the organizational justice literature, including the development of the types of justice and a review of the research relevant to the current study. In this study, a three-factor model of organizational justice has been used, which is the second widely used model of justice after four-factor model (Colquitt et al., 2005). Early

notions of fairness in the work context are found in social exchange theories. Social exchange theories posit that many employee attitudes and behaviours can be explained in terms of the social interactions that employees experience in organizations. By evaluating social exchanges in a manner similar to economic transactions and by comparing one's outcomes in such exchanges to the outcomes of other individuals or groups, an employee can determine whether the exchange has been favourable or unfavourable (Mowday, 1996). Extant literature suggests that each dimension has a distinct and significant relationship with workplace outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2013).

2.3.1 Components of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice has been identified by three components widely in the extant literature. The ensuing sections outline the three-factor model of organizational justice (See figure. 2. 1).
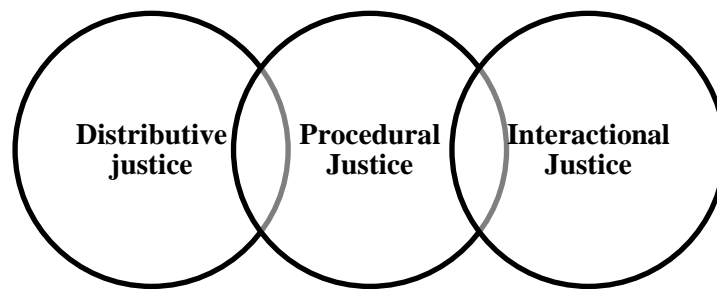
Figure 2.1: Three-factor model of organizational justice

2.3.1.1 Distributive Justice

Distributive justice was a term coined by early justice researcher George C. Homans (1961). Homans (1961) define distributive justice as "justice in rewards and costs between persons". Distributive justice is the earliest of the justice dimensions in research. It has been described as the perceived fairness of the outcomes and rewards (both tangible and intangible) that an employee receives (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Mahony, Hums, Andrew & Dittmo, 2010, p .92; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). The outcomes include pay, benefits, supervision, punishment, fringe benefits, job status, seniority benefits and rewards intrinsic to the job (Adams, 1965; Ambrose & Schminke, 2003; Deutsch, 1975; Folger & Konovsky, 1989). The majority of research on distributive justice has conceptualized fairness in terms of equity theory (Adams, 1965) which has often been characterized by the phrase, "a fair day's pay for a fair day's work" (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

Distributive justice studies have used three allocation rules: equity, equality and need. Equity basically denotes the evaluation of outcomes against inputs by employees. Equality means where all the employees are getting the same rewards and outcomes, whereas need means that an individual is getting rewards according to his/her needs. Researchers (Deutsch, 1985; Mikula, 1980) have suggested that individualistic cultures support the equity criteria, whereas collectivist cultures support equality and personal need as the criteria's in order to nurture harmony.

The concept of distributive justice is founded on Adam's (1963, 1965) "Theory of Equity". According to Adams (1963, 1965), individuals compare their inputs, which include assets such as work experiences, skills, training, and education, and their outcomes, typically compensation, but including non-monetary results such as job assignments or supervisor treatment, to those of other employees in order to evaluate whether a given transaction is equitable. It is important to note that because the ratio is based upon a person's perception of inputs and outcomes, that only those elements that the person perceives as relevant contributions and consequences will influence his/her determination of fairness and any resulting behaviours and attitudes. If a person's ratio of outcomes to inputs is equal to that of the comparison other, then the exchange will be perceived as fair. However, when a person's ratio is smaller than or larger than the comparison other's, the person will be motivated to alter the situation in a manner that will restore an equitable balance. In order to restore one's sense of equity, a person can alter the ratio by changing his/her behaviour or cognition (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998).

The choice of solutions depends on the specific conditions of the job, but, generally, people will try to maximize their positive outcomes and minimize their efforts. Thus, equity provides one possible model for discussing employees' perceived outcome fairness. When the goal of the reward distribution is to encourage group harmony and minimize conflict, an equality approach wherein outcomes are distributed equally to all employees may offer a better model of fairness (Deutsch, 1975). For example, if a manager has to explain a given reward allocation to an employee face-to-face, the manager may adopt an equal distribution procedure to avoid an awkward exchange with the subordinate (Greenberg, 1990a).

Some theorists have suggested that gender may also influence one's preferred reward allocation strategy (Kahn, O'Leary, Krulewitz & Lamm, 1980). Furthermore, when the aim of a given reward is to benefit those with the greatest need, a model of fairness based on social responsibility or needs may be more appropriate than one based on equity or equality (Deutsch,

1975). Equity is most appropriate when maximum productivity is the goal of the reward system. Because this goal parallels that of most work organizations, it is understandable that equity is the most cited and studied distributive justice paradigm.

Early research on equity theory in organizations, primarily investigated the attitudinal and behaviour consequences of over-payment equity (i.e., the case where a person's ratio is larger than that of the comparison other) (Mowday, 1996). Although some research has supported the prediction that workers will increase their performance outputs as a consequence of over-payment, wage inequity conditions have received more consistent support (Mowday, 1996). The exclusive focus on the perceived fairness of pay and other forms of compensation outcomes continued to characterize justice research through the mid-1970. Growing concern among justice researchers about distributive justice's inability to explain the underlying processes that influence employees' fairness perceptions led scholars to search for alternative models of fairness (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001). The newly emerging research in the legal domain regarding the relationship of various court procedures and verdict satisfaction, which eventually was named procedural justice, provided a timely and useful complement to the field of distributive justice.

Further, extant research underlines the positive effect of distributive justice on employees' creativity, job performance, OCB, satisfaction, commitment, work engagement and reducing various negative behaviours, such as organizational deviance and turnover intentions (Ambrose & Schminke, 2009; Hannam & Narayan, 2015; Shan et al., 2015; Suliman & Kathairi, 2013; Wang, Lioa, Xia & Chang, 2010), which in turn improves organizational performance and effectiveness.

2.3.1.2 Procedural Justice

In contrast to distributive justice, which focuses on the perceived fairness of a given outcome, "procedural justice has been defined as the (perceived) fairness of the means or procedures used to determine that outcome" (Mahony et al., 2010, p. 92; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002, p. 193)? "In other words, the focus shifts from *what* was decided to *how* the decision was made" (Cropanzano & Folger, 1996, p. 72). In the current procedural justice literature, there is some debate over whether procedural justice is a single variable or rather a set of related, yet distinct variables (Ambrose & Schminke, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986; Erdogan, 2002; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001), yet the common element among all of its incarnations is the focus on the fairness of the processes that regulate outcomes rather than the fairness of the outcomes themselves. Researchers (Colquitt et al., 2005; Leventhal, 1980) have indicated some criteria

used to evaluate the procedures as impartial which are as follows: consistency suppresses biases, ethical, accurate and allows employees to have some influence on the outcomes.

The earliest work in procedural justice was conducted by Thibaut and Walker (1975). Their focus was on how people judged the fairness of legal decisions. In their book, the authors described several studies involving dispute resolution and arbitration strategies. These studies simulated legal decisions wherein two individuals had their dispute settled by a third party decision maker. Based on their collective findings, the authors explained fairness in terms of their process control model. The model specifies that procedural justice results from two types of participant control. The first type, called process control refers to the degree to which one has input in choosing the method that is used to settle a dispute. The second type, decision control, refers to the amount of control one has in determining the outcomes of dispute resolution. Process control has also been labeled "voice" in order to illustrate that a person has a say in determining the processes that will be used to produce outcomes (Lind, Kanfer & Earley, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988).

The significance of Thibaut & Walker's (1975) research is that it showed that disputants placed more emphasis on process control than decision control when deciding if they were fairly treated. In other words, disputants' perceptions of fairness had more to do with the dispute resolution process than the outcomes. These findings have been widely replicated in subsequent studies (see Colquitt et al., 2001). It is important to note that research suggests that voice is positively related to fairness perceptions even when an individual doesn't necessarily feel that his/her voice made a difference in the processes chosen or the outcomes distributed (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998). The mere fact that a person's opinions are sought, irrespective of their impact, seems to increase the perceived fairness of an event.

Another seminal work that shares the credit with giving rise to the field of procedural justice is Leventhal's work on procedural fairness (Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980). While Thibaut and Walker (1975) were primarily concerned with the fairness of legal procedures, Leventhal's focus was the non-legal organizational setting. Reacting to what he saw as equity theory's uni-dimensional approach to justice (i.e., focusing only on reactions to outcomes). Leventhal (1980) outlined six procedural rules that contribute to an individual's sense of procedural fairness. The consistency rule states that procedures should be enacted consistently across different individuals and over time. Leventhal notes that this rule is invoked when individuals are denied equal opportunities due to differential treatment. The bias suppression rule requires that the decision maker in an allocation process refrains from

allowing personal self-interests from influencing the outcome of the decision. The accuracy rule dictates that the decisions should be made on the basis of valid information. This rule can be applied widely, but is particularly germane to performance evaluation. The rule may be violated when irrelevant or unreliable information is gathered or when opinions are solicited from inappropriate observers. This rule can apply directly to a manager rating a subordinate, but also in the case where one individual perceives that another is being rated according to a different standard that uses invalid information. For example, the accuracy rule applies when one employee believes he/she is being judged on merit, but another is being judged on his/her friendship with the supervisor. The correctability rule dictates that allocation processes must provide a mechanism for modifying or reversing decisions in cases where an error is believed to have been made. Essentially a grievance process, this rule also requires that the individual who will oversee the appeal follows the bias-suppression rule. The representativeness rule provides that the decision-making process, "must reflect the basic concerns, values, and outlook of important subgroups in the population" (p. 43-44) affected by the decisions. It follows that this rule would predict that a woman may find the decisions that affect her career advancement opportunities less fair if all of her managers are male. Finally, the ethicality rule specifies that the procedures used must be consistent with an individual's own fundamental values. For example, valid information gathered by spying on an individual would likely negatively affect that person's sense of procedural fairness. Thus, Leventhal's ideas regarding procedural fairness greatly broadened the scope of what was considered to affect procedural justice perceptions and in so doing, complemented rather than contradicted the notion of process control/voice.

In 1985, Folger and Greenberg conducted the first study to apply procedural fairness to a work setting (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998), and since that time, the research generated on the topic of procedural justice has been voluminous (Greenberg, 1990b). Because the procedural justice literature is so vast, the remainder of this review will focus only on select key themes and findings that are relevant to the current study. For a more comprehensive review, the reader is directed to Greenberg's (1990b) review of the procedural justice literature up to 1990 and Konovsky's (2000) review of the literature from 1990 to 2000.

Perhaps because procedural justice emerged as a separate, yet a complementary field to that of distributive justice, one of the early themes in the procedural justice literature was the attempt to distinguish it as a distinct construct. For example, in a frequently cited study investigating the relationship between performance evaluation and fairness (Greenberg, 1986), participants

were asked to think of an incident that was particularly fair or unfair. Then, the second sample of participants Q-sorted the responses and seven categories emerged. Finally, a third sample rated each of the categories' importance to fair evaluations. Factor analysis revealed two factors. The five procedural categories loaded on a single factor and the two categories concerned with the fairness of outcomes received loaded on a second distributive factor. This study was important because it showed that people do recognize the procedural and distributive distinction and because the categories were empirically derived.

In their recent meta-analysis, Viswesvaran and Ones (2002) estimated the true score correlation between distributive justice and procedural justice to be .66 and concluded that the two justice factors are correlated yet distinct. They supported this argument with discriminant evidence that showed each justice type predicts different outcomes. In their review of the subject, Folger and Konovsky (1989) explained that procedural justice perceptions may reflect a longer time horizon and be more related to attitudes about organizations and their authorities whereas distributive justice perceptions are more likely to be tied to fewer, more recent, more specific events and be more related to satisfaction with pay. Their own research supports this assertion. They found that procedural justice was a better predictor of organizational citizenship behaviour, trust in the supervisor and distributive justice was only a significant predictor of pay satisfaction.

Folger and Konovsky (1989) also conducted a usefulness regression analysis that showed procedural justice's significance as a predictor remained after controlling for the effects of distributive justice. They concluded that procedural justice is a significant measure of fairness in two ways. One aspect called instrumental procedural justice holds that procedural justice is important because fair processes lead to fairer outcomes.

The other labeled non-instrumental procedural justice declares that procedural justice may be important in of itself as a symbol that the manager and organization respect the subordinate. Their research also showed that the degree to which decision-making procedures was grounded in evidence (e.g., the supervisor is familiar with your performance) was the best predictor of important outcomes. Overall, these findings along with several others support the theoretical distinction between distributive justice and procedural justice, as well as, the notion that procedural justice is comprised of multiple factors (Greenberg, 1990a).

Studies have shown that fair procedures also lessen the negative influence of unfavourable outcomes in the organizations (Cropanzano et al., 2007). Choi (2008) mentioned that distributive justice exhibits a strong relationship with personal outcomes, whereas procedural

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justice shows strong association with organizational outcomes. Moreover, employees are more likely to alter their behaviour in response to the fairness of the distribution of rewards than the fairness of decision outcomes (Acquaah & Tukamushaba, 2015).

2.3.1.3 Interactional Justice

As the efforts to explain the domain of procedural justice elements continued, a new aspect of justice called interactional justice was introduced (Bies & Moag, 1986). Whereas previous conceptions of procedural justice centered around the fairness of the procedures themselves, the focus of interactional justice was on the social elements involved in implementing those procedures (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 1993; Mahony e al., 2010, p. 93). Debate continues over whether interactional justice is conceptually or practically distinct from procedural justice (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001), but the preponderance of the evidence suggests that interactional justice is different from procedural justice and may be associated with different organizational behaviour variables, particularly those involving personal interaction such as negotiation (Bies & Moag, 1986).

Several researchers (Gupta & Singh, 2013; Tremblay & Roussel, 2001) have suggested that interactional justice should be treated as a separate dimension of organizational justice. Interactional justice has typically been treated as a single construct, but most recently, a meta-analysis and scale validation study have argued convincingly that a two-factor model of interactional justice offers a better fit (Colquitt et al., 2001). The first factor is interpersonal justice and involves the interpersonal treatment of the subordinate by the manager in carrying out procedures. The second interactional justice factor is informational justice and concerns the way a manager communicates information about processes and outcomes. However, in the current study, we have used interactional justice as a single construct.

Interactional fairness is denoted by some criteria, such as justification, respect, truthfulness, and propriety (Bies & Moag, 1986). Justification relates to the adequate explanation of the decision- making process and outcomes. Respect criterion relates to the dignified treatment of subordinates by the authority figures. Truthfulness criterion relates to the open and candid interaction of supervisors with followers. The last criterion, propriety, stipulates that authority figures should not make prejudicial remarks. The results of the meta-analysis (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001) indicate that distributive, procedural and interactional justice has different correlates and should examine separately. Interactional justice is linked directly with procedural and distributive justice because the supervisor possesses the right to control rewards, resources, and policies. Interactional justice is observed in the interpersonal treatment of leaders or direct

managers or supervisors. Cohen- Charash and Spector (2001) indicated that procedural justice exhibits strong connection with work performance and trust in the organization while interactional justice is strongly related to supervisor related variables. Extant research reveals that interactional justice has received the least attention of the justice types in organizational justice research.

As the above review illustrates, each of the types of justice (i.e., distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) makes an important contribution to the study of fairness perceptions. In addition to Colquitt et al. (2001), other authors (Colquitt, 2001; Greenberg, 1986) admonish that all justice concepts should be measured in future studies hoping to attain a complete understanding of the role of fairness in organizations. One reason it is beneficial to consider several types of fairness is to capture interactions (Konovsky, 2000). A study of 675 bank employees illustrates this point (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Another reason to include several types of justice in fairness research is that different justice concepts have been linked to different antecedents and outcomes (Colquitt, 2001). These three types of organizational justice are crucial elements of maintaining the fairness in the organization and the bad influence of injustice can be decreased if efforts are made to sustain one type of justice, specifically interactional justice. Researchers (Cropanzano et al., 2007; Goldman, 2003) have argued that if interactional justice is high in an organization, the adverse effect of procedural and distributive justice can be reduced. Past research has documented that interactional justice positively influences various attitudinal and behavioural responses.

To sum up, organizational justice in terms of dissemination of rewards, processes employed to decide outcomes and interpersonal treatment given by the decision- makers cause employees to favourably assess their organization's status and to sense that they are respected.

2.4 Antecedents of Organizational Justice

Although past research has documented several antecedents of organizational justice the influence of certain variables on organizational justice has remained inconsistent in past studies. Moreover, there are few studies investigating simultaneously the effects of personal and contextual factors on employees' fairness perceptions. The current study, therefore, aims to extend the existing justice research to a non- western context, specifically India by investigating the effects of individual and contextual factors on organizational justice perceptions. Organizational justice has been acknowledged as a vital component for augmenting organizational effectiveness and firm performance (Acquaah & Tukamushaba, 2015; Mahajan & Benson, 2013). Thus, understanding the nature and determinants of

organizational justice has been an area of enormous importance to the organizational scholars. The robust antecedents of organizational justice, which the current study has considered are ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment. The ensuing sections elaborate the antecedents of justice perceptions.

2.4.1 Ethical Leadership

"*Executive commitment to ethics has important consequences for ethics governance in companies and managers should take their role seriously". - Weaver, Trevino, and Cochran* (1999, p. 55).

The concept of leadership has intrigued scholars for centuries in organizational research (Burns, 1978) due to its worth in human groups. Several scholars have examined that leaders play an important role at all the levels of organization in influencing follower's attitudes and behaviour, which in turn helps in achieving organizational goals (Yukl, 2006). Leadership is acknowledged as one of the crucial factors in studying ethics in human resource and organizational behaviour literature (Kalshoven, 2010 p. 13). Ethics is a word originated from the Greek word "ethos" which means character or custom. Burns (1978) is one of the first scholars who proposed to connect behaviours and ethics. Ciulla (1995) advocates that good leadership is not only characterized by effectiveness but also by ethics. In a similar vein, Northhouse (2007) advocated that "ethics are central to leadership because of the nature of influence" (p. 347) and because of "the impact leaders have on the organization's values" (p. 347). Upadhyay, Upadhyay and Palo (2013) stated that when leaders have strong moral values they influence strategy implementation positively. Thus, in order to achieve an effective and successful work milieu, leadership should be ethical. Leaders must display ethical behaviour in their actions, conversations and decisions so that other members of the organization follow their behaviour (Toor & Ofori, 2009). Further, leaders, who are ethical, direct and guide their subordinates towards the accomplishment of goals, which benefit all the concern parties, such as organization, stakeholders, members and society.Over the last two decades, studies on ethical behaviour as a crucial component of effective leadership have increased profusely (Aronson, 2001; Karakas & Sarigollu, 2013; Riggio, Zhu, Reina & Maroosis, 2010).

Research on several leadership styles is growing significantly, such as transformational, LMX, charismatic and servant leadership, however, ethical leadership has attracted immense attention of scholars, the general public and practitioners alike due to the rising ethical scandals in the corporate world (Darcy, 2010; Trevino, Weaver & Reynolds (2006) and the collapse of many corporate giants, such as Enron (2001), World Com (2002), Lehman brothers (2008) and many

more. These business scandals instigated by leaders' or top executives use of unethical practices have generated anxiety and insecurity among employees and this further causes a great demand among employees for ethical leaders within the organization. This growing demand for ethical leaders makes the investigation of ethical leadership worthwhile (Yukl, 2006). The theories of ethical leadership have been discussed by numerous scholars in the domain of management and organizational behaviour (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum & Kuenzi, 2012). Freeman and Stewart (2006) posit that instead of seeing ethical leadership style as averting subordinates from doing the wrong thing, scholars proposed that we need to understand it as facilitating subordinates to do the right thing.

The past two decades have witnessed a growing number of articles and empirical research on ethical leadership (Avey, Palanski & Walumbwa, 2011; Neubert, Wu & Roberts, 2013) due to its positive influence on a variety of work-related behaviours and attitudes, such as trust, work engagement, organizational citizenship behaviour, innovative work behaviour, creativity, occupational well-being, employee voice behaviour, affective commitment, ethical behaviour, employee performance (Avey et al., 2011; Chughtai, 2014; Chughtai, Byrne & Flood, 2015; Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012; Loi, Lam & Ngo, 2015; Lu & Lin, 2014; Qia & Xiaa, 2014; Walumbwa, Mayer, Wang, Wang, Workman & Christense, 2011) and organizational outcomes, such as firm performance and effectiveness (Wang, Lu & Liu, 2015).

Further, researchers (Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes & Salvador, 2009; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009) have advocated that ethical leadership also helps in reducing unethical practices and harmful subordinates' behaviour. In spite of the increasing significance of ethical leadership, research on this particular leadership style is scant and at a nascent stage, however, increasing somewhat, but has critical inadequacies (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Mayer et al., 2009; Toor & Ofori, 2009). Moreover, to date, much of the research has been performed mainly on the direct effects of ethical leadership; minimal attention has been paid to the underlying mechanism that links ethical leadership to several outcomes (Piccolo, Greenbaum, Den hartog & Folger, 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Furthermore, it is noteworthy that much of the research on ethical leadership were performed in western settings (Qin, Wen, Ling, Zhou & Tong, 2014) with few scholarly submissions in non- western contexts. In addition, extant literature highlights that few studies have investigated the influence of ethical leadership on justice perceptions and KS behaviour (Carmeli, Gelbard & Reiter- Palmon, 2013; Xu, Loi & Ngo, 2014).

Thus, we believe that an empirical examination of this association between variables like ethical leadership, fairness perceptions, and knowledge sharing could expand our understanding of ethical leadership in organizational contexts, particularly in PSUs.

2.4.1.1 Ethical Leadership: A Distinct Style of Leadership

Ethical leadership comes under the canopy of positive forms of leadership (Piccolo et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Prior empirical studies exhibit that ethical leadership style is akin to but also different from other prevailing leadership styles empirically, such as transformational, servant, LMX, authentic and spiritual (Brown et al., 2005; Kalshoven et., 2011; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson, 2008). They further validated that ethical style of leadership displays more variance in employees' outcomes than other styles of leadership. Researchers have tried to draw a line of distinction between the ethical style of leadership and other categories of leadership styles. The use of ethical perspective in these styles of leadership is described as "mainly conceptual". The ethical aspect in these styles represents a smaller component as compared to the social scientific approach offered by Brown et al. (2005). Although all the forms of leadership encompass a key characteristic, i.e. being ethical which means they all share qualities, such as trustworthiness, honesty, reliability, and credibility which means that all the leadership styles are strong on the "moral person" facet of ethical leadership. However, the aspect of "moral manager" is what makes ethical leadership different from other types of leadership styles (Piccolo et al., 2010; Trevino, Hartman & Brown, 2000, 2003). Ethical leadership has been recognized as a valid leadership construct rather than just another aspect of major leadership practices (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Brown et al., 2005). Researchers (Brown et al., 2005; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Trevino et al., 2003) have offered a valid measure of ethical leadership through a panel of studies. Brown et al. (2005) define ethical leadership, founding it on a well-substantiated theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977). Further, the current theory on ethical leadership posits that employees' attitudes and behaviours will be influenced in two ways- 1) directly through role modeling and 2) indirectly through social exchange relationships.

2.4.1.2 Ethical Leadership: Definition and Dimensions

As its name indicates, ethical leadership style paid more attention to the ethical element of leadership. Ethical leadership is a crucial style of leadership as it provides numerous opportunities for leaders' effectiveness (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Ethical leadership is worthy of investigation due to its positive influence on profitability, long turnover rates and reducing business costs (McCann & Holt, 2009; Thomas, Schermerhorn & Dienhart, 2004). Ethical

leadership is identified and emerged as an independent construct through the research efforts of various researchers (Brown & Trevino, 2006; Brown et al., 2005; Trevino et al., 2003; Trevino et al., 2000). Brown et al. (2005) were the first scholars who validated the construct empirically. They define ethical leadership as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (p. 120). This definition sums up a pool of personal traits and behavioural features. An ethical leader puts "ethics at the forefront of their leadership agenda" (Trevino et al., 2000, p. 133).

On the other hand, behavioural characteristics are associated with a strong verbal commitment to ethics-related topics, role modeling and rewarding ethical whilst disciplining unethical conduct (Trevino et al., 2000). This conceptualization of ethical leadership is based on the qualitative study done by Trevino et al. (2000, 2003). The qualitative study was conducted in the form of semi- structured interview by researchers revealed that to be perceived as ethical, leaders must act as both a moral person and a moral manager. This confirmed that ethical leadership has two dimensions. The two dimensions are as follows: a) "Moral Person" (Trevino et al., 2000) or "Ethical Role Modelling" (ERM) and b) "Moral Manager" or "Promoting Ethical Conduct" (PEC)". As a moral person, ethical leader portrays concern toward employees and treats them in a fair and polite manner. Integrity, fairness, care and concern for others, empathy, etc. are behavioural and attitudinal aspects which are associated with being a morally good person. On the other hand, as moral manager, an ethical leader sends moral messages to employees and encourages ethical behaviour among employees through the use rewards and punishments (Brown & Trevino, 2006). These two aspects of ethical leadership are considered as the pillars of ethical leadership (Trevino et al., 2000, 2003) (See figure 2.2).
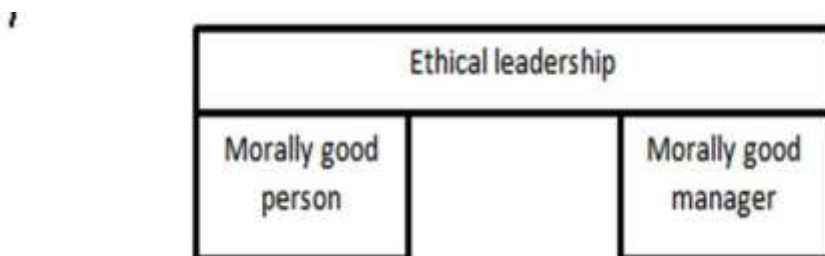
Source: Adapted from Trevino et al. (2000)

Figure 2.2: Pillars of ethical leadership

According to McCann and Holt (2009), ethical leader as a moral person conforms to moral codes by exhibiting veracity and fairness in both their personal and professional lives (Brown & Mitchell, 2010; Brown & Trevino, 2006). They impact the moral thinking of subordinates by demonstrating moral values and behaviour in the workplace (Mayer et al., 2009). However, as moral manager, an ethical leader creates behavioural codes for others. They possess good managerial skills in directing employees' attention to ethical contemplations and inculcating employees with values that guide ethical actions (Trevino et al., 2000; Toor & Ofori, 2009). They provide rewards to employees for good adherence to these standards.

According to Brown and Trevino (2006), "ethical leaders are credible because they are trustworthy and they practice what they preach" (p. 597). They are honest and principled leaders who seek to do the right thing. Brown and Trevino (2006) advocate that ethical leaders approach works as an 'ends' perspective rather than 'means'. They set clear ethical standards for their subordinates. They are considered as virtuous role models who encourage followers to follow their footsteps. Ethical leaders don't only care for the people who are around them, but for the entire society. Brown and Trevino (2006) indicated that instead of dealing with a normative approach, which simply identifies how ethical leaders "ought" to behave, ethical leadership emphasis both on the antecedents and consequences. Furthermore, Becker (1998) opined that ethical leaders are able to create a working atmosphere where both leaders and subordinates treat each other fairly, never misuse their firm resources, and never involve in unethical behaviours.

Researchers (Guillen & Gonzalez, 2001; Solomon, 1999) mentioned other virtues of ethical leaders, such as determination, integrity, fairness, honesty, humility, tolerance, enthusiasm, courage, and responsibility. Such attributes of their character become worthy of emulation by followers. Trevino et al. (2000, 2003) opined that leader behaviours cause anxiety for people and just treatment to employees contribute to perceptions of ethical leadership. According to Starratt (2004), ethical leadership is an attempt to act on the principles, assumptions, beliefs and values in the leader's espoused system of ethics. An ethical leader seeks to take responsibility, is authentic, and understands a presence. Ethical leaders are able to earn the trust of their followers since appropriate behaviour is rewarded and inappropriate behaviours are punished (Brown et al. 2005). Therefore, the presence of norms and policies are more present in the atmosphere where strong ethical leaders reward ethical conduct. Moreover, strong ethical leaders within organization would hold followers answerable and enforce discipline and punishments accordingly. Contrariwise, political behaviour is more likely to be promoted in an

environment where leaders are not able to punish unethical behaviours. Therefore, employees employed under ethical leader develop a strong identification with both the leader and the organization (Walumbwa et al., 2011). In contrary, employees working with an unethical leader may engage in dubious or immoral behaviour and may be less likely to involve with their organizations (Brown & Mitchell, 2010).

2.4.2 Emotional Intelligence

In this age of inclusive economy, where individuals are going through stress related to uncertainty in career and constant changes in the business environment which are volatile in nature, requires emotional and cognitive adjustments on the part of employees to deal with these environmental demands and pressures effectively (Bar-On, 2004; Coetzee & Harry, 2014). The regulation of emotions is a part of everyday organizational life and work roles (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Emotional intelligence (EI) has become one of the widely argued academic research issues in the domain of psychology and management (Salguero, Extremera & Fernandez- Berrocal, 2012). The significance of EI is accentuated because in workplace human relations are influenced more by emotional factors than by rational factors. Moreover, emotions become more important to those organizations where employees' abilities are evaluated in terms of emotions instead of cognition (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner & Salovey, 2006).

The notion of EI has garnered a lot of attention of practitioners and scholars alike and become one of the widely used individual difference positive psychology variable in workplace research (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011; Cherniss, 2010; Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver & Story, 2011; Schlaerth, Ensari, & Christian, 2013) in the last decade or so. The growing interest in the topic of EI was mainly stirred by Goleman's (1995) book, and especially by the claim that EI elucidates a greater amount of variance in individual success than intelligence quotient (IQ) (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003). In 1995, Goleman published a bestseller entitled, "Emotional Intelligence: Why it can Matter More Than IQ"; it was at this point that organizations became interested in the concept of emotions playing a part in work performance. Goleman (1998) claims that of all the skills that employers list as valuable in an associate, only one, reading comprehension, is academic. The remaining skills include what he terms "emotional competencies" including listening, adaptability, interpersonal effectiveness, and motivation.

Strickland (2000) posits that EI is twice as important as a person's intelligence quotient and technical skills combined. EI of individuals is acknowledged as a crucial psychosocial meta-

capacity for effective adaptation in different spheres of life (Jain, 2012). Researchers (Druskat & Wolff, 2001; George, 2000; Higgs, 2004; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006; Koman & Wolff, 2008; Kunnanatt, 2004) have demonstrated that emotionally intelligent employees work more effectively as individuals, team members, and leaders. While scholars have achieved fruitful findings in academic research, the applied implications of EI still fall short of empirical research findings and debatable (Goleman, 1998; Law, Wong & Song, 2004; Law, Wong, Haung & Li, 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Emotional intelligence plays an important role in one's ability to succeed in life. The popularity of emotional intelligence has exponentially increased in recent years (Matthews, Roberts & Zeidner, 2004). The relationship between heart and head, thinking and emotions, reason, and passion has been rigorously debated through the course of human history. Emotional intelligence fuses together the seemingly dichotomous constructs of intellect and emotions. The primarily Western philosophical dichotomy of logic and feelings predated modern psychology and viewed ration and logic as oppositional forces to non-rational aspects such as feelings and emotions (Matthews et al., 2004).

Indeed, at various points throughout history, emotions were viewed as largely unpredictable and, therefore, were not to be trusted. In fact, when early philosophers layered the constructs of emotion and intellect, logic inevitably rose above emotions (Grewal & Salovey, 2005).

2.4.2.1 Origin of Emotional Intelligence

It was not until the early part of the 20th century that scholars became interested in the concept of intelligence and just how to directly measure the nature of human intelligence and intellect (Gardner & Hatch, 1989). In 1950, Guilford proposed his theory called the structure of intellect. He described intelligence as having 150 independent dimensions made up of reasoning and problem-solving skills, memory operations, decision-making skills, and language-related skills (structure of intellect). The understanding up until this time was that intelligence was cognitive in nature and the other more behavioural facets of the individual were made up by personality (Gardner, 1983). Modern EI theory arose from the general intelligence work begun by Thorndike and then was extended by Wechsler (Goleman, 1998; Stein & Book, 2006).

Thorndike was the first to broach the reconciliation of thought and emotions by suggesting the possibility that people have a social intelligence consisting of the ability to perceive their own and others' internal states, motivation, and behaviour, and then to act accordingly (Thorndike, Bergman, Cobb, & Woodyard, 1926).

Extending on the work of Thorndike and recognizing that an individual's intelligence quotient was an incomplete measure of a person's intelligence, Wechsler urged a careful review of "non-intellective aspects of general intelligence" when gauging the total sum of an individual's intellect (Stein & Book, 2006, p. 15). Following the line of work of Thorndike (1920), Howard Gardner (1983), a professor at the Harvard School of Education, had been devoting much of his time to the concept of intelligence and felt there were separate neurological processes involved in dealing with different situations. Gardner's theory of multiple intelligence, first published in 1983, states that there are seven different types of intelligence with two of those types being termed the personal intelligence. There are two separate constructs to personal intelligence, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. This personal intelligence is described as a combination of the ability to know and deal with the self and the ability to know and deal with others in a social atmosphere (Gardner). Gardner asserted that the two components of personal intelligence, interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence, are as important as the cognitive types of intelligence typically measured by intelligence tests. It was not until after 1983 that the psychological and educational communities started to realize the importance of personal and social intelligence as a mechanism of goal achievement and success in life.

Then, Sternberg's (1985) Triarchic Theory of Intelligence offered a model for how to recognize, impart, and evaluate gifted students. Sternberg's (1985) Triarchic Theory of Intelligence provided a model for how to identify, teach, and assess gifted students. The componential sub- theory includes three human intelligence processes (components): the meta-component, the performance component, and the knowledge-acquisition component. The work of Gardner (1983) and Sternberg (1985) supported the multiple intelligence theory. Psychologist Peter Salovey expanded upon Gardner's work in personal intelligence and coined the term emotional intelligence in 1990 (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Kunnanatt, 2004) and later expounded by Goleman in the late 1990s. From 1983 until the year 2000 research on the topic of emotional intelligence continued to proliferate, and over 3,000 articles were written on emotional intelligence during this period (Bar-On, 2004).

2.4.2.2 Definitions of Emotional Intelligence

Despite decades of research in the area of EI, a concrete, agreed-upon definition of EI continues to be elusive (Carmeli, 2003; Matthews et al., 2004; Roberts, Matthews & Zeidner, 2010; Waterhouse, 2006). This criticism is somewhat substantiated by the aforementioned definitions provided within the three EI models. Cherniss (2010) argued that there is a distinct difference between theory and model and suggested that different models can fit into one

definition. Additionally, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) asserted that the differences in definitions are not a reason to abandon continued research in such a promising potential construct as EI. Cherniss (2010) asserted that scientific research typically does not start with totally agreed upon definitions, but often leads to them. In fact, still today there are considerable differences among psychologists as to what constitutes the definition of an established construct such as general intelligence (Cherniss, 2010). Since the inception of the term emotional intelligence, various researchers have tried to define emotional intelligence in different ways. Thorndike in 1920 defines EI as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls to act wisely in human relations". Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the first two researchers who have coined the term emotional intelligence (EI) They define EI as the "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and other's emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.189). A moderate and useful definition that is not too broad or too narrow is the second definition by Mayer and Salovey (1997), "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 87).

Goleman (1995, p. 34) define EI as "the abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope". Bar-On (2004) defines emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p. 14). Davies, Stankov & Roberts (1998, p. 1001) define EI as "the ability to perceive emotional information in visual and auditory stimuli". Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000) define EI as a set of abilities of individuals regarding the accurate understandings of emotions that helps in solving problems in their personal lives.

According to Gray (2004), EI is measured by the attitude individuals have when dealing with others and when dealing with themselves. It is typically demonstrated by optimism and a positive attitude when dealing with obstacles or failures. The emotionally intelligent person sees opportunities, not limitations. McEnrue and Groves (2006) refer to emotional intelligence as the capability to deal effectually with emotions. They go on to state that the simplistic nature of this definition illustrates the lowest level of agreement among scholars regarding the construct of emotional intelligence. Over the years, various definitions of EI have been offered

by scholars and practitioners, however, Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey (1997) definition of EI have been the most influential.

2.4.2.3 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Stemming from the surge of interest and consequent research, specific models of EI began to ascend and became classified as either an ability model or as a mixed model approach. The ability model approach posits emotional intelligence as an intelligence that includes a set of definable, measurable, and testable set of abilities (Salovey, Brackett, & Mayer, 2004). In contrast, the mixed model approach combines personality, character, and social skills that can only be fully described and assessed within a broader range of elements.

While many different models and theories of EI presented themselves throughout modern history, there are three primary developers of the EI construct that, without whom, EI may not have taken as firm a hold of the psychological field. The three primary EI model developers and mainstays include (a) Goleman, (b) Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso, and (c) Bar-On.

2.4.2.3.1 The Goleman Model

The Goleman model is considered a mixed model approach and consists of five major components with twenty-five competencies identified within the components. In short, Goleman suggested that the following five components decide how people manage themselves: (a.) self-awareness: knowing one's own internal states along with a realistic self-appraisal of one's abilities, (b.) self-regulation: managing one's own internal states and impulses so they become an asset rather than a liability in situations, (c.) motivation: emotional inclinations that facilitate goal achievement, (d.) empathy: the ability to connect with other's feelings, needs, and concerns, and (e.) social skills: being adept at gaining the cooperation of others and leading others toward collaboration and teamwork (Goleman, 1998, 2001). The Goleman model has undergone one transformation since its inception. The original five components have been consolidated to four components (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relational management) with eighteen competencies instead of the original twenty-five (Goleman, 2001).

2.4.2.3.2 The Mayer and Salovey model

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2002) and Mayer and Salovey (1997) discussed a four component ability model of EI, emphasizing four dimensions of related skills, including (a) Self- emotional appraisal: referred to as the ability of people to understand and express their deep emotions (b) Other's emotions appraisal (OEA): refers to the ability of an individual to apprehend and

perceive the emotions of other people. People who are good at this will be more sensitive to the feelings of others. (c) Regulation of emotion in the self (ROE): this refers to the ability of people to regulate their emotions. This helps individual to recover fast from psychological distress. Use of emotion (UOE): it is described as the ability of individuals to make use of their emotions by directing them towards productive activities and personal performance.

The Mayer and Salovey model posits that individual skill levels vary among the four identified skill areas which result in outcomes (positive and negative) for individuals in daily life (Grewal & Salovey, 2005). Researchers (Mayer, Di Paolo, & Salovey 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) indicate that the four aspects of the Mayer and Salovey model are positively related to each other to support a four-factor model of an overarching construct of EI. However, Rossen, Kranzler, and Algina (2008) failed to confirm the one factor model of EI. In short, the four factors identified in the Mayer and Salovey model may in fact not amalgamate to create an overarching construct of EI. Nonetheless, the Mayer-Salovey model continues to be widely used and is well respected amongst EI researchers and practitioners (Cherniss, 2010).

2.4.2.3.3 The Bar-On Model

Because the focus of this research will use the Bar-On model of EI, comparatively greater detail, and attention will be provided. The major elements of the Bar-On model include five categories, each divided into subscales that capture "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures," known as EI (Bar-On, 1997, 2004). The five major components of the Bar-On model include intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, stress management skills, adaptability skills, and general mood. Notwithstanding the academic growth and the popular use of EI by practitioners, EI has attracted its fair share of criticism. Among the most ardent critics is Matthews et al., (2004), Roberts et al. (2010) and Van Rooy, Whitman, and Viswesvaran (2010), Waterhouse (2006). In one capacity or another, each of the above critics suggests that EI definitions, measures, classification, system uniqueness, and predictability of success lack the necessary scrutiny and empirical rigor before considering EI a viable psychological construct.

Further, researchers reveal that there is little evidence of EI for divergent validity with personality assessments (Matthews et al., 2004; Van Rooy et al., 2010). In contrast, Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, and Weissberg (2006) reported that continued research in the measures of EI has resulted in a preponderance of published evidence to suggest that EI can indeed be measured. Moreover, Cherniss et al. (2006) showed that EI has proven to be representative of

abilities that are distinctly different from the older constructs of personality and cognitive ability. While, Cherniss (2010) admits that there are certain limitations to current measures related to the differences in EI models, continued hypothesis development and testing will iron out the wrinkles over time. In this study, we have used the conceptualization of Mayer and Salovey.

2.4.3 Psychological Contract

The current changes in the business environment such as outsourcing, downsizing, and restructuring, increases the likelihood of disparities between employer and employees. Due to these uncertainties and changes, the employment relationship has undergone a number of significant changes. These changes in the employment relationships cause a replacement of traditional psychological contract with the new psychological contract (Katou, 2015). The traditional contract is an offer of loyalty, commitment and good performance to the organization in exchange for promotions and career development, which results in security of employees till retirement, whereas the new psychological contract is an offer by the organization to treat employees fairly in terms of pay distribution and treatment in exchange for employee loyalty and commitment, considering employees are responsible for their own training and development as well as career development (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). This shift led to the changes in employees' interest from job security within one organization to employment security to the labour market. Due to all these happenings in the current business arena, the psychological contract has become a significant framework to comprehend better the relationship between employer and employee (Shore & Tetrick, 1994; Taylor & Tekleab, 2004) in the past two decades.

This framework basically focuses on the reciprocal relationships between employees and their organization (Rousseau, 1989). In this exchange relationship, employees form expectations about the input or resources (effort, expertise, and energy) they are obligated to offer to the organization in exchange of the benefits they will receive from the organization (opportunities for growth and career development). Based on these promises made to the employees (explicit and implicit) and the accompanying norm of reciprocity a psychological contract is formed within the organizations. PCs can be studied in various ways. Presently, there is no unanimity on the most suitable approach (Freese, 2007). For example, the content-oriented approach probes the particular terms of the contract, such as security, challenging task, opportunities for career development and training, flexible working hours etc. (Guest, 2004). On the other hand,

the evaluation- based approach examines the degree of violations and fulfillment of the psychological contract (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

The tremendous surge of interest in the research on the psychological contract is not only by the changing organizational practices or other factors described above but also by the growing body of empirical evidence demonstrating the role of the psychological contract in influencing other traditional organizational constructs. For example, studies have revealed that if there is a fulfillment of the psychological contract, workers experience higher satisfaction in their jobs; develop a trust and intent to remain in the organization (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Moreover, researchers (Goddard, 1984; Rousseau, 1989; Sok, Blomme & Tromp, 2013; Deepthi & Baral, 2013; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007) have advocated that PC is related positively with productivity, ethical behaviour, reduced turnover, in-role performance and self- perceived employability. However, when the psychological contract is not fulfilled, employees are more likely to leave or quit and less likely to engage in pro-social behaviour (Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). The uniqueness and value of this construct are apparent, and despite critiques of its similarity with the expectations construct (Arnold, 1996; Guest, 1998), researchers have distinguished the two and demonstrated that the psychological contract construct has explanatory power above and beyond that of expectations (Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). Rousseau (1989) posits that psychological contract is important for organizational effectiveness.

Moreover, extant research reveals that most of the studies on psychological contract have been done on psychological breach and contract violation or the dysfunctional consequences of breach (Nelson &Tonks, 2007; Raja, Jhons & Ntalianis, 2004; Restubog, Hornsey, Bordia & Esposo, 2008; Zhao et al., 2007), and relatively minimal attention have been given to the PC fulfillment or its functional consequences (Lambert, Edwards & Cable, 2003; Lester, Kickul, Bergmann, 2007; Rousseau, 2004). Moreover, much of the previous research on psychological contracts have been done in North America (Hui, Lee & Rousseau, 2004; King & Bu, 2005; Westwood, Sparrow & Leung, 2001) with relatively few studies in collectivist cultures. Thus, more research is needed in Asian settings.

2.4.3.1 Origin of Psychological Contract

The notion of PC has been discussed since 1960 (Argyris, 1960; Levinson, 1965). The term "psychological work contract" (p. 96) was first introduced in 1960 by Argyris in his book *Understanding Organizational Behaviour* to explain the association between factory line employees and the foreman. He used the word to understand the implied relationship between

the parties to the contract (leader and followers). Next, Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl and Solley (1962) were ascribed with escalating the definition of the psychological contract in his book Men, Management, and Mental Health. His work was influenced by the work of Karl Menninger (1958), Theory of Psychoanalytic Technique. On the basis of an interview conducted with 874 employees in an electric utility, he has offered the definition of the psychological contract. Leventhal et al. (1962) describe the unwritten nature of PC whereby both employers and employees identify other's reciprocated obligations and expectations.

Further, Schein (1965) has used the earlier work of Argyris (1960) and Levinson et al. (1962) in his book, *Organizational Psychology*. His perspective centers on the mutual expectation employee and organization hold for each other. This perspective is in accordance with the view of Leventhal's work. However, a shift happened in 1989 with the research article of Denise Rousseau's "Psychological and Implied Contracts in Organizations". The main matter in his definition is the belief that a promise has been given and a consideration is offered in exchange for it. This binds the parties to a set of reciprocal obligations. In contrary to the earlier work or theorist, Rousseau clears that her perspective of psychological contract is not from the level of the dyad or group, but from individual's level. This shows a shift of PC from an employee-organization interaction level to the personal level. The development of the notion of PC has its historical roots in Barnard's (1938) theory of equilibrium and Gouldner's (1960) theory of reciprocity (1960).

2.4.3.2 Nature and Types of the Psychological Contract

The term contract is often understood as a negotiated agreement between a labour union and an employing organization, whereas PC underlies the relationship between employer and employees which is less formal in nature (Sims, 1994). PCs are informal and unwritten in nature, depending upon the interaction between employees and organization. PC is an individual-level construct that pertains to the employee's perceptions of what the organization has promised to him or her. It is used to fill the gaps in formal contracts that are unable to capture all possible aspects of the employment relationship between employees and their employer (Shore & Tetrick, 1994). The implicit understanding of psychological contract is subjective and idiosyncratic. In other words, an understanding of the psychological contract does not need to be agreed formally by both parties, or even shared by others (Kickul, Lester & Belgio, 2004; Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

In a similar vein, Coyle- Shapiro and Kessler (2000) indicated that psychological contracts are perceptual in nature. Thus, employer and employees may interpret differently the content and

the degree to which each party has fulfilled the mutual obligations of the exchange. Instead, such beliefs may be influenced by individual differences (Arthur & Rousseau, 1996; Pugh, Skarlicki, & Passell, 2003; Rousseau & Schalk, 2000) and organizational practices (Grant, 1999; Kotter, 1973; Schein, 1980; Thomas & Anderson, 1998; Wright, Larwood, & Doherty, 1996). Personal cognition, differences in personal values and message delivery may give rise to different interpretations of the PCs (Coyle- Shapiro & Kessler, 2000). Several researchers (Ho, 2005; Rousseau, 2004; Ye, Melissa & Rivera, 2012) have argued that mutuality and level of agreement between the parties are crucial elements of psychological contracts. PCs are likely to be fulfilled when both the parties are agreeing to the terms of the contract. Researchers (Shore & Tetrick, 1994) have discussed that the terms and conditions of the contract may vary depending on (a) the employees' goals and b) the goals of and the challenges facing the organization.

Rousseau & Tijoriwala (1999) advocate that an employee's psychological contract consists of his or her perceptions of what the organization has promised to him or her; one of the distinguishing features of the psychological contract is that it pertains to individuals' perceptions, and thus could vary with the person and is subjective in nature. Individuals develop these perceptions based on administrative or structural signals such as employee handbooks, as well as interpersonal sources consisting of multiple contract makers like managers, coworkers, and mentors (Rousseau, 1995). Hence, even though the psychological contract deals with individual perceptions, the process by which these perceptions are created is a social one, influenced by information from a multitude of social actors.

Moreover, Rousseau (1995) offered that the employees within organizations understand the terms and conditions of psychological contract in three ways. First, through communication (oral and written) in the form of advice, directives, promise or actual statements from co-workers, interviewers, and managers. Second, through observation of the supervisors, coworkers, and other members and how they are treated by the organization, gives social signals that apprise the employee of his/her contractual obligations. Third, the organization gives structural cues that send information through HR practices like performance appraisal, compensation and organizational literature, such as handbooks, company magazine and mission and vision statements. The HR system of organization sends strong signals concerning what the organization expects from the employees and what they can expect in reciprocation.

Extant literature has highlighted that there are four types of psychological contracts: transactional, relational, balanced and transitional contracts (Rousseau 1995, 2000). These four

types of contracts emphasize on a different type of exchange relationships between the employer and employee. Rousseau (2000) claimed that PC generally lies along a continuum between the two extremes of transactional and relational contract, with the particular location of any given PC depending on the personality of an individual. On the basis of this definition, PC is a one- dimensional notion. Transactional contracts are short term and explicit in nature which includes economic or instrumental exchanges between employees and organizations. Robinson et al. (1994, p. 139) posits "specific, monetizable exchanges between parties over a finite and often brief period of time". Thus, employees would have a narrow scope of obligations towards their organization, such as employment guarantee, contributing towards organization in accordance with the rewards provided and focusing on formal work role. This transactional contract demands less loyalty and commitment from employees in exchange of a narrow extent of obligations of employers. In contrary, the relational contract is long –term non-economic exchanges between employer and employee where employees expect opportunities for growth and identification (Rousseau, 1990) in exchange for their inputs given or provided. The relational contracts are viewed as less tangible and more implicit. The relational contract is denoted by the collectivist human tendency and emotional connection to the workplace (Robinson & Morrison, 1995), and has comprehensive social norms. Thus, employees with a relational contract with the organization might think that interesting and challenging task, harmonious work relationships, job security and a wide variety of developmental opportunities is the obligations of the organization towards them. Relational contract enhances the sense of community among employees.

Guzzo and Noonan (1994) advocated that PC being subjective and volatile basically inclines more toward the relational contract. Balanced contracts combine characteristics of both transactional and relational such that the terms of exchange involve in-role behaviour by the employee that is well-defined but open-ended to empower the organizations to achieve competitive advantage. Lastly, Rousseau argued transitional contracts, which take place during the times of organizational change. However, existing research suggests that transactional and relational contract has been used widely in psychological contract research (Rousseau & Morrison, 1995) and referred as the foundation classifications in Rousseau framework" (O' Donohue, Sheehan, Hecker & Holland, 2007).

2.4.3.3 Definitions of Psychological Contract

The term psychological contract was coined by Argyris (1960) and Levinson et al. (1962) to characterize the subjective nature of the employment relationship. Levinson et al. (1962) define

PC as "a series of mutual expectations of which the parties to the relationship may not themselves be even dimly aware but which nonetheless govern their relationship to each other (p. 21)". Rousseau (1989, 1995, p. 123) defines PC as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding the terms of an exchange agreement between the individual and their organization". Rousseau (1995) describes PC as a "bundle of benefits that employees and employers hold about their perceived mutual obligations". Rousseau (2004) defines psychological contract as "employees' understanding based on explicit or implied promises, about the mutual exchange relationship with their organizations".

According to expectancy theory, the PC is the unwritten expectation that employees have about the organization. From the viewpoint of social exchange theory (SET), PC is a belief in mutually favourable commitments. It involves a subjective social exchange relationship between an employee and employer (Rousseau, 2004). By assimilating definitions of other scholars on PC (Brooks, 1999; Robinson et al., 1994; Robinson & Morrison, 1995) PC is recognized as:

(a) the individual's belief that their organization will meet with the unwritten obligation to sustain the relationship; and

(b) the individual's perception of how the organization will execute those obligations, practically

2.4.3.4 Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Psychological contract fulfillment refers to the extent to which one party has kept the promises or commitments made to the other party (Rousseau, 1989). Rousseau and Tijoriwala (1998) define PC fulfillment as employee perceptions concerning the degree to which the organization has provided on what was promised. PC fulfillment is viewed as a key concept in enhancing organizational effectiveness as psychological contract fulfillment generates the feeling of being respected, which in turn enhances trust, and positive work outcomes for employee and their organization (Coyle- Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). The nature of PC fulfillment is different from other types of evaluations, such as PC breach and PC violation. Morrison and Robinson (1997) define PC breach as the cognition that one's organization has failed to meet one or more obligations. On the other hand, PC violation refers to the variety of deep emotional responses that result from accusing one's organization of a broken promise. This comprises emotional distress, anger, wrongful harms and feelings of betrayal (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau, 1989).

As it is apparent that one defining feature of the psychological contract is its subjective nature since the contract is viewed from the eyes of an employee. As such, evaluations of psychological contract fulfillment are also subjective and likely to vary across employees, even in the unlikely instance that an organization provides its employees with equal levels of resources and benefits. In addition, PC fulfillment has important repercussions for organizations, and it is ill-advised for firms to pay attention only to the fulfillment of the formal contract and assume that fulfillment of the psychological one is trivial.

Likewise, just as PC is affected by social information, the evaluation of PC fulfillment is also social in nature. In fact, Robinson (1996: 576) acknowledged that the experience of PC breach should depend on social and psychological factors specific to the employment relationship in which it occurs. This is not surprising, given that employees typically interact with organizational members on a frequent, if not daily, basis, and will inevitably observe, interpret, and be influenced by the other employees' psychological contract attitudes to a certain extent. Extant PC research has provided a strong body of evidence to demonstrate the significance of PC fulfillment to organizations and employees alike.

Empirically, the consequences of PC fulfillment have been shown to be varied and significant in their effects. In terms of attitudinal consequences, researchers have found evidence that the greater the fulfillment of PC, the higher will be employees' job satisfaction (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 2000), organizational satisfaction (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), organizational commitment (Liao-Troth, 1999; Coyle- Shapiro & Kessler, 2000), and trust in the organization (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Also, employees whose psychological contracts are well fulfilled would be less likely to perceive injustice or unfairness (Liao-Troth, 1999; Rousseau & Anton, 1991; Rousseau & Aquino, 1993), and have less intent to quit (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 2000).

PC fulfillment has also been found to influence employees' behavioural outcomes. For example, employees whose psychological contracts have not been fulfilled tend to cut back on positive behaviours, such as OCB (Coyle- Shapiro & Kessler, 2000; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995; Turnley & Feldman, 2000), organizational loyalty (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), and overall job performance (Robinson, 1996). In addition, they also adopt more behaviour that are detrimental to the organization, including higher turnover (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), greater job search behaviours (Turnley & Feldman, 1999), greater neglect of duties (Turnley & Feldman, 1999; 2000), and higher frequency of complaints (Turnley & Feldman, 1999). On the whole, these studies provide a strong foundation on which to conclude

that PC fulfillment is a crucial organizational construct, from both practical as well as theoretical standpoints. There are different ways to measure the extent of PC fulfillment. These methods range from a global indication of fulfillment to scales that tap into several specific components of employees' psychological contracts. The current research will examine the impact of PC fulfillment on organizational justice perceptions and KS behaviour.

2.5 Work Engagement

In today's complex business arena, which is characterized by demographic changes, technological advances, globalization, multiculturalism, intense competition, organizations are under constant competitive pressures to grow and survive (Palo & Panigrahi, 2004). In this uncertain working context, approaches that use human resources to become more competent have become more important (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). More than before, organizations need employees who are energetic, proactive, dedicated and engaged more than ever before (Bakker & Leiter, 2010; Santosh & Baral, 2015) because human resources are crucial to the success and endurance of organizations. Consequently, management and human resource professional have started to explore the notion of employee engagement. Summing up, contemporary organizations need an engaged workforce. Employee engagement has garnered enormous attention of scholars and practitioners in recent years. Kahn (1990) introduced the notion of engagement in business context about 20 years ago. He proposed that personal engagement occurs when 'people bring in or leave out their personal selves during work- role performances'. The term engagement has been mentioned as personal engagement, employee engagement, work engagement and job engagement (Hakanen, Bakker & Demerouti, 2005; Harter, Schmidt & Hayes, 2002; Kahn, 1990; Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). However, work engagement is the widely used term that is found in the extant academic literature.

Engagement has got tremendous popularity among practitioners; however, it is still a growing concept in academic research (Karatepe & Demir, 2014; Shuck & Reio, 2011). Saks (2006, p. 600) also posits that "there [remains] surprising dearth of research on employee engagement in the academic literature". Moreover, extant literature reveals that most of the studies on work engagement have been performed on western samples or developed countries such as Finland, Sweden, Canada, Netherlands and Spain (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti & Xanthopoulou, 2007; Saks, 2006; Salanova, Aqut, & Peiro, 2005; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Thus, more research is needed in non-western samples.

Work engagement is observed as one of "hottest topics in management" and "undoubtedly something worthy of investigation" (Taris, Cox & Tisserand, 2008, p. 185; Welbourne, 2007, p. 45). Work engagement denotes positive work experience which produces several benefits to the organization (Park & Gursoy, 2012). Organizations have been investigating the phenomenon of work engagement as a driver of performance advantage (Macey & Schneider, 2008; Macey, Schneider, Barbera & Young, 2009). Christian, Garza and Slaughter (2011) indicated that employee engagement relates positively to individual and organizational performance. Engaged employees are widely perceived as being a key ingredient for a productive workforce (Erickson, 2005)

2.5.1 Conceptualization of Work Engagement

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995, p. 110) advocate that work engagement encompasses investing the "hands, head, and heart" in the work. Employee engagement has been conceptualized in three diverse ways in the extant literature: The first was given by Kahn (1990) since he was the one who has offered a basis for the theoretical development of work engagement. According to Kahn (1990), engagement is defined as "harnessing of organization members' selves to their work roles" (p. 694). Employees who are engaged in their work are physically engrossed in their jobs, cognitively attentive and alert, and are emotionally associated to their work and others in the organization (Ferrer, 2005).

The next approach to engagement was in the study on burnout. It is conceptualized as the contrary or the positive antithesis to the three dimensions of burnout: cynicism, exhaustion, and inefficacy (Maslach & Leiter, 1997; Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). Thus, a low score on all the three aspects of cynicism, inefficacy and exhaustion show the three features of engagement: energy, involvement, and efficacy. The third approach for employee engagement was provided by Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonza lez- Roma and Bakker (2002). This conceptualization asserts that engagement and burnout are contrariwise related to each other and are independent states of mind.

2.5.2 Definitions of Work Engagement

To understand the conceptual development of work engagement, we draw from several definitions. Kahn (1990) presented the scholarly definition of engagement. He defines engagement as the "degree to which employees are engaged physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performance" (p. 692) and "in disengagement people withdraw and defend themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally during role performances" (p. 694). However, Schaufeli et al. (2002) and Schaufeli and Bakkers (2010) offered the following

widely used definition of work engagement: "a positive, fulfilling work-related state of mind that is characterized by vigour, dedication, and absorption". Vigour is defined as "high levels of energy and mental resilience while working, the willingness to invest efforts in one's work, and persistence even in the face of difficulties", whereas dedication refers to "a sense of significance, enthusiasm, inspiration, pride, and challenge" (p. 74). Lastly, absorption refers to "being fully concentrated and deeply engrossed in one's work, whereby time passes quickly and one has difficulties with detaching ones from work" (p. 75).

Rothbard (2001, P. 656) describe the two components of engagement; attention and absorption. Attention denotes to the "cognitive ability and the amount of time one spends thinking about a role", whereas absorption means "being engrossed in a role and refers to the intensity of one's focus on a role". Harter et al. (2002, p. 269) engaged employees are emotionally connected and cognitively vigilant. They "know what is expected of them, have what they need to do their work, have opportunities to feel an impact and fulfilment in their work, perceive that they are part of something significant with co-workers whom they trust, and have chances to improve and develop". Further, Macey et al. (2009, p. 5) define engagement as "psychic kick of immersion, striving, absorption, focus, and involvement". Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees & Gatenby (2010. P. 5) define engagement as "being positively present during the performance of work by willingly contributing intellectual effort, experiencing positive emotions and meaningful connections to others". Though researchers have taken different perspectives on employee engagement (Harter et al., 2002; Kahn, 1990; Maslach et al. 2001) " there is an increasing consensus that engagement can be defined in terms of high levels of energy and high levels of involvement in work" (Bakker, Tims & Derks, 2012, p. 22). The academic literature approves that engagement comprises of connecting oneself to work (Saks, 2006). Thus, an engaged employee is someone who is fully absorbed in work and determined while working (Gruman & Saks, 2011). Engaged employees are not only happier, but also spend more time in their work. However, engagement has been defined in numerous ways, Schaufeli et al. (2002) definition has become the most frequently used one.

Kahn (1990) has defined psychological conditions of engagement which are as follows: meaningfulness, safety, and availability. The meaningfulness is the extent to which employees invest themselves into their role performances and experience a return on that investment such as feeling esteemed by the organization. Safety is the degree to which employees feel comfortable to show the self without adversely influencing the self-image, status or career.

Availability is the employees' belief that he or she has the emotional, cognitive and physical resources to involve the self at work.

2.5.3 Engagement and Related Constructs

It is also important to explain how engagement differs from seemingly similar existing constructs in the literature. Specifically, engagement is often questioned for being closely related to job satisfaction, job involvement, and job commitment (Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009). Researchers debate the amount of overlap between job satisfaction and engagement. Job satisfaction refers to, "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300). Although the two differ conceptually, they are often highly related in terms of measurement. A possible explanation for this could be attributed to overlap in the definitions, specifically, that both encompass affective reactions to the job.

Consequently, some researchers endorse measuring engagement with less emphasis on the affective component (Wefald & Downey, 2009). Similarly, job involvement and job commitment also appear to share characteristics with engagement. Job involvement is defined by Kunango (1979) as a cognitive, psychological identification with work. Commitment is defined as an emotional attachment that forms between employees and organizations on the basis of shared interests and values (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Like engagement, both commitment and involvement share a positive connection to work, such that high levels are commonly related to positive work outcomes. However, unlike involvement, engagement is affected by role perceptions and appears to be related to mental and physical health (Brown, 1996). Further, researchers (Yalabik, Popaitoon, Chowne & Rayton, 2013) posited that while engagement is characterized by high arousal, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are characterized by less-activated positive feelings such as gratification and comfort. On inspection, Hallberg and Shaufeli (2006) found strong support for engagement as a separate and distinct construct from involvement and commitment through the use of conceptual differences as well as differing inter-correlation. Furthermore, employee engagement was found to have different associations with external variables, compared to involvement and commitment, specifically with the job and personal characteristics, health complaints, and turnover intentions (Hallberg & Shaufeli, 2006). In a meta- analytic study, Christian et al. (2011) includes affective commitment, job involvement and job involvement as mediators due to their resemblances with work engagement and their contiguity to work outcomes (Christian et al., 2011). However, findings show that work engagement explains more variance in predicting outcomes. Based on

the above arguments, it can be said that work engagement is empirically distinct from other constructs (Christian et al., 2011).

Moreover, it appears that work engagement is a better determinant of job performance than job attitudes (Rich et al., 2010). Thus, despite disagreement among researchers regarding the possible overlap with the above variables, many researchers support the notion that engagement is indeed a separate and unique concept (Brown, 1996; Hallberg & Schaufeli, 2006; Wefald & Downey, 2009).

2.5.4 Model of Work Engagement

In an effort to conceptualize the dynamics surrounding on work engagement, Bakker and Demerouti (2008) proposed a model of work engagement which posits the mechanisms through which antecedents influence outcomes through engagement. As discussed, most studies examining the antecedents of engagement have focused on work-related factors and personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Saks, 2006). Among these, researchers have found moderate to strong correlations between work engagement and variables such as job characteristics, organization and supervisory support, and organizational justice (Saks, 2006). Such findings are depicted by Bakker and Demerouti's (2008) model of work engagement that depicts job and personal resources as predictors of engagement. As mentioned above, job resources are defined as physical, social, or organizational facets of the job that may influence job demands, work goals, or personal growth and development. Personal resources refer to positive self-evaluations, which are associated with an individual's sense of their capability to control and influence their environment effectively (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Job demand-resource model is a frequently used framework in the research on engagement, as the paucity of resources has been linked with disengagement (Demerouti, Bakker, De Jonge, Janssen & Schaufeli, 2001).

Existing studies have documented that work engagement is positively related to several individual outcomes, such as job satisfaction, commitment, extra role customer service, performance, creativity, active coping style, innovative work behaviour, organization citizenship behaviours, customer loyalty and satisfaction (Agarwal, 2014; Attridge, 2009; Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker & Xanthopoulou, 2013; Gruman & Saks, 2011; Karatepe, 2011; Navin, 2013; Rich et al., 2010; Rurkkhum & Bartlett, 2012; Saks, 2006; Salanova et al., 2005; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2007). However, relatively less attention has been devoted to work engagement and knowledge sharing relationship.

Moreover, while invigorating various individual outcomes, engagement contributes to the firm performance, innovation, financial turnover and considered to be a keystone of sustained competitive advantage (Hakanen, Perhoniemi & Toppinen & Tanner, 2008; Macey, Schneider, Barbera & Young, 2011; Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, Schaufeli, 2009). Further, practitioners have stated that engaged employees contribute to the bottom line through improvements in creativity, employee health, productivity and reduced absenteeism (Attridge, 2009). Bakker (2009) suggests causes as to how and why the employees who are engaged make a better performance as compared to those non-engaged. First, engaged employees frequently undergo emotions that are positive like enthusiasm, joy, and happiness which are believed to broaden people's "thought-action repertoire"—the range of potential actions the body and mind are prepared to take. This greater range allows attention to shift to new matters and encourages initiation of new behaviours (Fredrickson, 2003). It is significant to note, however, that the causality of this association has not been examined. Consequently, it is possible that employees who already experience high levels of positive emotions are then more likely to experience heightened levels of engagement. Second, engaged employees experience better psychological and physical health, which allows individuals to use their full mental and physical resources, and, in turn, facilitate performance (Bakker, van Emmerik, Geurts & Demerouti, 2008).

Though work engagement has been linked to a variety of attitudinal and behavioural consequences, relatively few studies have investigated the linkages between work engagement and knowledge sharing. Given the significance of engagement to organizations' success, it is vital for researchers and practitioners to explore the determinants of work engagement.

2.6 Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

In today's knowledge-centered economy, knowledge is considered as a vital resource for organizations. Organizations are primarily dependent on knowledge for endurance and success (Grant, 1996; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Therefore, procuring knowledge has become a factor of strategic importance to organizations in the current complex environment. Davidson & Voss (2002) viewed an organization's knowledge as a driver of competitive advantage. In a similar vein, Nonaka (1991), talked about knowledge as a competitive advantage and the value of continuous innovation to a knowledge-creating company. Nonaka (1991, p. 96-97) stated that organizations must manage the creation of new knowledge to be able to "respond quickly to customers, create new markets, rapidly develop new products, and dominate emergent technologies". Nonaka (1991, p. 96) highlighted knowledge as "the one sure source of lasting competitive advantage", and knowledge sharing as a necessary activity in a knowledge creating

company. Nonaka (1991, p. 97) went on to state that, "new knowledge always begins with the individual," and that a key to the knowledge-creating process is, "personal commitment, [or] the employees' sense of identity with the enterprise and its mission." Due to the importance of knowledge to organizations, knowledge management (KM) become a critical activity.

2.6.1 Knowledge Management

Knowledge management (KM) has received the enormous attention of scholars and practitioners in the last two decades (Parise & Henderson, 2001). The key reason behind the growing popularity of KM is the contribution of knowledge workers in the development of the knowledge economy. Researchers (Horta, 2009; Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2000) have suggested that KM is a vital source of organizational performance and competitive advantage. Further, scholars (Lee, Helo, Siriwatchrakit, Comepa, Chuancharoen & Phusavat, 2011; Oyefolahan and Dominic, 2013; Pastuszak, Shyu, Lee, Anussornnitisarn & Kaewchur, 2012) have stated that KM helps in sustaining organizational learning and development of competencies. An organization gets huge benefits when the competence of employees' is developed (Rao &Palo 2013). Shih, Chang and Lin (2010) advocated that it is important for organizations to employ KM to accumulate intellectual capital.

The concept of knowledge management was popularized by Drucker (1988) in his seminal work: *The Coming of the New Organization*. Drucker discussed a shift in the types of workers and the types of work that would be found in organizations of the future. Drucker used the terms *knowledge worker* and *knowledge organization* to describe these concepts. Drucker stated that "To remain competitive - maybe even to survive-businesses will have to convert themselves into organizations of knowledgeable specialists" (Drucker, 1988, p. 50). The research on knowledge management has emphasized on the knowledge-based view (KBV) of the organization (Grant, 1996; Nonaka, 1991) which is an outgrowth of the resource-based view (RBV).

Though a lot of studies have been conducted on KM, there are no certain definitions yet recognized in the literature. Therefore, the definitions offered here will serve as a basis for understanding the notion of KM. To understand the concept of KM, the definitions provided by Davenport and Prusak (1998) and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) will be used, who were recognized as the most prominent authors in the field of KM (Edwards et al., 2003). Davenport (1994) defined KM "as the process of capturing, disseminating, and effectively using knowledge in an organization". Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) define KM as the identification of types of knowledge required to assist the overall business strategy, the evaluation of the present

state of the organization's knowledge, and transformation of the existing knowledge base in the stronger knowledge base by filling voids.

Further, Iandoli & Zollo (2007) define KM "as the array of practices and techniques employed by an organization to recognize, represent and disseminate knowledge, expertise, know- how, intellectual capital and other types of knowledge for leverage, reuse and transfer of knowledge across the organization". Dalkir (2005) defines KM as a "process of capturing, developing, sharing, and using the knowledge that an organization acquires. Among the several processes or elements of KM, knowledge sharing is a key component of KM. Knowledge sharing is an important construct in both the organizational learning and knowledge management literature (Argyris & Schön, 1978). Therefore, sharing knowledge is important for organizations and should be further understood and researched. A brief overview of knowledge will be provided in the next section.

2.6.2 Knowledge

In order to cognize knowledge sharing and how employees involve themselves in these activities, knowledge itself is a concept that demands to be defined. The notion of knowledge has evolved and been transformed from the industrial revolution to the 21st century. Knowledge is observed as a valuable intangible resource that plays a vital role in achieving competitive advantage (Rao & Palo, 2013). In the context of information technology, knowledge is a key driver of business value (Malladi, Dominic & Kamil, 2011). At a basic level, knowledge is defined as an extensive and structured set of information (Gundry & Metes, 1996). The most notable and recognized definition of knowledge was given by Davenport & Prusak (1998) that define knowledge as "a fluid, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and new information" (p. 5). Kakabadse, Kakabadse and Kouzmin (2003) define knowledge as "meaningful and organized accumulation of information through experience, communication or inference." Nonaka and Takeuchi (2004) define knowledge as a "set of justified true beliefs".

Extant literature underlines that there are two types of knowledge, namely explicit and implicit (Nonaka & Tekeuchi, 1995; Polanyi, 1966). These two kinds of knowledge will reside in any organization (Nonaka, 1991, 2004). Explicit knowledge refers to the form of knowledge that is formal and systematic (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Explicit knowledge can be found in manuals, audios, and computer programs, and can be easily captured, articulate and manipulated. In contrast, tacit knowledge is more personal in nature which makes it quite complicated to articulate and formalize. Tacit knowledge is found basically in the individual's

minds and thoughts, therefore, difficult to codify (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Examples of tacit knowledge are ideas, beliefs, intuitions, hunches, insights and visions. According to Pawlowski and Robey (2004), in today's organization, the most difficult issue is how to capture and codify employees' tacit knowledge. Thus, managing knowledge is an imperative issue within organizations and makes knowledge management (KM) a crucial endeavour within organizations.

2.6.3 Definitions of Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing has been regarded as an important building block for an organization's survival and success in a knowledge-intensive economy (Witherspoon et al., 2013). Though neglected in the earlier years, knowledge sharing began to solicit the attention of HRD (human resource development) practitioners after understanding that KM and its processes should be the area of core concern in HRD domain (Blankenship & Ruona, 2009). Knowledge sharing plays an imperative role in engendering new ideas and creating business opportunities (Grant, 1996). Several researchers (Argote & Ingram, 2000; Kearns & Lederer, 2003; Liao, 2006; Wakefield, 2005) have stated KM and, more specifically knowledge sharing a source of competitive advantage. Further, researchers (Dominic, Goh, Wang & Chen, 2010) advocated that service quality is crucial for organizations, particularly for service sectors, and the quality of service is dependent on knowledge sharing (Su & Dou, 2013). Heitor and Horta (2011) stated that diffusion of knowledge leads to the development of societies.

Knowledge sharing has been defined in several ways by various authors. According to Blumentritt and Johnson (1999), knowledge sharing may involve know- what, know- how, know- when, or know- why. Lee (2001) defines knowledge sharing as "activities of transferring or disseminating knowledge from one person, group, or organization to another" (p. 324). According to Cabrera and Cabrera (2002), knowledge sharing refers to as the exchange or dissemination of explicit or tacit knowledge, experiences, skills and ideas among individual employees or group of employees. Ipe (2003) define knowledge as a psychological process that entails a series of initiatives to aid employees to recognize the knowledge they hold and then stimulate, encourage and enable them to share knowledge with others. Ryu, Ho and Han (2003) define KS as the behaviours of distributing one's procured knowledge with others within one's workplace. Knowledge sharing denotes a learning process that enables "the exchange of collective knowledge, which can be transformed into innovation and change" (MacNeil, 2003, p. 302). Christensen (2007) describes KS is about recognizing present and available knowledge in order to transfer this knowledge to perform the specific task faster, better and cheaper. Kuo

et al. (2014) stated KS as the dynamic mechanism through which knowledge is transferred from one to another. For maximum advantage, knowledge must flow faster and effectually to where it is required in the organization. The process seems similar to knowledge transfer whereby it also involved knowledge source and knowledge recipient (Goh, 2002).

Extant literature indicates that there are two perspectives on knowledge sharing, namely unidirectional and bidirectional. The unidirectional perspective, suggests sharing or dissemination of knowledge in a single direction, i.e. from the provider to the recipient (Yi, 2009). In other words, knowledge sharing is dependent on the provider and not the recipient. In contrast, the bi-directional perspective suggests knowledge sharing is a two-way process, where both the parties (provider and recipient) are important for sharing. This perspective has got immense support from various scholars like Karkoulian, Harake and Messarra (2010) and Lin (2007b). Furthermore, several researchers (Wang, Wang & Liang, 2014; Yang, 2007; Yesil & Dereli, 2013) have corroborated the relationship of knowledge sharing with several organizational outcomes, such as innovation, firm performance, organizational effectiveness. Therefore, sharing knowledge is crucial in an organizational setting.

In today's business environment, much of the work or tasks are collaborative, so most work-related knowledge is shared, with no one individual "owing" it. However, people are reluctant to share knowledge which can be detrimental to organizational endurance (Lin, 2006). Thus, identifying the factors that can impede or foster knowledge sharing is of greatest significance to researchers as well as practitioners. Argote and Ingram (2000) argued that by embedding knowledge into the interactions that involve people, tasks, and tools, an organization could help effect knowledge transfer within the organization. They went on to state that knowledge that had been created and transferred within an organization, but not transferred external to the organization, could be used as a source of competitive advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000, p. 150). In their study, Kearns and Lederer (2003) developed a model that showed how knowledge sharing in the strategic alignment of an organization's information technology plan with its business plan could create new organizational strategies that in turn created a competitive advantage. Wakefield (2005, p. 935) argued that knowledge transfer is not only crucial to knowledge management protocols, but also that competitive advantages can be derived from the use of successful knowledge transfer approaches. Liao (2006, p. 227) built a model that tested the relationship between KS behaviour and firm innovation in a learning organization. Liao (2006, p. 227) also stated that "sharing knowledge and firm innovation are

the crucial ways to sustain competitive advantage. Argyris and Schon (1978, p.19) presented KS as one of the four conditions for organizational learning.

Several researchers found various antecedents of knowledge sharing. For instance, Bock et al. (2005, p. 88) advocated that attitude toward and subjective norms with regard to knowledge sharing as well as organizational climate affects individuals' intentions to share knowledge. Bryant (2005) completed a study to look for a relationship between peer mentoring and knowledge creation and sharing. The study concluded that there was a positive relationship between perceived levels of peer mentoring and perceived levels of both knowledge creation and sharing. Finally, Ko, Kirsch and King (2005), studied a specific instance of knowledge transfer, that is the knowledge transfer between consultants and clients when the client was implementing an enterprise system (e.g. a system for enterprise resource planning (ERP)). He and his team concluded that nine of the 13 antecedents in the study had a significant direct or indirect effect on knowledge transfer between consultants and clients during an enterprise system implementation. Oyefolahan, Dominic and Karim (2012) found that to make knowledge sharing effective within organizations both the autonomous motivation to use and KMS utilization play a crucial role. In a similar vein, Kaeomanee, Dominic and Rias (2014) found a positive effect of attitude, perceived behavioural control and the subjective norm on knowledge sharing. Palo and Charles (2013) found that subjective norm towards KS has the strongest influence on intention to share knowledge. Amayah (2013) identified normative considerations, personal benefits and community- related considerations as the three key motivators of knowledge sharing. More recently, Shaari, Bakri & Rahman (2015) found presenteeism, altruism, and virtual communities of practices (CoP) as some of the robust antecedents of KS behaviour. This body of knowledge highlights the significance of knowledge sharing as a crucial area of research.

Knowledge sharing is a crucial element in the management of human capital in the public undertakings (Kim & Lee, 2006). Extant research on KS has put emphasis on the likenesses and dissimilarities between public and private sector firms, and factors that affect knowledge sharing. Public sector units are different from private sector units in several ways. First, the goals of the organization in case of public sector units (PSUs) are conflicting and difficult to measure, and are influenced differently by political interference (Pandey & Wright, 2006). Second, PSUs differ from one another, on the basis of control, ownership and funding (Willem & Buelens, 2007). For example, Liebowitz and Chen (2003) stated that knowledge sharing is more difficult in PSUs than private counterparts because most individual relate knowledge with

their power and promotion opportunities. However, there are substantial changes in PSUs in the last two decades. Public sector units are shifting from traditional bureaucratic structure to more managerial one (Sandhu et al., 2011). Public sector units are turning into the knowledge intensive sector in today's changing environment. Therefore, knowledge becomes a crucial resource for public sector units as well (Siong, Salleh, Syed & Syed Ikhsan, 2011) to grow and survive.

In today's competitive arena public sector firms are also facing a tough competition for resources from different sectors. Thus, managing knowledge is important. Moreover, the extant literature reveals that most of the studies on KS have been performed among students or in private sector units. Thus, there is a need for further research on knowledge sharing in public enterprises (Razzaque et al., 2013). This study ultimately offers an insight into the factors invigorating KS behaviour in PSUs.

2.7 Research Framework of the Study

The proposed framework of the current study is displayed in Figure 2.3 below to demonstrate the relationship between the variables. A pertinent review of the prior literature and the synthesis of extant theories of equity, norm of reciprocity and social exchange reveal the relationships between ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, psychological contract fulfillment, organizational justice, work engagement and their impact on KS behaviour. As shown in Figure 1 below, ethical leadership (social- contextual factor), emotional intelligence (personal factor), and psychological contract fulfillment (contextual factor) are directly related to employees' perceptions of organizational fairness (i.e. distributive, procedural and interactional justice). The proposed model also shows the direct and indirect effects of justice dimensions on KS behaviour. Moreover, this study investigates the mediating effect of organizational justice perceptions between the antecedents (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment) and KS behaviour. This study examines the antecedents of organizational fairness perceptions as well as how and why justice perceptions are related to one of the vital individual outcomes i.e. KS behaviour.
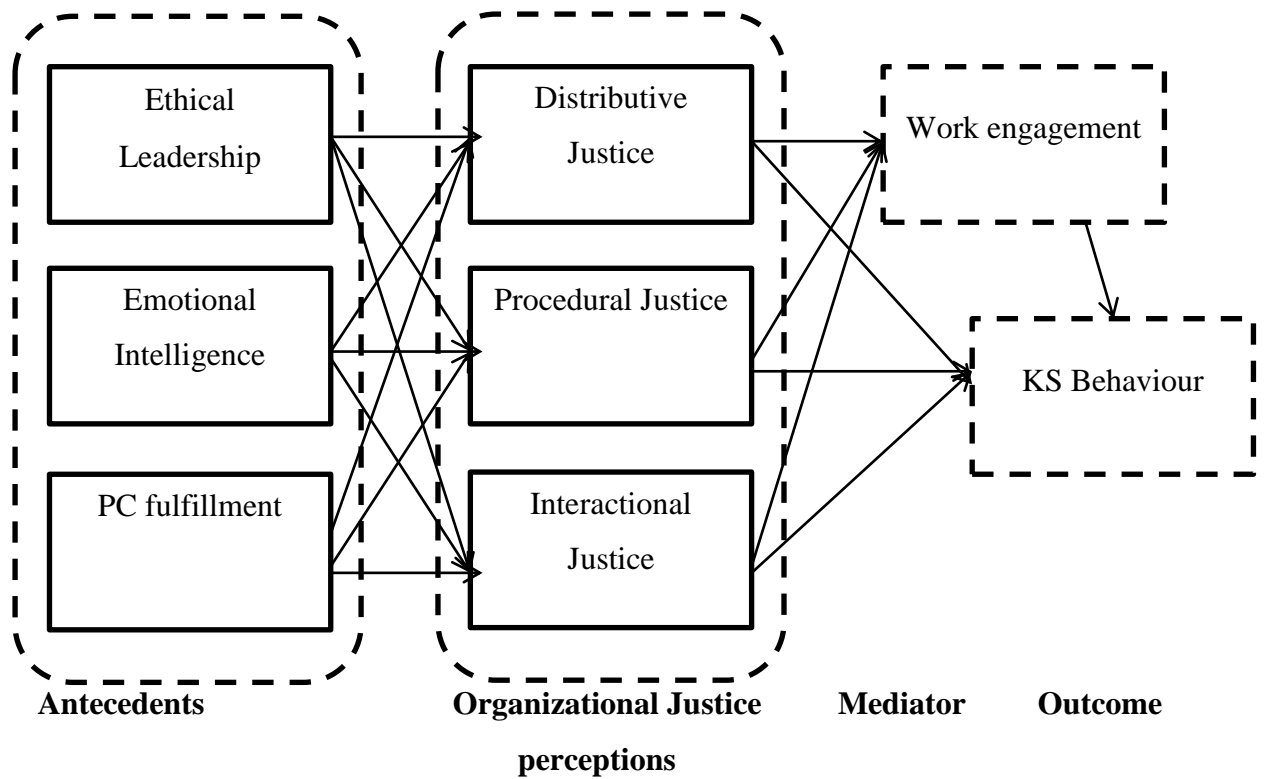
Figure 2.3: Research Framework

2.8 Hypothesis Development

Founded on the review of extant literature, a theoretical framework was developed and hypotheses were formulated. The ensuing section exhibits the basis for hypothesis development. The hypothesized model is shown in figure 2.4.

2.8.1 Ethical Leadership and Organizational Justice

In the past decade, there have been a growing number of scholarly submissions in the domain of ethical leadership (Neubert et al., 2013). However, little is known about the influence of ethical leadership on perceptions of justice (Demirtas, 2013; van Knippenberg et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2014). Researchers (Cho & Dansereau, 2010; van Knippenberg, et al., 2007) have argued that despite the fact that leaders can affect subordinates' fairness perceptions; minimal attention has been provided to fairness perceptions in leadership theories. This inadvertence is quite unexpected as fairness is a fundamental value and virtue within workplace settings (Rawls, 1971). Loi, Lam and Chan (2012) stated that employees' justice perceptions towards their

organization are associated with their moral assumptions concerning how people should be treated in the place of work. In the present study, it is argued that manager's ethical leadership behaviour will affect justice perceptions of employees. Leaders are in an exclusive status to mete out fairness because of their legal power, control of resources, and responsibility for important decisions about employees. Hosmer (1997) posits that organizations' and especially managers' moral behaviour is vital to organizations success in the long run. Flynn (2008) conceded that managers who engage in ethical behaviour must also act as moral agents in nurturing an ethical climate. The subsequent statements will show the linkages between ethical leadership and dimensions of organizational justice perceptions.

Distributive justice is denoted as the perception of fairness with respect to the distribution of resources and outcomes (Greenberg, 1990a; Mahony et al., 2010, p. 93) in the organizations. According to Adam's equity theory (1965), employees perceive the distribution of outcomes as fair when they observe that their input to output ratio is equal to the input and outcome ratio of another person in organizations. In other words, employees who contribute more should receive more in distributions. Researchers have shown that these perceptions of distributive justice are likely to impact future attitudes and behaviours of employees. According to its definition, we expected that ethical leadership will influence perceptions of distributive justice of employees. Ethical leaders are recognized by honesty and trustworthiness, and are known for their ethical standards in decision-making (Brown et al., 2005; Brown & Trevino, 2006; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006). They used to make fair decisions regarding the distribution of resources and outcomes (Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams, 1999).

Trevino et al. (2003) argued that ethical leaders establish standards concerning performance, and reward or punish subordinates according to those standards (Trevino et al., 2003), thus holding them answerable for their behaviour. Basically, they applause ethical behaviour and punish unethical behaviour of employees (Gini, 1998). Thus, subordinates are more likely to see that their outcomes are justifiable with their input, which in turn leads to their bigger perceptions of distributive justice. Brown et al. (2005) conceded that ethical leaders act in the best interest of their followers, thus select to conduct distributive justice in the organization for the benefit of the employees. Moreover, Cropanzano and Rupp (2002) pointed out that ethical leaders are considered as virtuous agents of the organization who perform a critical role in encouraging fair organizational processes and outcomes.

Ethical leaders are recognized for their assertion on doing the right thing while fighting against unsuitable behaviours, and behave ethically at any time and under any situation. Their

subordinates are likely to believe that such leaders are reliable, trustworthy and genuine (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May & Walumbwa, 2005). Furthermore, trust is considered as one of the vital factors in engendering distributive justice perception because it can strengthen the perception of parity (Tan & Tan, 2000). Past studies have documented that trust significantly shaped distributive justice perceptions of employees (Mansour-Cole & Scott 1998; Tyler 1989, 1994). Ethical leaders generate trust among employees, which in turn, develops a positive attitude towards organization (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Tan & Tan, 2000). The more people trust their organization, they are likely to have a strong sense that it would work in the interest of employees. As a result, employees believe that organization will impartially distribute the rewards or resources based on their contribution over time (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

In a similar vein, Xu et al., (2014) found that ethical leaders engender trust among employees towards the organization, thus, employees believe that rewards are allocated equitably. This finding is aligned with Lewicki, Weithoff & Tomlinson (2005) argument that, when employees decide to trust the organization based on the standard of what is ''right'' and ''appropriate'' for them, they would perceive a higher level of distributive justice. Moreover, Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) advocated that leader's behaviour of applying contingent rewards would stimulate the favourable perception of distributive justice. Therefore, it can be said that ethical leadership significantly enhance employees' perception of distributive justice.

Next, procedural justice is described as the fairness perceptions of the processes through which resources and outcomes are distributed. Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen (2002) and Loi, Yang and Diefendorff (2009) suggested that the two types of justice perceptions, i.e. procedural and distributive justice are considered as an organization- focused justice, as the distribution of resources and guidelines for procedures, are set and controlled by the organizations. Few scholars (e.g., Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen & Lowe, 2009) have mentioned that leader has significant influence on employees' perceptions of organization-focused justice (i.e. procedural and distributive justice). Ethical leadership, as theorized by Brown et al. (2005), is mainly concerned with the procedural facets of fair decision making and listening. Avolio (1999) also argued that principled decision making is an important constituent of ethical leadership. Employees perceive procedural fairness when they have a say in decision-making processes and when procedures employed for allocation of outcomes are consistent, ethical, suppress biases and accurate (Leventhal, 1980). Ethical leaders are known for open two –way communication which means they listen to employees while making decisions and ask them "what is the right thing to do?" Moreover, they also convey their expectations to employees.

Demirtas (2013) and Li, Wu and Johnson (2012) stated that ethical leaders act as virtuous agents of the organization, who sustain and encourage compliance with the ethical standards of the organization, such as justice.

Several researchers (Cheng, Chang, Kuo & Cheung, 2014; Qia & Xia, 2014) have documented that ethical leadership has a positive association with employee voice behaviour. Thus, one may expect that their behaviour plays a significant role in influencing employees' fairness perceptions regarding organizational processes or procedures. Ethical leaders' give emphasis on the compliance to organizational policies which draw employees' attention to the organization's fair processes (Loi et al., 2012). Kalshoven et al. (2011) argued that ethical leaders are viewed as altruists who display unpretentious care and concern for employees and the organization, and take the interests and necessities of the organization or employees into consideration while making decisions. Li et al. (2012) validated that employees working under ethical leaders perceive more procedural justice in a study conducted in China. Xu et al., (2014) also found ethical leadership engenders trust in organizations, which in turn enhances the perception of procedural justice.

Similarly, we argue that ethical leadership affects interactional justice perception of employees. Interactional justice is indicated as individual perceptions of being treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by the authority figures. The two main facets of interactional justice are respect and propriety (Bies, 2005; Scott, Zapata & Phelan 2007). Respect refers to treating employees with dignity, sincerity and truthfully, whereas propriety means that leaders avoid making improper and biased statements. Subordinates' perceptions of interactional justice, enhanced when they are treated with respect and dignity, and why the decision made in a particular way is properly explained to them (Colquitt et al., 2001). Trevino et al. (2000, 2003) posit that leader behaviours that exhibit no concern for subordinates contributes to perceptions of unethical leadership, that in turn, could predict unfavourable interactional justice perceptions Ethical leaders also pay attention to the rights and demands of employees (Gini, 1997). Thus, it is expected that they exhibit respect and be sensitive to the emotions of employees, which in turn, enhances the perception of interpersonal justice.

Further, ethical leaders focus more on two-way communication, where they tell their expectations to employees and listen to their opinion, ideas and views and encourage them to speak up without fear of anything (De Hoogh & Den Dartog, 2008). As a result, subordinates are more likely to accept that the decisions made are explained with clarity and propriety. This shows that ethical leadership is positively associated with informational justice. Neubert,

Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts and Chonko (2009) demonstrated that current literature on ethical leadership largely relates to the interactional justice. They further corroborated that the effect of ethical leadership on the ethical climate gets strengthened when an employee perceives manager as interactionally fair. Based on the above arguments, the following hypothesis is framed.

Hypothesis 1: Ethical leadership positively influences (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice.

2.8.2 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Justice

Organizational fairness perceptions of employees' can be influenced by individual characteristics apart from situational factors. One of the most important individual characteristics that can influence fairness perceptions is emotional intelligence (EI). EI is considered as a feature which might get developed by way of training programs (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The extant literature reveals that the research on employees' emotional intelligence and its relationship with justice perceptions is scanty. Therefore, more empirical inquiry is needed in this area.

Extant research has documented that EI plays a vital role in regulating emotional labour, inhibiting burnout and buffering job stress (Karimi, Leggat, Donohue, Fareell & Couper, 2014; Kaur, Sambasivan &Kumar, 2013). Wang et al. (2010) indicated that EI influences how people interpret others' attitudinal and behavioural responses and these elucidations may affect the perceptions of fairness. Quebbeman and Rozell (2002) advocated that EI acts a probable moderator in terms of establishing the connections between perceived injustice and behavioural outcomes in organizations, as emotional intelligence comprises of numerous elements (one being self-control) which impact individual's interpretations and reactions to injustice at work. Taking the propositions of Quebbeman and Rozell (2002) one step forward, Devonish and Greenidge (2010) tested and validated the moderating effect of EI between procedural justice and contextual performance relationship. Recently, Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012) conceded that individuals high on EI levels have better perception and regulation of emotions and are able to tackle with negative feelings such as injustice. They have further examined the direct effect of EI on organizational justice. Findings from that study show that EI explains an incremental variance in organizational justice over and above the variance elucidated by personality traits (Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012).

Other reasons for expecting a positive relationship between EI and perceptions of organizational justice relate to the other branches of the ability model, and specifically the

ability of high EI individuals to understand, regulate and control repeated negative emotions and thoughts in themselves. Their high understanding and control of their own emotions help these individuals avoid rumination about stressful and upsetting events (e.g. repeated thoughts about feelings of distress and the circumstances which caused them) (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). In contrast, low EI individuals are expected to dwell on such events (see Salovey, Stroud, Woolery & Epel, 2002). Gulati and Bhal (2004) in a study performed on Indian software professionals corroborated that the emotional quotient of employees is a strong predictor of both procedural and interactional justice. Recently, Meisler (2013) found that EI is positively related to perceived organizational justice.

In the opinion of some notable scholars, such as Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts, (2004) employees possessing higher EI tend to evaluate the factors, namely; distribution, procedures, and interpersonal interaction more effectively and positively within the organization and definitely judge organizational justice. Contrary to this, employees having lower emotional intelligence enlarge unjust occurrences in the organization. Some eminent researchers like Mikula, Scherer & Athenstaedt (1998) posit that the experience of justice stimulates positive emotions; the experience of injustice provokes negative emotions. Thus, EI should be conceptualized as a fit between a person and his or her environment (Chiva & Alegre, 2008). In other words, people with higher EI are more sensible toward their own and others' emotions in the workplace, which allows them to adjust their mental status, and to develop positive emotional expressions and self-control on the job.

Previous research on cognitive appraisal highlights that employees' work attitudes are influenced in important ways by how they reason about and appreciate emotional information (Choi, Sung, Lee & Cho, 2011; Lazarus, 1991). High EI levels reflect an increased ability to engage in such appreciation and leverage positive emotions (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2006). In particular, EI predisposes employees to be more sensitive and reactive to positive emotion-invoking experiences at work (Day & Carroll, 2004; Zeidner et al., 2004) and to use these experiences in their investment of work-related energy. Individuals with high emotion perceptions are able to place themselves in positive affective states and withstand negative affective states without detrimental consequences (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). The ability to accurately assess and express one's own emotions provides a number of advantages in interpersonal relationships, such as self-confidence and easy rapport (George, 2000). Individuals with high emotion perception skills are sensitive to their own and others' emotions, and thus, effortlessly express their emotions in a manner suited to their environment (Davies et

al., 1998). The interpersonal advantages afforded to individuals with high emotional perceptions (i.e., the ability to empathize with others and communicate in an appropriate manner) allow them to enhance performance among others.

Karim (2011) asserted that employees who are emotionally intelligent have high-quality leader-member exchanges, which in turn, enhance perceptions of distributive justice. Devonish and Greenidge (2010) corroborated the moderating role of EI between justice and contextual performance. In other words, the relationship between procedural justice and contextual performance will be stronger among employees with higher levels of EI. Interactional fairness refers to how justly employees perceive they are being treated interpersonally and informationally during the enactment of organizational procedures (Bies & Moag, 1986). Angelidis and Ibrahim (2011) posited that high levels of EI increase awareness of positive emotions that mark harmonious relationships, such that employees high on EI levels can better understand and appreciate the importance of sharing similar goals with their supervisor. This exhibits that EI is related intensely to social commitment and positive social functioning (Brackett et al., 2006). Additionally, people who have higher EI recognize and respond properly to the emotions of fellow workers, customers, and superiors as compared to those having low EI (Day & Carroll, 2004), since they possess the capability to get swiftly modified from negative to positive moods (Abraham, 1999).

Furthermore, people who have higher EI can better understand organizational norms and rules and display a higher amount of sensitivity to the work setting (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). This shows that employees who have higher EI will perceive more interactional justice. More recently, Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012) found the influence of EI on informational and interpersonal justice. On the basis of the above discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 2: Emotional Intelligence positively influences (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice

2.8.3 Psychological Contract Fulfillment and Organizational Justice

PCs are the key predictors of employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses (Berman & West, 2003). PC acts as a bridge between the employer and the employee with respect to the trust and fairness towards each other (Robinson, 1996; Thompson, 2003). Many studies have highlighted the linkage between employees' performance evaluation and their distrust to their employers in assessing (Maley, 2009; Truss, Hope-Hailey, & McGovern, 1997). Perceived justice predicts PC breach (Allyn, Yun, Radosevich, 2006; Arshada & Sparrow, 2010; Kickul,

Lester & Finkl, 2002), and if an employee perceives an employer is responsible for unfair treatment, the breach has a compounding effect (Robinson & Morrison, 1995).

Thompson & Heron (2005) advocated that procedural and interactional justice moderates the linkage between non- fulfillment of PC and commitment. Procedural justice affects responses to non- fulfillment of PC of extrinsic outcomes (e.g., pay) while interactional justice affects intrinsic outcomes (e.g., autonomy) (Kickul et al., 2002). Restubog et al. (2009) found a moderating effect of procedural justice between PC breach and civic virtue behaviour. They further argued that procedural justice mitigates the negative outcomes arises from low levels of the breach and not when the breach is of a higher magnitude. An employee' perceived obligations to an employer positively correlate with perceptions of organizational fairness (Battisti et al., 2007). Yeh (2010) validated the linkages between fairness perceptions of performance evaluation and the psychological contract. Harrington and Lee (2015) corroborated the positive effect of PC fulfillment on employees' perceived fairness of performance appraisal. Organizational justice comprises of three aspects, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Next, we describe the relationship of PC fulfillment with all the three dimensions of organizational justice.

The significant existence of PC fulfillment makes the employee obligated to feel their respective organization's success and failures (Robinson, Kratz & Rousseau 1994). In relation to this, the Adams equity theory (Adams, 1965) underlines that an employee compares a particular situation with a referent employee. In line to this Goodman (1974) proposed that employees sometimes use the organization as a whole a referent to make their respective judgments and the extent of promises fulfilled (Robinson & Morrison, 1995). This becomes a basis of comparison for the employees to measure their treatment of equitability. The unfulfilled promises might lead to a breach of the psychological contract and is related to the distributive justice (But & Atif, 2014; Robinson & Rousseau 1994). Moreover, the positive association between PC fulfillment and distributive were studied by Zhang and Agarwal (2009).

Among the myriad of outcome concerns, PC fulfillment encompasses social-emotional concerns (Robinson & Rousseau 1994). According to the group-value model, employees in the organization look forward to maintaining social bonds with their peers and expect to be a valued member of the group (Lind & Tyler 1988; Tyler, 1994). The fact that they are considered to be valued enhances the quotients of their procedural justice (Tyler, 1994). Further, Zhang and Agarwal (2009) corroborated the positive influence of PC fulfillment on

procedural justice. Arshada and Sparrow (2010) found that perception of procedural justice predicts PC violation. It means that an employee expects a fair procedure from the organization and if this expectation is not met, they perceive the organization as not fulfilling their obligations.

Rosen, Chang, Johnson and Levy (2009) found the influence of procedural justice on PC breach. They found that PC breach mediates the effect of politics and procedural justice on employee outcomes. In a similar vein, Restubog et al. (2009) advocated that there exist a strong negative relationship between PC breach and civic virtue behaviour of employees under the circumstances of high procedural justice. Chen (2010) said that employees' positive perception of procedural justice, such as formalized compensation programs, transparent performance appraisal process, and equal training opportunity, will improve the positive thinking about the organization because they will believe that the organization values their effort and cares about their well- being.

This study further argues that PC fulfillment positively affects interactional justice perception. When managers provided a lucid explanation regarding the reason for the layoff (Brockner et al., 1990), the employees who survived depicted higher levels of organizational commitment for a quite a long period of time. Interactional justice comprises both informational and interpersonal justice, and therefore, people lack access to information or have poor working relationships with their superiors (low-interactional justice) (Rousseau, 1995). Thus, individuals who are given more truthful and specific information are more likely to have a sense of interactional justice (Gilliland & Paddock, 2005) and because of this are less likely to keep monitoring their organization for possible breaches (Rousseau, 1995, 2011). Chen (2010) said that employees perceive interactional justice when the fulfillment of PC exists. More recently, Cassar and Buttigieg (2015) found that PC breach partially mediated the influence of interactional justice on employee wellbeing. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 3: Psychological contract fulfillment positively influences (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice.

2.8.4 Organizational Justice and Knowledge Sharing

Recent studies have reported that fairness perceptions of employees' in organizational setting influence knowledge sharing. For instance, Yu, Lu and Liu (2010) stated that sharing culture within an organization which includes fairness, identification and openness influences knowledge sharing among virtual community members. In a like vein, Li, Shang, Liu and Xi

(2014) advocated that fairness climate at the workplace contributes to developing a climate of affiliation, which in turn influences knowledge sharing. The linkages of organizational justice dimension with knowledge sharing are explained further.

Existing literature has demonstrated the effect of distributive justice on several work –related attitudinal and behavioural responses, such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, OCB and trust (Mcfarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Jiang, 2015; Deconinck, 2010; Mukherjee & Bhattacharya, 2013; Rai, 2013), that in turn spur knowledge sharing (Holste & Field 2010; Renzl, 2008; Lin, 2007a; Teh & Sun, 2012) among employees. Further, Bartol and Srivastava (2002) suggested fair dissemination of rewards influences knowledge sharing. Chiu, Wang, Shih and Fan (2011) indicated that distributive justice influences knowledge sharing continuance intention among virtual community members via facilitating trust between members. According to Bock et al. (2005), the organizational incentive plans perform a vital role to determine the success or failure of KM. As far as KS is concerned, individuals might show more interest to share knowledge if they are likely to get some benefit.

Similarly, organizational scholars have demonstrated a significant positive association of procedural justice with OCB, organizational commitment (McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Rai 2013, Suliman & Kathairi, 2013; Zeinabadi & Salehi, 2011) and various other cooperative behaviours (Brebels, Cremer & Dijke, 2014). That, in turn, stimulates willingness to share knowledge (Oldham, 2003; Teh & Sun, 2012). Allyn et al. (2006) argued that employees show less possession to their job knowledge when they perceive procedural fairness in the workplace. This infers that employees are more inclined to share their knowledge with others when they believe that procedures used for distribution of outcomes are unbiased or unfair. Further, the findings of Lin (2007a) confirmed the positive effect of procedural justice on knowledge sharing behaviour via trust and organizational commitment. Employment of fair processes in making the decisions will improve the voluntary cooperation among employees which further stimulates knowledge sharing (Kim & Mauborgne 1998).

In a similar vein, higher perceptions of interactional justice results into various positive job-related responses, such as job satisfaction (Judge, Scott & Ilies, 2006), trust (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and commitment (Colquitt et al., 2001), that in turn are observed as significant predictors of knowledge sharing (Holste & Fields, 2010; Hsu & Lin, 2008; Teh & Sun, 2012). Chiu et al. (2011) agreed that interactional justice is positively associated with employees' satisfaction with knowledge sharing that further accelerates continuance intention of knowledge sharing.

Yesil & Dereli (2013) found a positive association of interactional justice and knowledge sharing. Recently, Fadel and Durcikova (2014) found the positive influence of interpersonal and informational justice on procedural justice perception of the knowledge repository validation process, which in turn, stimulates knowledge contribution behaviours. Based on the above arguments, the following hypothesis is developed.

Hypothesis 4: a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice positively influences KS behaviour.

2.8.5 Mediating Role of Work Engagement

Work engagement is described as a positive job-related state of mind which is represented by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Bakker et al., 2012; Hakanen, et al., 2008). This study proposes that fairness perceptions of employees will increase work engagement, which subsequently is expected to stimulate KS behaviour. In other words, this study proposes that work engagement would play a role of mediator between justice perceptions and KS behaviour.

Social exchange theory provides an appropriate framework to understand the relationship. Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) posit that social exchange relationship emerges when organizations take care of their employees, which thereby stimulates advantageous consequences: (p. 882). Hence, it seems that when organizations provide fair treatment to their employees such as fair distribution of rewards, use of fair processes to allocate the resources and rewards, and polite and respectful treatment, employees become more engaged in their work, and in turn, display positive behaviours, such as proactive behaviours and KS behaviour (Hakanen et al., 2008; Saks, 2006; Sonnentag, 2003; Saks, 2006). Further, several researchers have suggested that fairness perceptions of employees exhibit a positive reationship with work engagement (Agarwal, 2014; Ghosh, Rai & Sinha, 2014; Saks, 2006), which in turn affect positive behaviours (Bock et al., 2005; Saks, 2006). The more an employee is committed to the organization and is involved in his or her job, the more likely he or she will be able and willing to share knowledge with others (Chen et al., 2011; Luthans & Peterson, 2002).

Further, the body of current scholarship advocates that work engagement act as a mediator. For instance, Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) corroborated work engagement as a mediator between job resources and proactive behaviours. Richardsen, Burkea, and Martinussen (2006) corroborated the mediating role of work engagement between individual characteristics, job demands and resources, and work outcomes. Based on the above-mentioned discussion, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 5: Work engagement will mediate the influence of (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice on KS behaviour.

2.8.6 Mediating Role of Organizational Justice

Organizational justice is the individual's perceptions of fairness with respect to various business processes and policy decisions (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012). In this study, we propose that the effects of ethical leadership, EI and PC fulfillment on KS behaviour will be indirectly transmitted through employees' justice perceptions. That is ethical leadership, EI and PC fulfillment will increase employees' fairness perceptions towards their organization, which subsequently is expected to promote KS behaviour. As discussed previously, ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment affect justice perceptions of employees within the organization (Cropanzano and Rupp 2002; Di Fabio & Palazzeschi, 2012; De Hoogh & Den Dartog, 2008; Kirkman et al., 2009; Thomas & Heron; Tyler, 1994; Rousseau, 1995), which in turn influences various individual outcomes. Past studies have shown the positive influence of organizational justice on various positive behaviours, such as OCB, innovative work behaviour and proactive behaviour (Yu et al., 2010). Moreover, studies have shown the mediating role of organizational justice between ethical leadership, EI, PC fulfillment and employees' attitudinal and behavioural responses. For instance, Li et al. (2014) found the mediating role of organizational justice, particularly distributive and interpersonal justice between ethical leadership and employees' occupational well-being. Shin, Sung, Choi and Kim (2015) found that procedural justice climate fully mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and firm level organizational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, Manrique- de-lara and Suarez-Acosta (2014) corroborated that ethical leadership mediates the linkages between interactional justice perception for peers and two significant employee responses: deviant workplace behaviours (DWBs) and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCBs). In other words, they argued that supervisors who depict acts of injustice on employees will be perceived as unethical leaders.

Further, several researchers have found the mediating role of justice perceptions between EI and employees' outcomes such as job satisfaction, work engagement, and turnover intentions. Recently, Ouyang, Sang, Ping and Peng (2015) found the full mediating role of organizational justice between EI and job satisfaction. Zhu, Liu, Guo, Zhao and Fenglan (2015) conducted a study among nurses found that organizational justice partially mediates the relationship between EI and work engagement. Meisler (2013) found that EI is positively related to perceived organizational justice. In addition, Zhang and Agarwal (2009) corroborated

distributive and procedural justice as mediators between the fulfillment of the PC and OCB and turnover intention. Hence, based on the above-mentioned arguments the following hypotheses are postulated:

Hypothesis 6: (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice will mediate the influence of ethical leadership on KS behaviour.

Hypothesis 7: (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice will mediate the influence of emotional intelligence on KS behaviour.

Hypothesis 8: (a) distributive justice (b) procedural justice (c) interactional justice will mediate the influence of PC fulfillment on KS behaviour.
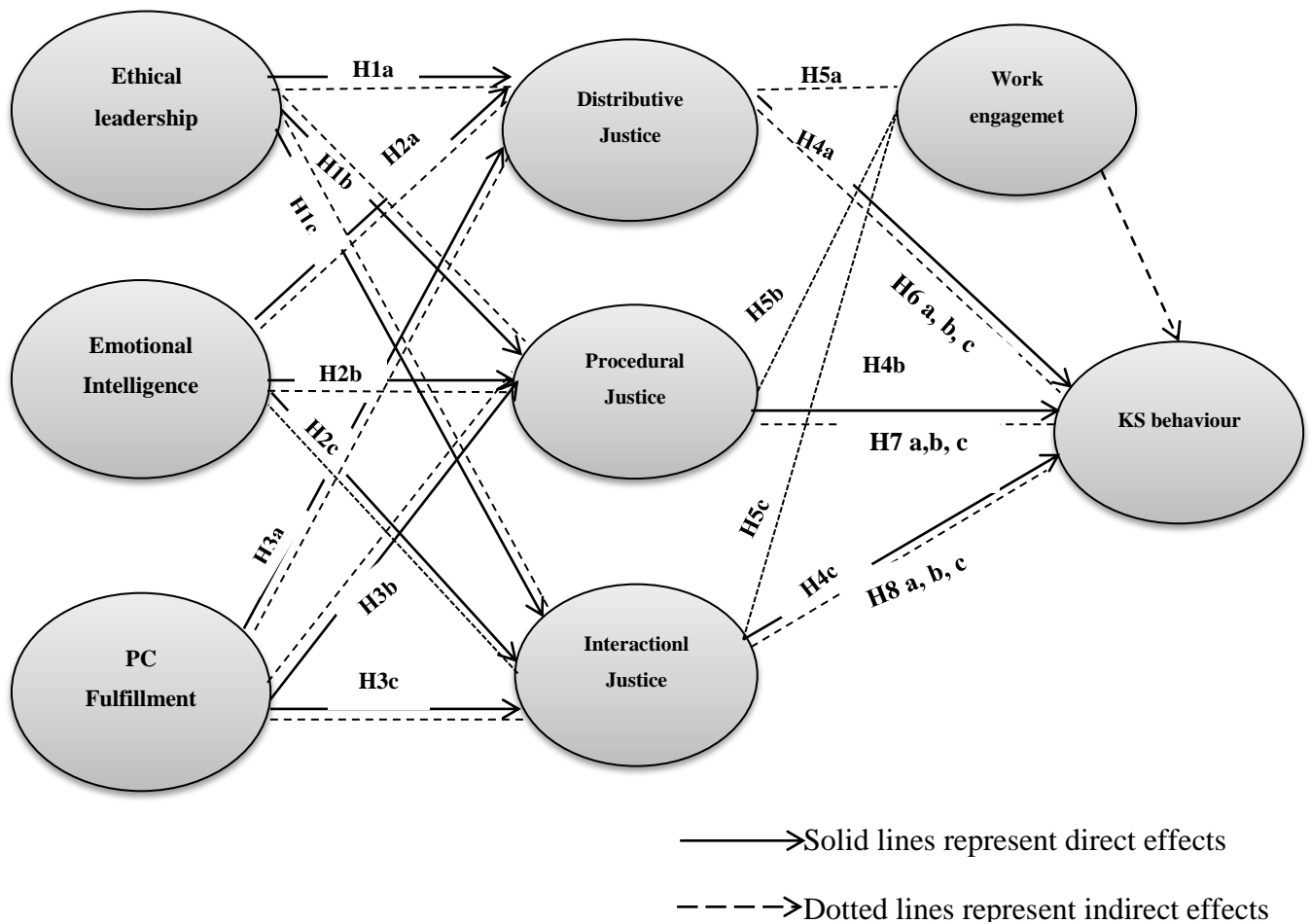
Figure 2.4: Hypothesized Model

2.9 Chapter Summary

The chapter offered the details of the extant literature on the variables under investigation. The first section highlights the theories employed in the study. The second section highlights the existing literature on ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment, organizational justice perceptions, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice, work engagement and KS behaviour. The third section presents the conceptual framework of the study. Next, section highlights the theoretical justification on the linkages among the variables under investigation to propose the hypotheses. Lastly, a hypothesized model was presented.

CHAPTER-3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the research methodology employed for solving the research problem. This chapter outlines the research design, sampling frame, target population, sampling method, sample size and research instruments used for the measurement of the constructs. It also offers information on the pre-testing of questionnaire and pilot study. Lastly, this chapter discusses the statistical techniques employed to test the research hypotheses.

3.2 Research Design

"A research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure." (Ackoff, 1961). Generally, a research design can be classified in terms of the aim of the study: exploratory, descriptive or hypothesis testing (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). A study which engages in hypothesis testing generally describes the nature of certain relations or develops the differences among clusters, or the independence of two or more aspects of interest. Hypothesis testing is conducted when the research aims to elucidate the variance in the dependent variable, instead of a mere description of the variables of interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In this regard, the purpose of this study is hypothesis testing as this research is intended to understand the relationship that exists between the antecedents of justice and its subsequent impact on knowledge sharing behaviour.

The unit of analysis indicates the level of investigation, such as individual or group level (Zikmund, 1997; Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). The present study measures the antecedents and outcome of organizational justice at an individual level and considers each employee response as an individual data source. The research design used in this study is conclusive research which allows for the descriptive research by following survey based cross sectional design. A cross-sectional study is conducted in which data are collected at a single point in time while a longitudinal study is carried out to study people or phenomena at two or more points in time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010; Zikmund, 1997). However, financial and time constraints prohibit this study to be conducted longitudinally across a period of time. As a result, a cross-sectional, rather than a longitudinal design, was chosen in this study. There are some advantages of a cross-sectional design. First, cross-sectional research is useful for a hypothesis testing study, which is the research design of this study. This is because cross-sectional research allows a

researcher to analyse the cross-sectional sample carefully by studying a sample of elements from the population of interest that are measured at a single point in time. Second, cross-sectional data can be collected from a large number of people, and these data are comparable because they are not influenced by changes over time (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). In these regards, the use of a cross-sectional design appears to be an appropriate research method.

Further, a survey based methodology has been employed to conduct the research, which allows measurement of variables at a single point of time (Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Survey based methodology allows gathering data from a large pool of respondents. Further, the research design encompasses multivariate analysis to examine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). Quantitative methods have been used to investigate the proposed relationships.

3.3 Sampling Frame of the Study

The information on the public sector banks of India was taken from the websites of Reserve Bank of India (RBI) and respective banks.

3.4 Target Population

The population includes managerial employees of public sector banks. The databases of RBI and respective banks provided information on number of nationalised and other banks, their location, performance and number of branches. Branches operating in Northern region of India were taken into consideration.

3.5 Respondents of the Study

The respondents of the study are junior and middle-level managers working in Indian public sector banks from Northern region part of India. The respondents were chosen because they are front line managers and have good exposure of banks and its policies.

3.6 Sampling Method of the Study

Convenience sampling method (Urdan, 2005) was used to identify the branches and managers in the public sector banks in India. This is one of the most common sampling method techniques used in the quantitative studies. This technique is suitable for collecting the data from a pool of large respondents (Axinn & Pearce, 2006; Urdan, 2005).).

3.7 Sample Size of the Study

There are many different perspectives about the minimum sample size. Bentler & Chou, 1987) have suggested that there should be minimum sample of five for each parameter examined (i.e.

5:1 ratio). Kline (2011) posit that editor and reviewers of journal usually reject manuscripts of SEM with sample sizes smaller than 200. Other researchers (Hair et al., 2010) have proposed that minimum sample of ten for each parameter examined, i.e. 10:1 ratio. Sample size in the current study is 5-10 subjects per variable as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). There are 72 items in the questionnaire and as per the various suggestions sample size should be 360-720.

3.8 Questionnaire Design

The main objective of the questionnaire is to collect information regarding the eight latent constructs in the proposed research model and respondents' demographics. The questionnaire of this study is developed by adapting and modifying the existing survey questionnaires. The survey questionnaire is finalized, including an explanatory front cover, which describes the purpose and procedure of the study, assurance of respondent anonymity, as well as approximate time needed to complete the entire questionnaire. The questionnaire is divided into eight sections, including demographic profile namely, (1) Section 1: Ethical leadership (2) Section 2: Emotional intelligence (3) Section 3: Psychological contract fulfillment (4) Section 4: Distributive justice (5) Section 5: Procedural justice (6) Section 6: Interactional justice (7) Section 7: Work engagement and (8) Section: 8 Knowledge sharing behaviour. Each section is separated from the previous section using a heading. Instructions are presented prior to each section to reduce confusion. The survey items are grouped into sets and each set is labelled to strengthen respondent's perceptions of the within-set similarities and between-set distinctions between items. Such item arrangement is useful in assisting the respondents to easily comprehend the content and complete the survey. There are 72 items enveloping eight latent constructs (i.e., emotional intelligence, ethical leadership, psychological contract fulfillment, distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice, work engagement and knowledge sharing behaviour) are assessed on a 7 point Likert scale.

3.9 Measures

Ethical Leadership

We measured perceptions of ethical leadership by Brown et al. (2005) 10-item scale (a = 0.94). A sample item is ''my manager disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.'' This scale includes both the dimensions of ethical leadership as suggested by Trevino et al (2000, 2003) and has shown to be both valid and reliable in several previous research. The scale ranges from 1 (strongly agree) to 7 (strongly disagree).

Emotional Intelligence

The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Law et al., 2004; Wong & Law, 2002) have been deployed to estimate EI. This 16-item self-report questionnaire is in conformity with Mayer and Salovey's definition of EI (Mayer and Salovey, 1997), and has been grounded on the ability model postulated by these scholars (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Devonish & Greenidge, 2010; Whitman, Van Rooy, Viswesvaran & Kraus, 2011).

Of late many researchers examined and re-examined this scale in diverse cultures and ethnic and gender groups (Law et al., 2004, 2008; Whitman et al., 2011), and purported it as a concrete scale with good validity and reliability. For instance, investigations have maintained the factor structure, internal consistency, convergent validity, and discriminate validity (Law et al., 2004; Wong and Law, 2002). The WLEIS has been created typically to be used in the organizations (Law et al., 2004; Wong & Law, 2002), and it has been noticed that this measure is a good predictor of performance as compared to the task-based view of EI construct (Law et al., 2008). Sample items: first, "I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time"; second, "I have a good understanding of my own emotions." Measures were designed on a Likert scale starting from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Psychological Contract Fulfillment

A scale consisting of 10-item has been taken from the works of Lo and Aryee's (2003) to assess the psychological contract fulfillment. These items include several aspects of the employment relationship such as job security, training, feedback, compensation, promotion and the nature of the job etc. The Likert scale is formulated by assigning 1 (Not at all) to 7 (to a very great extent). The higher the score, the greater the magnitude of psychological contract fulfillment it represents.

Distributive Justice

The items for the scale were taken from Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Distributive justice was assessed with five items aimed to determine the fairness of rewards. Some of the items include: "My work schedule is fair." and "I think that my level of pay is fair. The scale was measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Procedural Justice

Procedural justice has been assessed with six items developed to measure the fairness of the procedures. The items for the scale were taken from Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Sample items are: "Job decisions are made by the organization in an unbiased manner." and "My

organization makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made". The scale was measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Interactional Justice

Interactional justice has been assessed using nine items intending to measure the fairness of interactions. The items for the scale were taken from Niehoff and Moorman (1993). Examples of items included are: "When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration" and "My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job." The scale was measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Work Engagement

Schaufeli et al. (2002) scale was used to assess work engagement by employing the nine items. This scale is broadly applied in the justice-engagement literature (e.g. Inoue et al., 2010; Karatepe, 2011; Kittredge, 2010; Strom et al., 2013) and also in Indian context (Gupta and Kumar, 2012). This study measured the three components of work engagement namely, vigour, dedication and absorption. Some of the items include: "At work I feel bursting with energy" (vigour); "I am proud of the work I do" (dedication); "I am immersed in my work" (absorption). This measure is also popularly adopted in justice-engagement literature, both in the Indian context (Biswas et al., 2013) and the western context. The items of this construct used in the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (Schaufeli et al., 2002) consist of: "At my work, I feel bursting with energy." (vigour); "I am proud of the work I do" (dedication); and "I am immersed in my work" (absorption).

Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

Knowledge sharing behaviour was assessed by employing the seven-item scale which was developed by Lee (2001). Knowledge has been widely conceptualized in two types: explicit and implicit. The employed scale in our study encompasses both the dimensions of explicit and implicit KS behaviour. Two sample items from the scale are 'I share work reports and official documents with members of my organization' and 'I share my expertise obtained from education and training with members of my organization.

3.10 Pre-test

A pretest is conducted with a small group of people for the purpose of identifying problems in the survey design or questionnaire. One way to conduct a pre-test is to screen the survey

questionnaire with other research professionals (Zikmund et al., 2010). During the screening process, research professionals are asked to focus on some issues such as difficulties with question wording and problems with leading questions (Zikmund et al., 2010). Many times in research, the feedback collected from the pre-test is helpful for modifying the wordings and structure of specific questions where necessary. Therefore, this study conducted the pre-test with three managers and two academicians, whose expertise are with the business practices of human resource management and organizational behaviour. In this study, the pre-test respondents indicated that the questions and presentation of the survey are relevant and understandable, confirming the face validity of the scales.

3.11 Pilot Study

Once the content of survey questionnaire has been confirmed, data were collected from about 120 respondents to determine if the survey questionnaire has to be improved or refined (Zikmund, 1997). In this regard, a pilot study (sample size = 120) was conducted prior to the main data collection and the questionnaires with 72 items and demographic variables were circulated among the junior and middle-level managerial workforce of public sector banks in India during the months of April 2014 to June 2014. A total of 96 usable questionnaires were returned, resulting in a response rate of 80%. The pilot study served as a basis for improving the structure and questions of the survey. Respondents in the pilot study were provided with a complete set of questionnaire together with a cover letter, elucidating the main aim of the survey, assurance of respondent anonymity and requesting respondents to indicate the time taken in completing the survey, to comment if any unclear or difficult questions are found, to provide suggestions for improving the design of the questionnaire.

The respondents of the pilot study showed an agreement towards the arrangement and representation of the complete questionnaire with minor suggestions. In order to further ameliorate the face validity element of the survey questionnaire, all the minor suggestions (rewriting and simplifying the items) are also incorporated. Following the preliminary statistical analyses from the pilot study, some changes were made to the questionnaire in removing the ambiguity and complexity within the questions and statements.

A pilot test is used as preparation for a major study. It can also be the pre-testing of a particular research instrument. Pilot tests, therefore, give advance warning about where the main research project could fail, or where instruments are inappropriate or too complicated. All the 72 items were taken for the final questionnaire.

3. 12 Data Collection Procedure

In order to validate the hypothesized model shown in figure 2.4 data were collected from select public sector banking institutions in India (From the list of scheduled banks, Reserve Bank of India). Convenience sampling technique was used to choose the respondents. Data was collected through field survey from public sector banks operating in northern region part of India, from July 2014 to November 2014. Initially, the author interacted personally with the branch head of each bank which included a description of the need and importance of the study with the emphasis on its managerial implications.

After taking the permission from the head of the branch questionnaires were circulated among respondents along with the cover letter. The cover letter highlights the significance of the study to each respondent and instructions to fill the questionnaire. The questionnaires were personally administered via field survey to avoid any glitches and ensure confidentiality of all the respondents. In a total of 566 respondents to whom the questionnaire was circulated to, the authors received 380 completely filled responses, reflecting a response rate of 67.13 %.

3.13 Data Analysis Approach

To attain the objectives of the study and to test the hypothesis several statistical tool have been deployed. Uni-variate analyses were conducted to describe the basic features of the data in the study with respect to distribution, central tendency and dispersion of the demographics.

Within this research, the researcher focuses on the research questions and hypotheses and uses the received questionnaire data for statistical analysis and examination. This study adopted the Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Confirmatory factor analysis, Structural equation Modeling (SEM) and SPSS macro, i.e., PROCESS to validate the hypothesized model The data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows release 20.0 and AMOS 20 (Analysis of Moment Structures). Before testing the hypothesized model, data screening was conducted for missing values, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity. Then, descriptive statistics are used to describe the basic characteristics in this study. These statistics accommodate simple summaries about demographic data and each variable in different dimensions. Mean and standard deviation are computed for each item of the latent variables. Consequently, EFA was performed using principal component analysis.

The veracity of relationships among variables in the self-report survey is vulnerable to arguments of common method bias (CMB). It is generally believed that when two variables are measured using the same method, the measures of association such as correlation or path

coefficients will be overestimated due to the problem of CMB (Williams & Brown, 1994). For many years, the concern for CMB seems to be extensively discussed when cross-sectional and self-report surveys are used (e.g. Bagozzi & Yi, 1990 & Organ, 1986). The present study also tests for the possible presence of CMB. Further, CFA was performed to evaluate the measurement model fit and calculate reliability and validity of the constructs. Afterward to estimate fit of the hypothesized model to the data, the structural model was calculated. Then, for mediation analysis PROCESS was used.

3.14 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the research methodology adopted in the current study. It further discusses the research design, population, sample size, sampling method, data collection procedures. Further, it described the pre-test and pilot study conducted for identification of the problems in the questionnaire. Finally, the techniques used for data analysis were outlined.

CHAPTER-4

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the respondents' profiles, descriptive analysis, and results of EFA, CFA, and SEM used to test the research hypotheses. This chapter also discusses the results of mediation analysis of distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice and work engagement through SPSS macro, i.e. PROCESS.

4.2 Data Screening

Examination and resolving any issues of the data prior to running the main analyses is fundamental to an honest data analysis. It is recommended that researchers screen the original data before creating a raw data file or a matrix summary (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Kline, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Based on these suggestions, the data were checked for accuracy, missing data, multivariate normality, univariate normality, outliers, linearity, and multicollinearity and singularity in the study. The first issue in the data screening concerns the accuracy of the data. Data entered into the data file may incorrectly represent the original data and produce distorted correlations and regressions. The best way to assure the accuracy of the data file is to proofread the original data against the computerized data. However, since it is not always possible to proofread the large data file, descriptive statistics and the graphic representations of the variables for the data were examined as part of data screening in the study (Tabachnick & Fedell, 1996). The examination of the descriptive statistics of the 72 variables indicated the data entered in the data file were accurate.

4.2.1 Missing Data

How to handle missing data is one of the most popular issues in data analysis. Typically, missing data occurs because of factors beyond the researchers' control: The issue happens when study participants do not answer all survey questions; study participants quit their job or leave their organization, or study equipment stops functioning after the study started. Missing data can influence the results of the data analysis depending on their pattern and amount of missing data (Tabachnick & Fedell, 1996). The pattern of missing data is more important than how much is missing. Not missing- at-random (NMAR) data (Little & Rubin, 1987) affect the generalizability of the results while missing data not systematic and scattered randomly imply less serious problems. According to Cohen and Cohen (1983), the existence of more than 10% missing data requires researchers to pay special attention to the data. A small amount of

missing data is ignorable, especially in a large sample size (Hair et al., 2006). List-wise deletion or pair-wise deletion can be used for dealing with missing data. The former is to exclude cases with missing scores from all analyses and the latter is to exclude cases only if they have missing data on the variables involved in a particular analysis. For the current study, mean imputation was used to keep the same number of cases in all analyses.

4.2.2 Outliers

The Mahalanobis D^2 statistic was utilized to detect any potential multivariate outliers. This statistic is a multidimensional version of a z-score, measuring the distance of a case from the centroid of a distribution. By convention, the diagnosis of a multivariate outlier case is associated with its D is 0.001 or less, and follows a Chi-Square distribution with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables included in the calculation. After careful examination of multiple operations of the Mahalanobis D^2 statistic, six cases were detected as a multivariate outlier, since they reappeared to be a multivariate outlier common in those Mahalanobis D statistics. Thus, those six cases were dropped from further analysis. There was a total of 36 missing values from 23 participants who did not answer at least one question among the total of 72 items. To diagnose randomness of the missing data, Little's MCAR test was used (Hair, Anderson,Tatham & Black, 1998). For this study, mean imputation was favourable considering the sample size, so all of the 36 missing values were replaced with a mean score of all of the other values in the corresponding variables.

4.2.3 Normality

Underlying procedures in SEM are based on the assumption of multivariate normality. Multivariate normality means that all the univariate distributions are normal, the joint bivariate distributions of any pair of the variables are normal, and the linear combinations of the variables are normally distributed (Kline, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). Although it is not very practical to test all aspects of multivariate normality, many instances of multivariate non-normality can be detected by the inspection of univariate distributions (Kline, 2005). Therefore, univariate normality was utilized for the multivariate normality inspection in the study. Univariate normality can be examined by skewness and kurtosis (Bollen, 1989). Skewness indicates the degree of symmetrical distribution about the mean of the variable. The scores above and below the mean are considered as positive and negative skews respectively (Thomson, 2004). Kurtosis represents the peakedness of the distribution (Thomson, 2004). Positive and negative kurtosis contains a higher peak and lower peak respectively. The data distribution of variables can be significant skew, kurtosis, or both. The standardized skew index

equals 3.0 (z-score); greater than 3.0 (> 3.0) indicates positive skew; and less than -3.0 (< -3.0) indicates negative skew (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). The standardized kurtosis index equals 10.0 (z-score) and kurtosis index greater than 20.0 (> 20.0) may be a high peaked distribution (Kline, 2005) although there is less consensus about the kurtosis index. Normality of variables can be assessed by the graphical method as well as the statistical method. Various transformations can be used to correct non-normally distributed data. In fact, there exists no direct and absolute test for multivariate normality, hence, a rule of thumb would be to test each variable individually and assume that they are multivariate normal if they are individually normal (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). One of a few methods of testing normality is to screen for skewness and kurtosis, which is a commonly done procedure. Skewness between-1 and +1 is considered excellent and between -2 and + 2 acceptable as is same to Kurtosis (George & Mallery, 2003). Apart from the threshold limits of skewness and kurtosis a well-known test of normality, namely the Shapiro-Wilk Test. The Shapiro-Wilk Test is a preferred method for the research studies with small sizes such as n<=50. Nevertheless, the test can also be used for the sample sizes more than 2000 to assess the numerical means of normality.

The threshold significance value of Shapiro-Wilk Test is ought to be more than 0.05 for the data to follow the normal distribution (Hair et al., 1998). This criterion was used for normality test in this study. The results of Shapiro-Wilk test which are represented in Table 4.1, indicated that all the latent constructs are significant at $p<0.05$ with 380 degrees of freedom. Therefore, no transformation of the data was performed, so retaining the original data for further analysis.

Table 4.1 Results of Normality Test

Constructs	Shapiro Wilks Statistics	df	Sign.
Ethical leadership	0.856	380	0.000
Emotional Intelligence	0.849	380	0.000
PC Fulfillment	0.849	380	0.000
Distributive Justice	0.843	380	0.000
Procedural Justice	0.907	380	0.000
Interactional Justice	0.792	380	0.000
Work Engagement	0.815	380	0.000
KS Behaviour	0.836	380	0.000

4.2.4 Linearity

Linearity among factors is difficult to assess while linearity among the pairs of the variables can be assessed by the inspection of bivariate scatter plots. However, the examination of all bivariate scatter plots is impractical. The random spot check on a few plots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996) was utilized for the study. A random spot check was conducted to determine if the relationships among the variables were linear in the study sample. For the practicality of data scanning, ten bivariate scatter plots were selected and examined for multivariable normality. It was observed that there were linear relationships among the selected ten pairs of the variables. The results of the random scatter plot inspection implied that the linearity assumption was met in the study sample.

Multivariate normality implies that relationships among the variables are linear. Differences in skewness for the variables indicate potentials of curvilinearity for some pairs of the variables. Linearity among factors is difficult to assess while linearity among the pairs of the variables can be assessed by the inspection of bivariate scatter plots. However, the examination and representation of all bi-variate scatter plots are impractical. The random spot check on four plots (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996) such as EL-DJ, EL-PJ, EL-IJ, and WE-KSB were checked for the study to determine if the relationships among the variables were linear in the study sample. It was observed that there were linear relationships among the selected four pairs of the variables. The results of the random scatter plot inspection implied that the linearity assumption was met in the study sample. Figure 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, 4.4 represents the scatter plots of EL-DJ, EL-PJ, EL-IJ, and WE-KSB respectively.
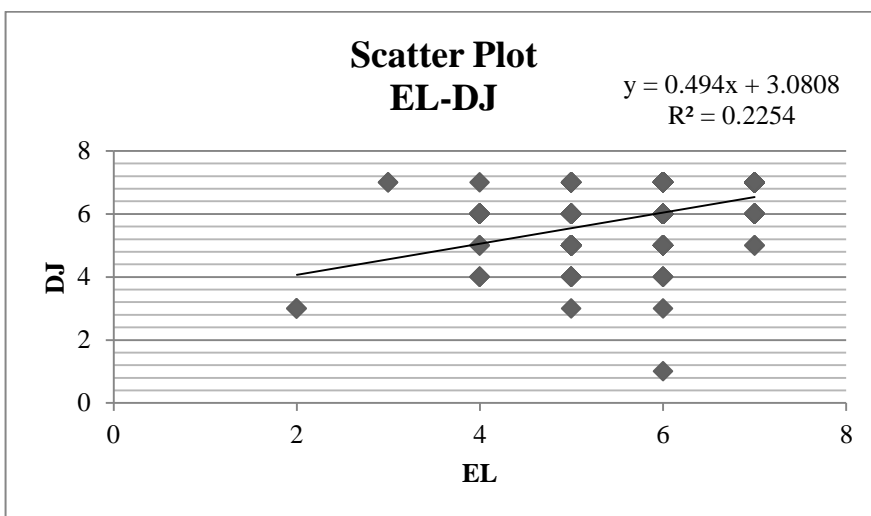
Figure 4.1 Scatter Plot of Ethical Leadership and Distributive Justice
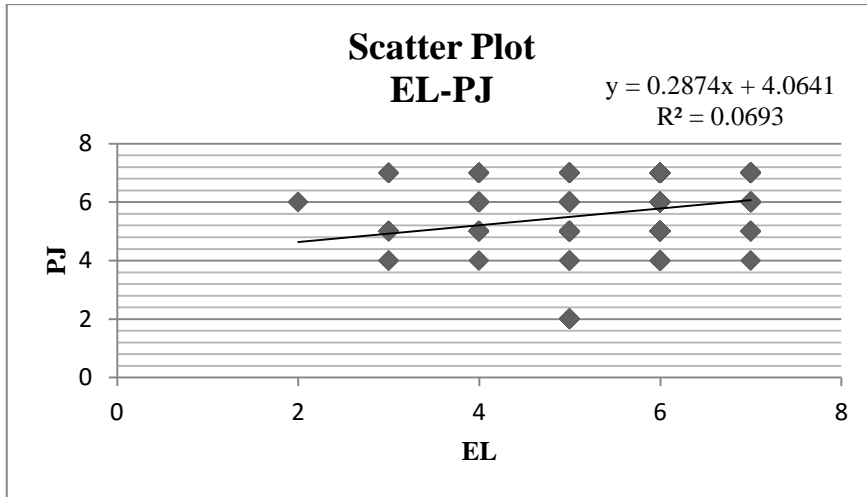
Figure 4.2 Scatter Plot of Ethical Leadership and Procedural Justice
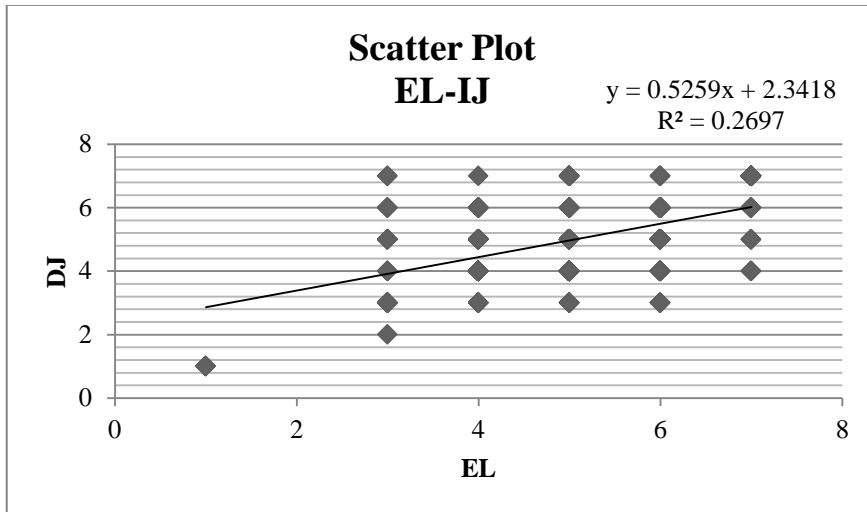
Figure 4.3 Scatter Plot of Ethical Leadership and Interactional Justice
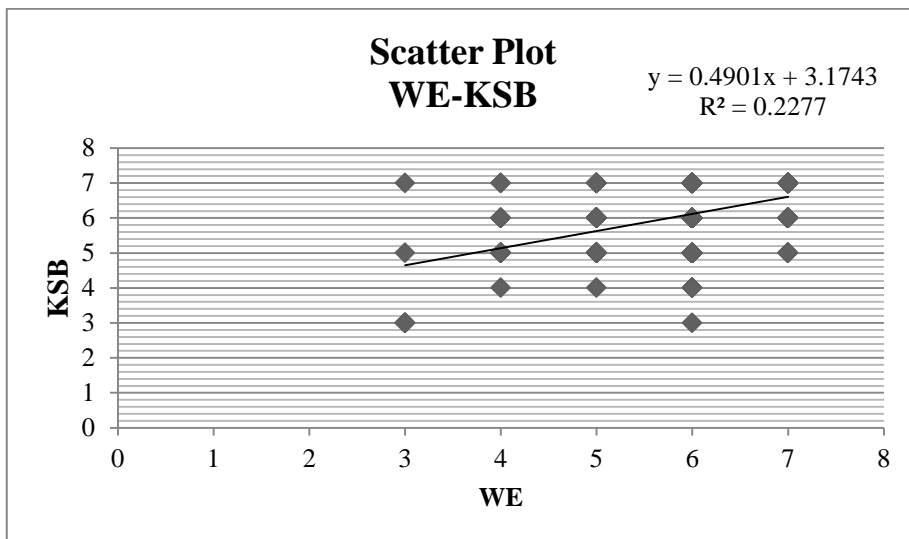
Figure 4.4 Scatter Plot of Work Engagement and KS Behaviour

4.2.5 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity and singularity occur when variables are too highly correlated (Bollen, 1989; Kline, 2005). In the case of multicollinearity, the variables are extremely highly correlated (greater than .90) and in the case of singularity, the variables are redundant (equal 1.0; = 1). Either bi-variate or multivariate correlations can create multicollinearity or singularity. Bi-variate multicollinearity and singularity can be detected by the inspection of the correlation matrix. On the other hand, detecting multivariate multicollinearity and singularity is more difficult, since multivariate statistics are needed to find the offending variable. Tolerance scores less than 0.10 (< .10) indicate multicollinearity or singularity (Kline, 2005). AMOS 21.0 was used to screen multicollinearity and singularity. The examination of the correlation matrixes indicated there was neither multi-collinearity nor singularity identified. All SMC scores were less than 0.90, and all tolerance scores were greater than 0.10. In addition, the bi-variate correlation matrix had no correlation value greater than 0.90. These results indicated that all variables in the study were not too highly correlated or redundant. Therefore, no transformation of the related variables was necessary for the study sample.

Table 4.2: Results of Multicollinearity

Constructs	No. of Items	Tolerance	VIF
Ethical Leadership	10	0.526	1.921
Emotional Intelligence	16	0.689	1.576
PC Fulfillment	10	0.712	1.284
Distributive Justice	05	0.739	2.231
Procedural Justice	06	0.628	2.272
Interactional Justice	09	0.447	1.264
Work Engagement	09	0.437	1.452
Knowledge Sharing Behaviour	07	0.601	1.765

Multicollinearity reduces the predictive power of the respective independent variable due to its association with other independent variables. The presence of multi-collinearity is tested in SPSS using the two parameters such as Tolerance and 'Variance Inflation Factor'. It was suggested that the value of less than 10 of the VIF deal with non-multicollinearity. The obtained results also advocate the absence of multi-collinearity in the data of the study. To avoid the tendency of multicollinearity, the VIF values for the each variable was checked and it

was found less than 10 in every case. Table 4.2 represents the non- multicollinearity of the study variables.

4.3 Respondent's Demographic Profile

Descriptive statistics were computed to examine demographic and professional characteristics of the 380 respondents. The statistical software SPSS 20.0 was used for the descriptive statistics. Demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 4.3. The demographic profile of respondents indicates that most of the participants are male (62.63%). Examining the educational background of respondent's exhibits that 55.79 % are post-graduate.

Table 4.3: Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demographics	Employees' Details (n=380)	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
Gender	Male	238	62.63
	Female	142	37.37
Age	Less than 25 years	65	17.11
	25-30 years	99	26.05
	31-35 years	121	31.84
	36-40 years	61	16.05
	41-45 years	24	06.32
	Above 45 years	10	02.63
Experience	1-5 years	110	28.95
	6-10	142	37.37
	11-15	70	18.42
	16-20	46	12.11
	More than 20 years	12	03.15
Education	Graduate	162	42.63
	Post -graduate	212	55.79
	Any other	06	01.58
Job position/level	Junior- level manager	219	57.63
	Middle- level manager	161	42.37

4.4 Descriptive Analysis

This section discusses the results of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, psychological contract fulfillment, distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, work engagement and knowledge sharing behaviour in terms of their descriptive statistics, the

normality of data and reliability of the scale. These statistics are helpful to identify out-of-range values, estimate means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis are tested to fit a normal distribution.

4.4.1. Ethical Leadership

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values of all the ethical leadership items are presented in Table 4.4. The values for skewness and kurtosis are less than ±1.0, below the cut-off criterion used in this study. As presented in Table 4.4., the overall ethical leadership items have a mean score of 5.36 and standard deviation of 0.88.

Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics of Ethical Leadership

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Ethical Leadership	EL1	5.60	0.301	-0.314	0.259
	EL2	5.15	0.565	-0.370	-0.641
	EL3	5.72	0.044	-0.249	0.529
	EL4	5.18	0.914	-0.224	-0.351
	EL5	5.64	0.222	-0.358	0.430
	EL6	5.07	0.508	-0.317	-0.553
	EL7	5.73	0.899	-0.259	-0.771
	EL8	5.61	0.867	-0.233	-0.796
	EL9	4.89	0.663	-0.378	-0.536
	EL10	4.98	0.793	-0.375	-0.681
Total		Mean=5.36	SD=0.88		

4.4.2. Emotional Intelligence

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the EI items listed in Table 4.5. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis indicates that the assumption ofnormality of the distribution is not violated. As shown in Table 4.5, the overall EI items have a mean score of 5.55 and SD of 0.921.

Table 4.5: Descriptive Statistics of Emotional Intelligence

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Emotional Intelligence	EI1	4.76	0.626	-0.351	-0.523
	EI2	5.86	0.754	-0.416	-0.345
	EI3	5.20	0.734	-0.326	-0.337
	EI4	5.58	0.883	-0.333	-0.179
	EI5	5.71	0.874	-0.233	0.573
	EI6	5.76	0.844	-0.340	0.648
	EI7	5.95	0.910	-0.197	0.217
	EI8	5.69	0.614	-0.328	-0.817
	EI9	6.08	0.434	-0.331	-0.320
	EI10	5.92	0.536	-0.259	-0.133
	EI11	5.39	0.469	-0.442	-0.764
	EI12	5.28	0.943	-0.155	-0.368
	EI13	5.72	0.929	-0.362	-0.295
	EI14	5.62	0.909	-0.410	-0.579
	EI15	4.57	0.867	-0.375	-0.372
	EI16	5.75	0.917	-0.255	-0.267
Total		Mean=5.55	SD=0.921		

4.4.3 Psychological Contract Fulfillment

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the PC fulfillment items is presented in Table 4.6. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis indicates that the normality of the PC fulfillment items is assumed. A mean score of 5.34 and SD of 0.45 are reported for the overall PC fulfillment items (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6: Descriptive Statistics of PC Fulfillment

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
PC Fulfillment	PCF1	5.60	0.801	-0.229	0.269
	PCF2	5.15	0.565	0.470	-0.641
	PCF3	5.72	0.644	-0.349	0.829
	PCF4	4.99	0.512	-0.332	-0.753

	PCF5	5.30	0.647	0.288	-0.357
	PCF6	5.61	0.950	0.221	0.853
	PCF7	4.96	0.646	-0.395	0.807
	PCF8	5.30	0.968	-0.234	0.794
	PCF9	5.52	1.338	-0.433	0.392
	PCF10	5.20	0.822	-0.206	0.771
Total		Mean= 5.34	SD=0.45		

4.4.4 Distributive Justice

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the distributive justice items are listed in Table 4.7 while a summary of the descriptive statistics of distributive justice scale is presented in Table 4.7. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis indicates that the assumption ofnormality of the distribution is not violated. The overall distributive justice items have a mean score of 5.66, which is above the midpoint of 3.5 and SD of 0.813.

Table 4.7: Descriptive Statistics of Distributive Justice

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Distributive Justice	DJ1	5.51	0.425	-0.216	-0.347
	DJ2	5.89	0.581	-0.327	-0.799
	DJ3	5.62	0.782	-0.407	0.520
	DJ4	5.59	0.438	-0.377	0.563
	DJ5	5.69	0.938	-0.402	0.769
Total		Mean= 5.66	SD= 0.813		

4.4.5 Procedural Justice

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the procedural justice items is presented in Table 4.8. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis indicates that the normality of the procedural justice items is assumed. A mean score of 5.19 and SD 0.79 is reported for the overall procedural justice items (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Descriptive Statistics of Procedural Justice

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Procedural justice	PJ1	5.60	0.301	-0.119	0.259
	PJ2	5.15	0.565	-0.370	-0.641
	PJ3	5.72	1.044	-0.349	0.829
	PJ4	4.18	1.014	-0.124	-0.351
	PJ5	5.64	0.622	-0.258	0.730
	PJ6	4.89	1.124	-0.477	0.563
Total		Mean= 5.19	SD=0.79		

4.4.6 Interactional Justice

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the interactional justice items is listed in Table 4.9, while a summary of the descriptive statistics of Interactional justice scale is presented in Table 4.9. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis and indicates that the assumption ofnormality of the distribution is not violated. The overall information analysis items have a mean score of 4.86 and SD 0.817.

Table 4.9: Descriptive Statistics of Interactional Justice

Construct	Item Code	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Interactional Justice	IJ1	5.46	0.701	-0.279	-0.559
	IJ2	4.89	0.646	-0.363	-0.458
	IJ3	5.30	0.771	-0.240	0.797
	IJ4	4.55	0.811	0.520	-0.885
	IJ5	4.53	0.560	-0.448	0.888
	IJ6	4.38	1.128	-0.365	-0.823
	IJ7	4.37	0.608	-0.372	0.769
	IJ8	5.42	1.087	0.247	-0.181
	IJ9	5.78	0.754	-0.520	0.778
Total		Mean= 4.86	SD= 0.817		

4.4.7 Work Engagement

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the work engagement items is listed in Table 4.10 while a summary of the descriptive statistics of work engagement scale is presented in Table 4.10. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis indicates that the assumption of normality of the distribution is not violated. The overall work engagement items have a mean score of 5.51 and SD of 0.838 (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Descriptive Statistics of Work Engagement

Construct	Item Code	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Work Engagement	WE1	5.19	0.770	-0.199	-0.120
	WE2	5.60	0.987	0.315	-0.657
	WE3	5.79	0.927	-0.241	0.424
	WE4	5.82	0.172	-0.413	0.740
	WE5	5.57	1.136	0.647	-0.553
	WE6	5.31	1.022	-0.328	-0.367
	WE7	6.15	0.605	0.232	-0.470
	WE8	5.24	0.481	-0.358	-0.721
	WE9	4.95	0.779	0.029	-0.277
Total		Mean= 5.51	SD= 0.838		

4.4.8 Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

A summary of the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values of all the KS behaviour items is presented in Table 4.11. An examination of the values for skewness and kurtosis (see table 4.11) indicates that the normality of the KS behaviour items is assumed. A mean score of 5.29 and SD of 0.92 is reported for the overall KS behaviour items (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Descriptive Statistics of KS Behaviour

Construct	Item Code	Mean	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis
KS Behaviour	KS1	5.59	0.953	-0.371	0.439
	KS2	4.89	0.932	0.353	0.462
	KS3	5.60	0.873	-0.397	-0.755
	KS4	4.82	0.902	-0.309	-0.232

	KS5	4.99	0.752	-0.415	-0.708
	KS6	5.41	0.792	-0.183	-0.388
	KS7	5.73	0.683	-0.329	0.259
Total		Mean= 5.29	SD=0 .92		

4.5 Construct Correlations

To examine if there were associations between the factors or latent variables, correlation coefficient (r) was used for the data analyses in the study. Pearson's correlation coefficient is used to determine the relationships among the six latent constructs. Pearson's correlation coefficient enables a determination of the strength of the linear relationship between the variables under examination (Milligan, 2003). The p-value of less than 0.05 (< 0.05) was used as the criterion statistic of the correlation coefficient to determine if the degree of association was significant. The constructs of a subjected research model need to be correlated in order to achieve model fit. The correlation parameter should not be at either of the extremes of 0 to 1. Given that all item-total correlation has exceeded the value of 0.3, a cut-off value suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the initial scale reliability is established. Table 4.12 provides the summary of all the inter-construct correlations.

Table 4.12: Correlations

Constructs	EL	EI	PCF	DJ	PJ	IJ	WE	KSB
Ethical leadership	1							
Emotional Intelligence	0.47**	1						
PC Fulfillment	0.42**	0.60**	1					
Distributive Justice	0.53**	0.46*	0.44**	1				
Procedural Justice	0.58*	0.30**	0.39*	0.46**	1			
Interactional Justice	0.32**	0.33*	0.46*	0.34**	0.33*	1		
Work Engagement	0.41**	0.31**	0.32**	0.35*	0.46*	0.47**	1	
KS Behaviour	0.37**	0.36**	0.51**	0.31**	0.52**	0.32*	0.49**	1

Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2001), an absolute correlation coefficient between 0.10 and 0.30 is a weak relationship, an absolute correlation between 0.40 and 0.60 is a moderate relationship, and 0.70 and above shows a strong relationship.

4.6 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

EFA specify the number of factors that best represents the data and also to examine the uni-dimensionality of the latent constructs (Hair et al., 2010). This statistical approach involves EFA in which the researchers are required to examine the unrotated factor solution to identify the number of factors that accounts for the variances in all the variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). The assumption of Harman's single-factor test is that if a substantial amount of CMV (common method variance) is present either (1) a single factor will be shown in the factor analysis or (2) one general factor will account for most of the covariance among the measures. Furthermore, to measure the sampling adequacy, Bartlett test of sphericity is made use to ensure the inter-correlations of the variables to generate representative factors.

The Bartlett test of sphericity is the statistical test for the overall significance of every correlation within a correlation matrix (Hair et al., 2010). The Measures of sampling adequacy (MSA) is used to measure the degree of inter-correlations among the variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2010). In the SPSS programme, the MSA is measured by the value of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) (Coakes, Steed & Dzidic, 2006). The correlation matrix attains factorability if the Bartlett's test of sphericity is statistically significant (i.e., $p < 0.05$) and the value of KMO greater than 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010).

Due to the very nature of multiple source design of the study and arrangement of items as questions at different parts of the questionnaire, there exists a possibility of the presence of common method bias (CMB), which in turn might disturb the validity of the study results. In order to check the presence of the CMB, the study used Harman's Single factor approach (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) using varimax rotation.

As shown in Table 4.13, the values for the Bartlett test of sphericity are large and significant for all the factor analyses, with values ranging from 389.61 (distributive justice) and 3091.18 (Emotional intelligence). Similarly, all the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures of sampling adequacy are greater than 0.50, with the majority of values above 0.80. Hence, the factorability of the correlation matrix for this study is assumed. Moreover, all the items loaded well on their respective constructs.

Table 4.13: Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Construct	Items	Factor loadings	KMO (Kaiser Meyer-Olkin)	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity
Ethical Leadership				
	EL1	0.762	0.803***	1805.6/45
	EL2	0.541		
	EL3	0.839		
	EL4	0.619		
	EL5	0.474		
	EL6	0.542		
	EL7	0.759		
	EL8	0.684		
	EL9	0.632		
	EL10	0.791		
Emotional Intelligence				
	EI1	0.832	0.854**	3091.18//120
	EI2	0.689		
	EI3	0.525		
	EI4	0.749		
	EI5	0.879		
	EI6	0.613		
	EI7	0.744		
	EI8	0.673		
	EI9	0.819		
	EI10	0.739		
	EI11	0.813		
	EI12	0.691		
	EI13	0.719		
	EI14	0.899		
	EI15	0.912		
	EI16	0.789		
PC Fulfillment				
	PC1	0.829	0.872***	1659.17/45
	PC2	0.714		

	PC3	0.673		
	PC4	0.522		
	PC5	0.753		
	PC6	0.729		
	PC7	0.773		
	PC8	0.912		
	PC9	0.719		
	PC10	0.659		
Distributive Justice				
	DJ1	0.879	0.754***	389.61/10
	DJ2	0.719		
	DJ3	0.759		
	DJ4	0.684		
	DJ5	0.755		
Procedural Justice				
	PJ1	0.513	0.747***	602.73/15
	PJ2	0.722		
	PJ3	0.849		
	PJ4	0.739		
	PJ5	0.879		
	PJ6	0.795		
Interactional Justice				
	IJ1	0.764	0.864**	1317.20/36
	IJ2	0.652		
	IJ3	0.715		
	IJ4	0.930		
	IJ5	0.959		
	IJ6	0.769		
	IJ7	0.754		
	IJ8	0.879		
	IJ9	0.819		
Work Engagement				
	WE1	0.929	0.892**	647.12/36
	WE2	0.698		

	WE3	0.899		
	WE4	0.769		
	WE5	0.975		
	WE6	0.879		
	WE7	0.531		
	WE8	0.774		
	WE9	0.795		
KS Behaviour				
	KS1	0.898	0.815**	787.39/21
	KS2	0.942		
	KS3	0.884		
	KS4	0.709		
	KS5	0.752		
	KS6	0.789		
	KS7	0.851		

Note: *p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p < 0.001

Table 4.14: Results of Common- Method Bias

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	Variance %	Cum. %	Total	Variance %	Cum. %	Total	Variance %	Cum. %
1	15.73	21.82	21.82	15.71	21.28	21.82	13.50	18.75	18.75
2	14.99	20.81	42.64	14.99	20.81	42.64	11.81	16.41	35.16
3	07.26	10.09	52.73	07.26	10.09	52.73	08.01	11.12	46.28
4	04.36	06.05	58.79	04.36	06.05	58.79	04.57	06.35	52.64
5	03.34	04.65	63.44	03.34	04.65	63.44	04.88	06.23	58.87
6	02.91	04.04	67.48	02.91	04.04	67.48	04.02	05.58	64.45
7	01.91	02.67	70.16	01.92	02.67	70.16	03.98	05.46	69.92
8	01.70	02.36	72.52	01.70	02.36	72.52	01.87	02.59	72.52
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.									

The results, in accordance with principle component analysis (PCA) (as per Table 4.13) indicated that there were eight factors of eigenvalue greater than 1, which got extracted to form a factor structure, with a cumulative explained variance of 72.52 % and the first factor accounted for a mere 18.75 % (see Table 4.14) of the total variance. Based on these results, it can be concluded that the response set is free from common method bias. Furthermore, individual items for each construct were factor analysed separately to examine the uni-dimensionality of the constructs in the hypothesized model.

4.7 Data Analysis

The causation between the independent and dependent latent constructs was validated by using the two-step approach with the help the statistical package AMOS V. 21, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). The first stage of the analysis is termed as confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which is used to confirm the relationships framed by the measurement model (maps the relationship between latent and observed variables). The second stage is called as the structural equation model (SEM), which involves multiple regression analysis, path analysis, and CFA to validate the research hypothesis (Hussey & Eagan, 2007).

Although EFA presents some evidence of validity, it falls short to provide a definitive test of measurement made by CFA using SEM application (Babin et al., 2008). Unlike EFA, CFA is used to provide a confirmatory test of the measurement theory which requires a construct first be defined (Hair et al., 2010). Put colloquially, researchers are required to specify a model based on theory and/or empirical research, and test for its validity is given the sample data. According to Byrne (2001), CFA is most appropriately applied to models that have been fully developed and their factors structures validated. Furthermore, CFA should be employed in causal models to furnish the most informative tests of mediation such as estimates of indirect effects, estimates of causal parameters etc. (James & Brett, 1984). Compared with EFA, CFA provides a range of fit indices for evaluating the fit of data set to a theoretical model (Terblanche & Boshoff, 2008)

Following these rationales, this study employed CFA to test the significance of the hypothesised model with the sample data collected. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) enables an estimation of the validity and reliability of individual items, factors, and the overall instrument. This study included a range of fit indexes, including Chi-square (χ 2), degree of freedom (df), normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), comparative fit index (CFI), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that a score of 1.0 to 3.0 indicates a

reasonable fit in the ratio of χ^2 to df. Scores of 0.90 or higher are considered evidence of a good fit in NFI, NNFI, TLI and CFI. Scores between 0.05 and 0.08 are considered evidence of a good fit in SRMR and RMSEA.

SEM is known by several names such as path analysis, covariance structure analysis, and latent variable analysis. Generally, SEM is a statistical methodology that uses a confirmatory, rather than an exploratory approach to the data analysis of a structural theory (Byrne, 2001). There are several distinguished characteristics of SEM which support the utilisation of SEM in this study. First, SEM incorporates the strengths of multiple regression analysis, factor analysis and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) in one model that can be assessed statistically and simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010). Second, SEM has an ability to represent both observed (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables in the relationships and correct for measurement error in the estimation process (Hair et al., 2010). Third, SEM allows directional predictions among a set of independent or a set of dependent variables as well as evaluates modelling of indirect effects (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Fourth, researchers could obtain the overall measures of model fit using SEM (Peyrot, 1996). Consistent with Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step modelling approach was employed to model the data in this study. The first step involves the development of measurement models using CFA to attain the best fitting group of items to represent each scale. The second step performs the specification of the structural model. Both the measurement and structural models in this study were evaluated by model fitting through ML estimation. Multiple goodness-of-fit indices were used in assessing the goodness of fit of the measurement and structural models. As described in section, the measures of goodness-of-fit included: (1) Absolute fit indices: chi-square statistic ($\chi 2$), normed chi-square (NC), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA); and (2) Incremental fit indices: Normed fit index (NFI), comparative fit index (CFI), and the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI).

4.7.1 Assessment of Measurement Model

CFA was conducted for measurement model of each construct. The goodness-of-fit indices for the each measurement models are shown in tables (see Table 4.15 to Table 4.22). The following figures (see figure 4.5 to 4.12) indicate the measurement models of all the latent constructs in the study. All the loadings of their respective constructs are above the threshold value of 0.6 as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), which are shown in figures (see figure 4.5 to fig.4.12).

4.7.1.1 Ethical Leadership
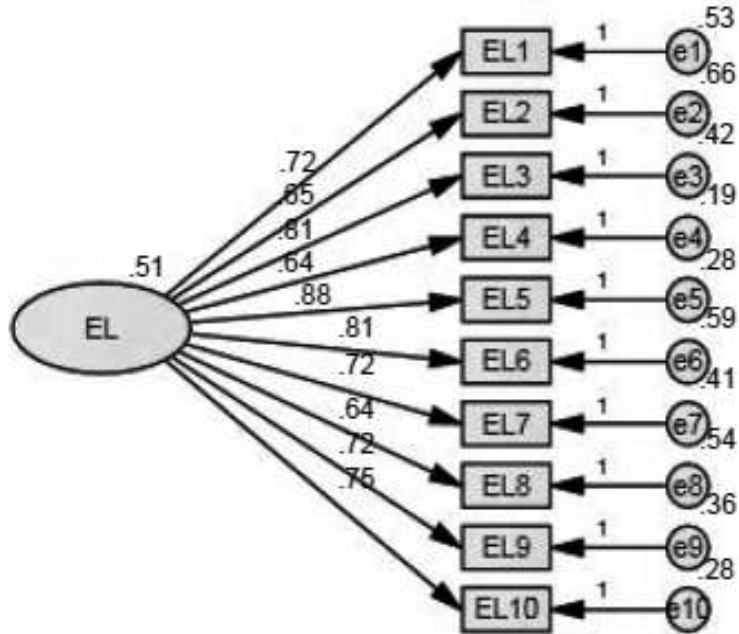
Figure 4.5: Measurement Model for the Ethical Leadership Construct

Table 4.15: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Ethical Leadership Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Desirable Range	Measurement Model
χ^2	Nil	36.779***
NC	<=5	3.227
GFI	≥0.8	0.816
AGFI	≥0.8	0.822
RMSEA	<0.08	0.072
NFI	≥0.8	0.804
CFI	≥0.9	0.911
TLI	≥0.9	0.925

Note: *** $p < 0.001$

4.7.1.2 Emotional Intelligence
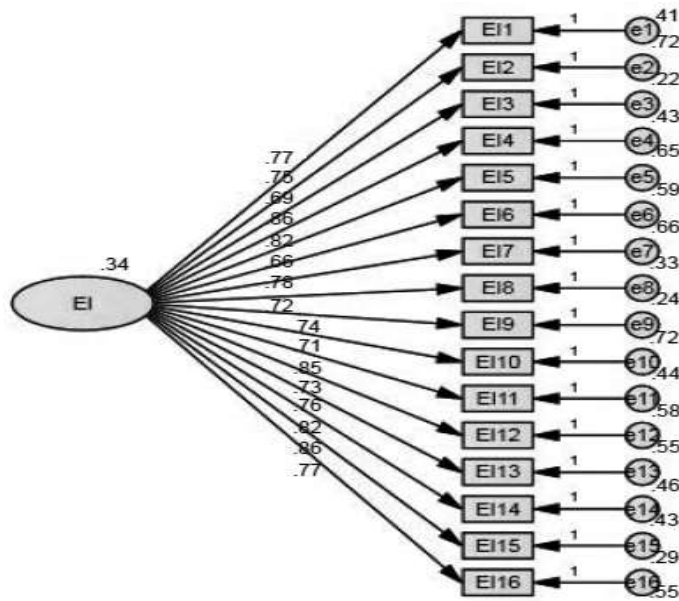
Figure 4.6: Measurement Model for the Emotional Intelligence Construct

Table 4.16: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Emotional Intelligence Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	27.625***
NC	2.492
GFI	0.801
AGFI	0.835
RMSEA	0.074
NFI	0.869
CFI	0.934
TLI	0.908

Note: *** $p < 0.001$

4.7.1.3 Psychological Contract Fulfillment
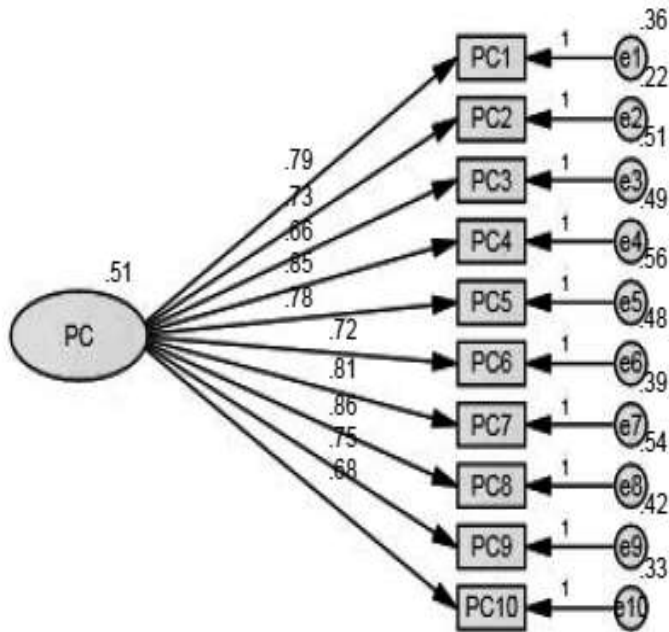
Figure 4.7: Measurement model for the PC fulfillment construct

Table 4.17: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for PC fulfillment construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	32.548***
NC	2.559
GFI	0.816
AGFI	0.823
RMSEA	0.076
NFI	0.829
CFI	0.955
TLI	0.949

Note:****p<0.001*

4.7.1.4 Distributive Justice
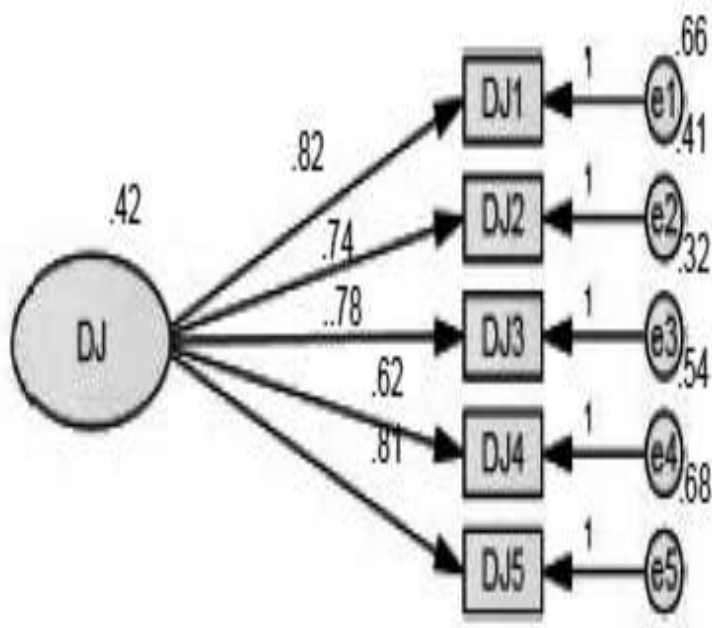
Figure 4.8: Measurement Model for the Distributive Justice Construct

Table 4.18: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Distributive Justice Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	22.665***
NC	2.271
GFI	0.814
AGFI	0.825
RMSEA	0.071
NFI	0.857
CFI	0.963
TLI	0.972

Note: *** $p < 0.001$

4.7.1.5 Procedural Justice
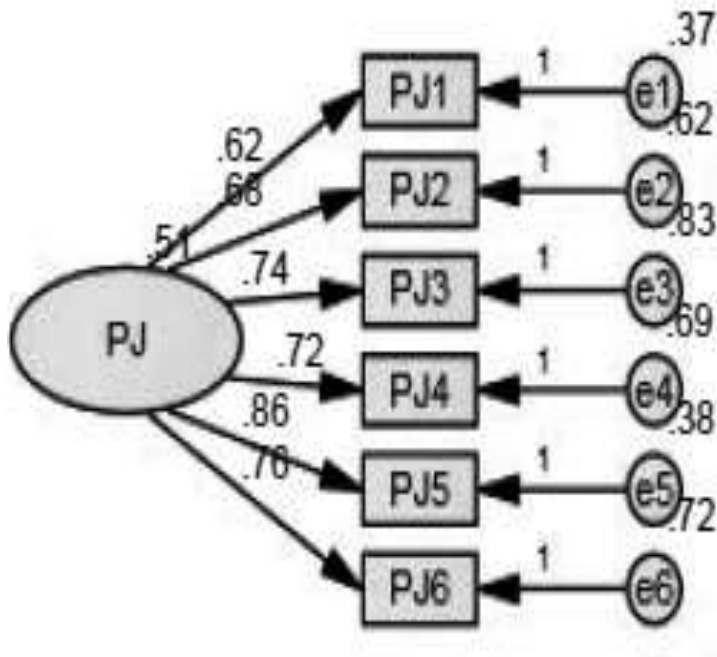
Figure 4.9 Measurement Model for the Procedural Justice Construct

Table 4.19 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Procedural Justice Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	34.192***
NC	3.627
GFI	0.825
AGFI	0.841
RMSEA	0.074
NFI	0.849
CFI	0.911
TLI	0.916

Note: *** $p < 0.00$

4.7.1.5 Interactional Justice
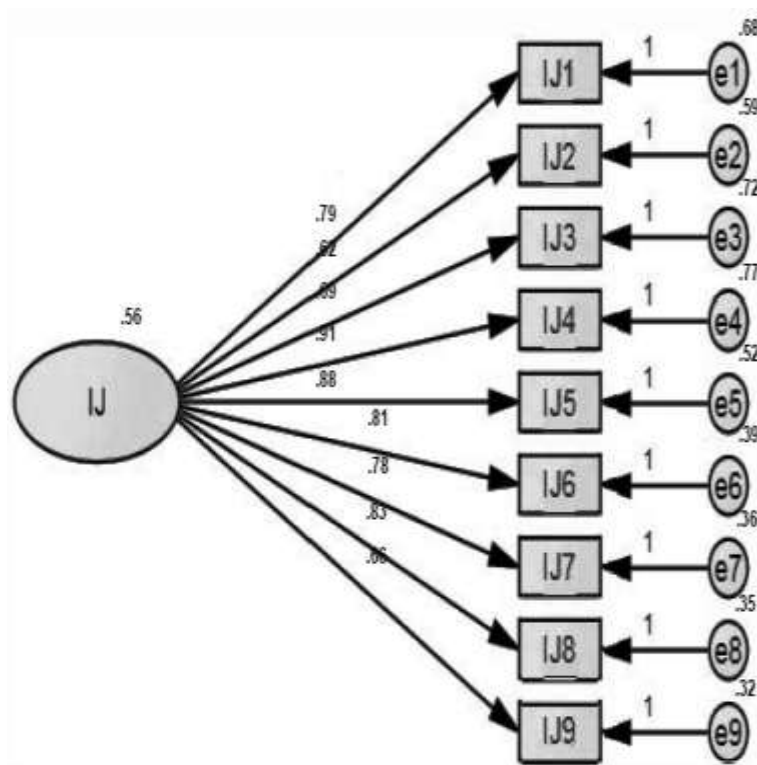
Figure 4.10 Measurement Model for the Interactional Justice Construct

Table 4.20 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Interactional Justice Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	26.198***
NC	2.324
GFI	0.825
AGFI	0.815
RMSEA	0.073
NFI	0.836
CFI	0.908
TLI	0.917

Note: *** $p < 0.001$

4.7.1.6 Work Engagement
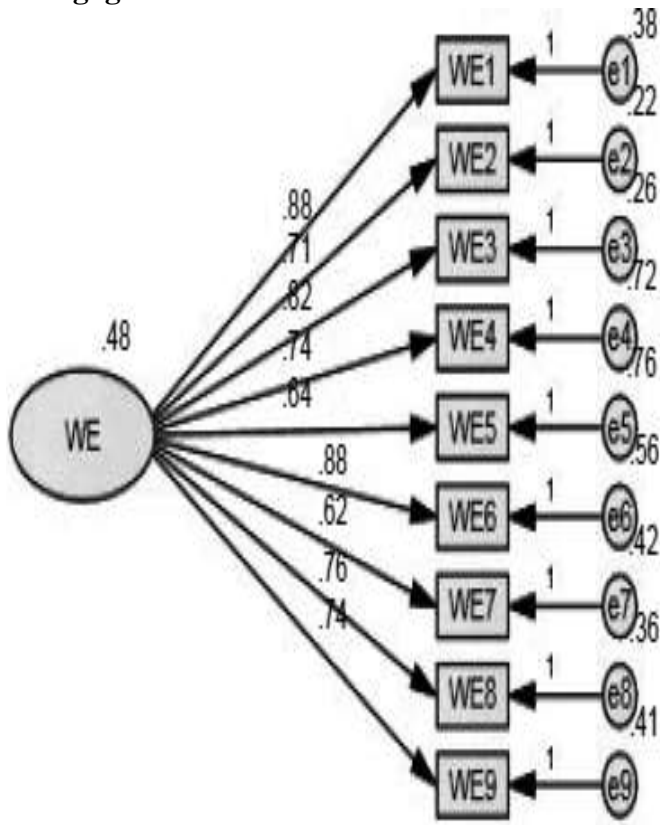
Figure 4.11 Measurement Model for the Work Engagement Construct

Table 4.21 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Work Engagement Construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	42.411***
NC	3.836
GFI	0.854
AGFI	0.869
RMSEA	0.075
NFI	0.856
CFI	0.972
TLI	0.985

Note: *** $p < 0.00$

4.7.1.7 Knowledge Sharing Behaviour
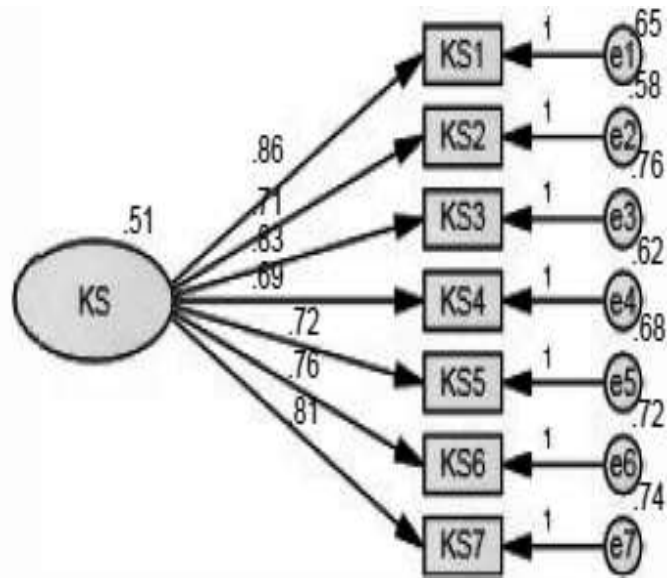
Figure 4.12 Measurement model for the KS behaviour Construct

Table 4.22 Goodness-of-Fit Indices for KS behaviour construct

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
$\chi 2$	37.779***
NC	3.258
GFI	0.846
AGFI	0.815
RMSEA	0.077
NFI	0.838
CFI	0.929
TLI	0.934

Note: *** $p < 0.001$

4.8 Reliability analysis

The reliability of a measurement instrument is the extent to which it yields consistent results when the characteristic being measured has not changed (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 93). In other words, reliability is the tool to measure accuracy and precision with two aspects of the

instrument: stability and equivalence/consistency. The option of the reliability of this study was α which considered the degree of conceptual reliability of teamwork and organizational commitment. The main reason for this option was a statistical consideration. In addition, according to Isaac and Michael's (1995) proposition, the value of Cronbach's α, greater than 0.7, is considered to represent high reliability, values between 0.3 to 0.7 are moderate reliability, and less than 0.3 is low reliability.

Before performing the validity analysis, each specified research constructs is checked for its uni-dimentionality and statistical reliability. In this study, the uni-dimensionality of all latent constructs is assessed using the comparative fit index (CFI). As shown in Table 4.23, CFI values for all latent constructs which ranged from 0.91 to 0.96 are above the desirable value of 0.90 recommended by chandar et al. (2001) and Hair et al. (2010). Therefore, there is no violation of uni-dimensionality. In order to check the extent to which the set of research constructs is consistent in what it is intended to measure, reliability coefficients are assessed. As presented in table 4.23 the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the eight scales ranged from 0.78 to 0.92, above the acceptable value of 0.6 suggested by Hair et al. (2010). The results of this reliability analysis indicate good internal consistency among the item within each construct

Table 4.23: Uni-dimensionality and Reliability for All Research Constructs

Constructs	No. of Items	CFI Values (Unidimensionality)	Cronbach's Alpha(reliability)
Ethical Leadership	10	0.92	0.85
Emotional Intelligence	16	0.94	0.92
PC Fulfillment	10	0.95	0.82
Distributive Justice	05	0.94	0.86
Procedural Justice	06	0.92	0.79
Interactional Justice	09	0.96	0.78
Work Engagement	09	0.91	0.88
KS Behaviour	07	0.93	0.92

4.8.1 Computation of Composite Reliability

Construct reliability is a measure of internal consistency in confirmatory factor analysis. The score must be higher than .20 in the observed variable and higher than .60 in the latent variable (Bentler & Wu, 1993). Composite reliability (CR) is another indicator of measurement model fit. Fornell and Larcker (1981, p. 45) recommended composite reliability to be calculated using

equation (2): The numerator for computing composite reliability is equal to the sum of squared factor loadings, (2).The denominator of equation (2) is equal to the sum of squared factor loadings plus the sum of the variances due to random measurement error for each loading. The coefficient of composite reliability is equivalent to Cronbach's alpha, but it considers the actual factor loadings instead of presuming that every item is equally weighted in the composite load determination. For this reason, composite reliability is important to indicate the internal consistency of the scales analysed using SEM. The desirable threshold value for composite reliability is 0.60 as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (1988). Likewise, this study used the recommended desirable threshold of 0.60 for the test of the composite reliability of each scales.

Table 4.24: Composite Reliability for All Research Constructs

Latent constructs	Items	Standardized factor loadings	Indicator reliability	Error variance
Ethical Leadership	EL1	0.762	0.580644	0.419356
	EL2	0.541	0.292681	0.707319
	EL3	0.839	0.703921	0.296079
	EL4	0.619	0.383161	0.616839
	EL5	0.474	0.224676	0.775324
	EL6	0.542	0.293764	0.706236
	EL7	0.759	0.576081	0.423919
	EL8	0.684	0.467856	0.532144
	EL9	0.632	0.399424	0.600576
	EL10	0.791	0.625681	0.374319
	Total	6.643	4.547889	**5.452111**
	Squared of Total	**44.129449**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.89			
Emotional Intelligence	EI1	0.832	0.692224	0.307776
	EI2	0.689	0.474721	0.525279
	EI3	0.525	0.275625	0.724375
	EI4	0.749	0.561001	0.438999
	EI5	0.879	0.772641	0.227359
	EI6	0.613	0.375769	0.624231
	EI7	0.744	0.553536	0.446464
	EI8	0.673	0.452929	0.547071
	EI9	0.819	0.670761	0.329239

	EI10	0.739	0.546121	0.453879
	EI11	0.813	0.660969	0.339031
	EI12	0.691	0.477481	0.522519
	EI13	0.719	0.516961	0.483039
	EI14	0.899	0.808201	0.191799
	EI15	0.912	0.831744	0.168256
	EI16	0.789	0.622521	0.377479
	Total	12.085	9.293205	**6.706795**
	Squared of Total	**146.047225**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.95			
PC Fulfillment	PC1	0.829	0.687241	0.312759
	PC2	0.714	0.509796	0.490204
	PC3	0.673	0.452929	0.547071
	PC4	0.522	0.272484	0.727516
	PC5	0.753	0.567009	0.432991
	PC6	0.729	0.531441	0.468559
	PC7	0.773	0.597529	0.402471
	PC8	0.912	0.831744	0.168256
	PC9	0.719	0.516961	0.483039
	PC10	0.659	0.434281	0.565719
	Total	7.283	5.401415	**4.598585**
	Squared of Total	**53.042089**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.92			
Distributive Justice	DJ1	0.879	0.772641	0.227359
	DJ2	0.719	0.516961	0.483039
	DJ3	0.759	0.576081	0.423919
	DJ4	0.684	0.467856	0.532144
	DJ5	0.755	0.570025	0.429975
	Total	3.796	2.903564	**2.096436**
	Squared of Total	**14.409616**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.87			
Procedural Justice	PJ1	0.513	0.263169	0.736831
	PJ2	0.722	0.521284	0.478716
	PJ3	0.849	0.720801	0.279199

	PJ4	0.739	0.546121	0.453879
	PJ5	0.879	0.772641	0.227359
	PJ6	0.795	0.632025	0.367975
	Total	4.497	3.456041	**2.543959**
	Squared of Total	**20.223009**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.88			
Interactional Justice	IJ1	0.764	0.583696	0.416304
	IJ2	0.652	0.425104	0.574896
	IJ3	0.715	0.511225	0.488775
	IJ4	0.930	0.8649	0.1351
	IJ5	0.959	0.919681	0.080319
	IJ6	0.769	0.591361	0.408639
	IJ7	0.754	0.568516	0.431484
	IJ8	0.879	0.772641	0.227359
	IJ9	0.819	0.670761	0.329239
	Total	7.241	5.907885	**3.092115**
	Squared of Total	**52.432081**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.94			
Work Engagement	WE1	0.929	0.863041	0.136959
	WE2	0.698	0.487204	0.512796
	WE3	0.899	0.808201	0.191799
	WE4	0.769	0.591361	0.408639
	WE5	0.975	0.950625	0.049375
	WE6	0.879	0.772641	0.227359
	WE7	0.531	0.281961	0.718039
	WE8	0.774	0.599076	0.400924
	WE9	0.795	0.632025	0.367975
	Total	7.249	5.986135	**3.013865**
	Squared of Total	**52.548001**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.94			
KS Behaviour	KS1	0.898	0.806404	0.193596
	KS2	0.942	0.887364	0.112636
	KS3	0.884	0.781456	0.218544
	KS4	0.709	0.502681	0.497319

	KS5	0.752	0.565504	0.434496
	KS6	0.789	0.622521	0.377479
	KS7	0.851	0.724201	0.275799
	Total	5.825	4.890131	**2.109869**
	Squared of Total	**33.930625**		
	Composite Reliability: 0.94			

In this study, the composite reliabilities of all latent constructs are calculated using the formula proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981). As shown in Table 4.24 the values of composite reliability for all latent constructs ranged from 0.87 to 0.94, are greater than the desirable value of 0.60 recommended by Bagozzi and Yi (1988). In this regard, the reliability of all the latent variables is further supported by the composite reliability coefficients of above 0.60.

4.8.2 Validity

Validity is the degree to which the research instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 92). However, the overall picture of validity exists in various forms which require different criteria: face validity, content validity, criterion validity and construct validity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The reasons behind checking the validity of constructs are related to the wordings of the questions, which might need slight revision in order to conform to the employees of the Indian public sector banks. Therefore, the content of the instrument should be able to generally cover the characteristics of different industrial categories. The actual implementation of content validity for this study was based on the reviews and suggestions from the panel experts who clarified the instrument's wording, format, and content. The experts involved in this process were three industry practitioners and two academicians who highly knowledgeable with respect to the domains of human resource management and organizational behaviour.

4.8.2.1 Content Validity

Content validity highlights the degree to which dimensions of a concept can be explained (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010). In general, content validity cannot be assessed numerically because it is a subjective measure judged by researchers (Saraph, Benson & Schroeder, 1989). However, content validity can be ensured if items underlying the constructs of an instrument are derived from an extensive review of relevant literature and evaluations by academicians and industry practitioners (Hair et al., 2010).

The content validity of the survey instrument in this study is assumed with the use of established measurement items in the prior literature, combined with additional insights provided by the academicians and industry practitioners. In fact, the references have listed the articles reviewed for this research and the research methodology section has described the process of developing the questionnaire. In addition, a pre-test was conducted, in which the pilot scales were reviewed by three managers, and two academicians, who had been having fair knowledge related to the variables of the study. A pilot study was subsequently carried out to determine if the survey questionnaire has to be refined. Given that the feedback provided by the respondents of the pilot study was helpful, the questions and wordings were revised based on the feedback collected. In these regards, the content validity for the research constructs of this study is assumed because the development of these measurement scales is based on voluminous literature review undertaken to ensure a representative collection of items, and comments given by the academicians and industry practitioners.

4.8.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity measures the extent of correlation between the measures of the construct (Hair et al., 2010; Malhotra & Dash, 2009). Convergent validity is computed from the measurement model, by comparing the significance of the construct and its respective standard error coefficient value. The estimate of the indicator should be twice its standard error (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

According to Hair et al. (2010), convergent validity of a construct is established if composite reliability (CR) of the construct is greater than its average variance extracted (AVE) and AVE is greater than 0.05. Convergent validity indicates that the individual items are similar while measuring the same underlying construct. Average variance extracted (AVE), used as a criterion to measure the convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), refers to "average amount of variation that a latent construct is able to explain in the observed variables to which it is theoretically related". An AVE value of 0.5 indicates convergence of the items at the construct level. Table 4.25 indicates that the model adheres to the test of convergent validity.

Table 4.25: Convergent Validity Results

Constructs	No. of Items	AVE	CR
Ethical leadership	10	0.53	0.89
Emotional intelligence	16	0.58	0.95
PC fulfillment	10	0.54	0.92
Distributive justice	05	0.58	0.87
Procedural justice	06	0.57	0.88
Interactional justice	09	0.65	0.94
Work engagement	09	0.68	0.94
KS behaviour	07	0.69	0.94

4.8.2.3 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity is the opposite of convergent validity (Neuman, 2006). Discriminant validity assesses the degree to which two conceptually similar concepts are different (Hair et al., 2010). Discriminant validity can be accessed through the analysis of correlations among measures (Hair et al., 2010). According to Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990), discriminant validity is ensured when each correlation is less than 1.0 by an amount greater than twice its respective standard error. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), discriminant validity prevails if the average variance extracted (AVE) value of every construct should be greater than the correlations among latent constructs. Following Fornell & Larcker (1981) and Bagozzi and Warshaw (1990), this study utilised the abovementioned recommendation to test for discriminant validity.

Discriminant validity indicates the extent to which a construct is different from the other constructs and establishes that a particular construct as unique in nature (Carmines & Zellar, 1979). The discriminant validity can be best examined through the methods of cross-loadings and average variance extracted. Cross loadings method indicates that each indicator should load on their respective latent variables. Average Variance Extracted method underlines that the square root of the AVE value for each construct should be larger than the inter-construct correlations (Fornell &Larcker, 1981). The diagonal matrix represents the square root of the AVE which provides the degree of variance between a construct and its indicators. All the first order constructs showed more variance with its indicators than with other constructs.

Composite Reliability (CR) is computed using the ratio of the squared sum of all factor loadings to the sum of all variances of each indicator plus the squared sum of factor loadings. The value of CR should be greater than AVE to fulfil the criteria of convergent validity. Table 4.26 represents values of all the mentioned parameters to be within their respective acceptable limits. Thus, the discriminant validity of the measurement was confirmed to be reliable and valid.

Table 4.26: Results of convergent and discriminant validity

Constructs	AVE	CR	EL	EI	PCF	DJ	PJ	IJ	WE	KSB
Ethical Leadership	0.53	0.89	**0.73**							
Emotional intelligence	0.58	0.95	*0.47*	**0.76**						
PC Fulfillment	0.54	0.92	*0.42*	*0.60*	**0.73**					
Distributive Justice	0.58	0.87	*0.53*	*0.46*	*0.44*	**0.76**				
Procedural Justice	0.57	0.88	*0.58*	*0.30*	*0.39*	*0.46*	**0.75**			
Interactional Justice	0.65	0.94	*0.32*	*0.33*	*0.46*	*0.34*	*0.33*	**0.81**		
Work Engagement	0.68	0.94	*0.41*	*0.31*	*0.32*	*0.35*	*0.46*	*0.47*	**0.82**	
KS Behaviour	0.69	0.94	*0.37*	*0.36*	*0.51*	*0.31*	*0.52*	*0.32*	*0.49*	**0.83**

Note: Diagonal elements are AVE square root values and Italicized are total inter-item correlation values.

4.9 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

SEM is known by several names such as *path analysis, covariance structure analysis, and latent variable analysi*s. Generally, SEM is a statistical methodology that uses a confirmatory, rather than an exploratory, approach to the data analysis of a structural theory (Byrne, 2001). There are several distinguished characteristics of SEM which support the utilisation of SEM in this study. First, SEM incorporates the strengths multiple regression analysis, factor analysis and multivariate ANOVA (MANOVA) in one model that can be assessed statistically and simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010). Second, SEM has an ability to represent both observed (measured) and unobserved (latent) variables in the relationships and correct for measurement error in the estimation process (Hair et al., 2010). Third, SEM allows directional predictions among a set of independent or a set of dependent variables as well as evaluates modelling of

indirect effects (Hoyle & Smith, 1994). Fourth, researchers could obtain the overall measures of model fit using SEM (Peyrot, 1996). Consistent with Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step modelling approach was employed to model the data in this study. The first step involves the development of measurement models using CFA to attain the best fitting group of items to represent each scale. The second step performs the specification of the structural model.

The SEM statistical technique was used to examine the relations among ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfillment with respect to distributive justice, procedural justice and interactional justice correspondingly. CFA was performed to assess the parameters of the measurement models of all the uni-dimensional constructs. The ML estimates for the measure parameters of the measurement and structural models are presented in figures (see Figure 4.13 and 4.14). In these figures, the unobserved latent variables are represented by circles (or ellipses), while observed variables are represented by squares (or rectangles). The single-headed arrows ($\rightarrow$) indicate the impact of one variable on another.

The unstandardised estimates of the observed variables on their corresponding latent constructs and the values of error terms associated with the estimates are shown beside the single-headed arrows in the Figures 4.13 and 4.14. In addition, the goodness-of-fit indices for the each model are shown in tables (see Table 4.27 and Table 4.28). For instance, ethical leadership is a latent construct 0.4 (represented by an ellipse). This latent construct is measured using ten questionnaire items, namely EL1 to EL10 which is represented by rectangles. In measurement model represented in Figure 4.5, EL1 to EL10 are the response items for the ethical leadership construct while e1 to e10 are their respective measurement errors.

The values on the arrows indicate the factor loading for each item in a measurement model to measure the latent constructs namely ethical leadership and the value is shown above each response item is the squared multiple correlation or R^2 for that particular item. Any item having a factor loading less than 0.6 and an R^2 less than should be deleted from the measurement model. However, the researcher may not do so if the fitness indexes for that measurement model already achieved the required level as shown in Table 4.27 (Acceptable Fit Indices). The output showing the factor loading and squared multiple correlations for every item in a measurement model are presented in Figure 4.13.

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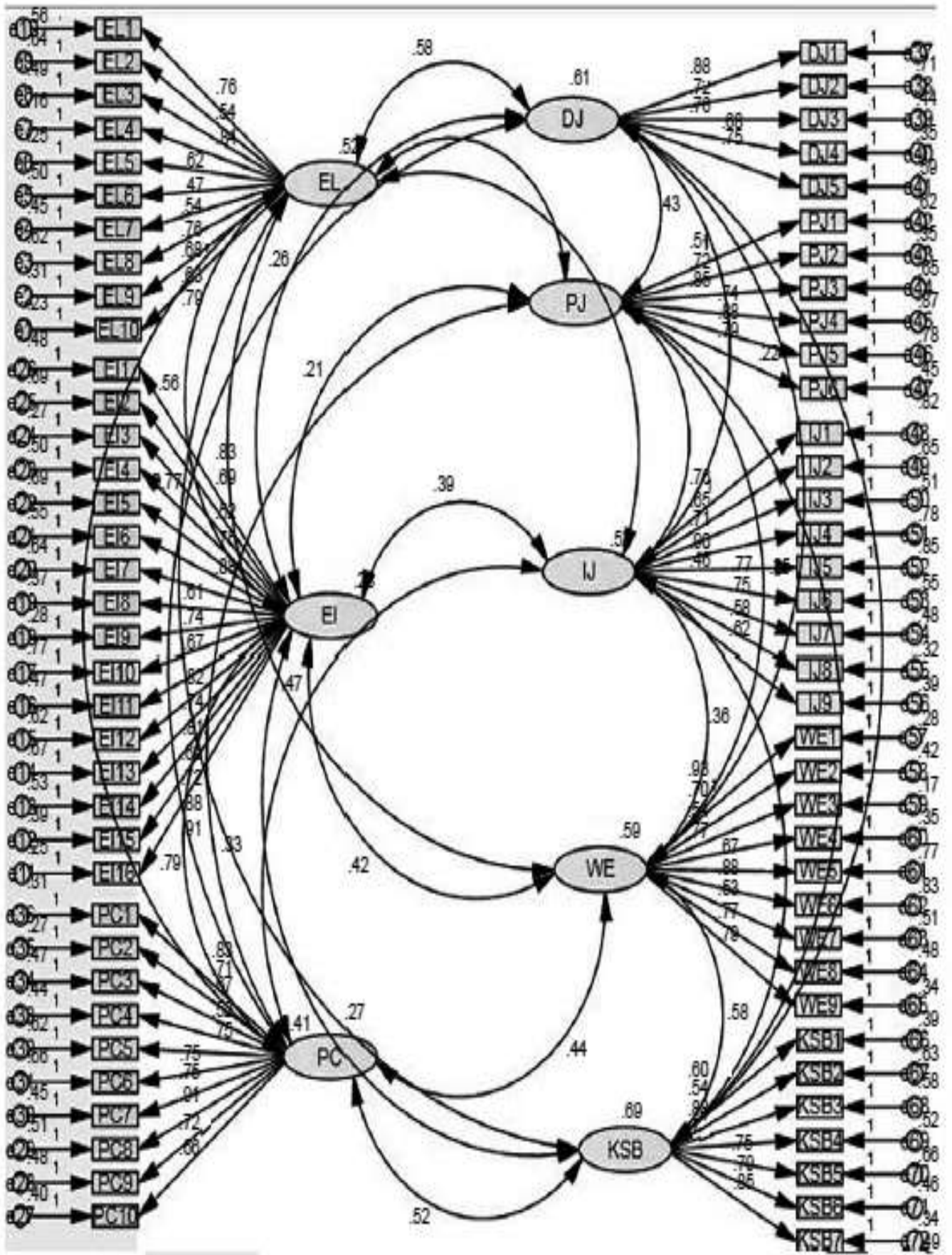
Figure 4.13 Measurement Model (Overall)

Table 4.27: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Measurement Model

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Measurement model
χ^2	1064.57***
NC	3.627
GFI	0.812
AGFI	0.917
RMSEA	0.071
NFI	0.873
CFI	0.905
TLI	0.896

Note: *** $p < 0.001$, *df*- 293

After the researchers have reported the uni-dimensionality, validity, and reliability of all constructs involved in the study, the next step is to model these constructs into a structural model for analysis using SEM. The normal practice is to assemble the constructs from left to right. Begin with the exogenous constructs on the left (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, psychological contract fulfillment) followed by the mediating construct (distributive justice, procedural justice, interactional justice, work engagement) in the middle, and finally the endogenous construct (knowledge sharing behaviour) on the far right. The arrow to link the constructs is determined by the direction of hypotheses. The single headed arrow is used to indicate the causal effects while the double-headed arrow is used to test the correlational effects among the constructs.

With SEM, the researcher could model and analyse the multiple relationships among the constructs simultaneously. The values on the one direction arrow in Figure. 4.14 are the standardized regression estimates and the values on the double sided arrows are the correlations between the exogenous constructs. The measure of correlation between the exogenous latent construct such as EL, EI and PC are 0.47, 0.32 and 0.31 respectively. Since all the three correlation values are less than the acceptable limit of 0.85 (Awang et al., 2015), it can be concluded that the discriminant validity among the exogenous constructs was achieved. The coefficient of determination R^2 is 0.42, which describes the cumulative variance explained by all the exogenous constructs in estimating the endogenous construct. Finally, the values near the error coefficients represent the residual variance. Figure 4.14 represents the structural model with regression path coefficients. The absolute, incremental and parsimonious fit indices

of the structural model are represented in Table no. 4.28 and after comparing the results of the structural model with the desirable range of fit indices, it can be concluded that the proposed model achieved the required level of fitness.
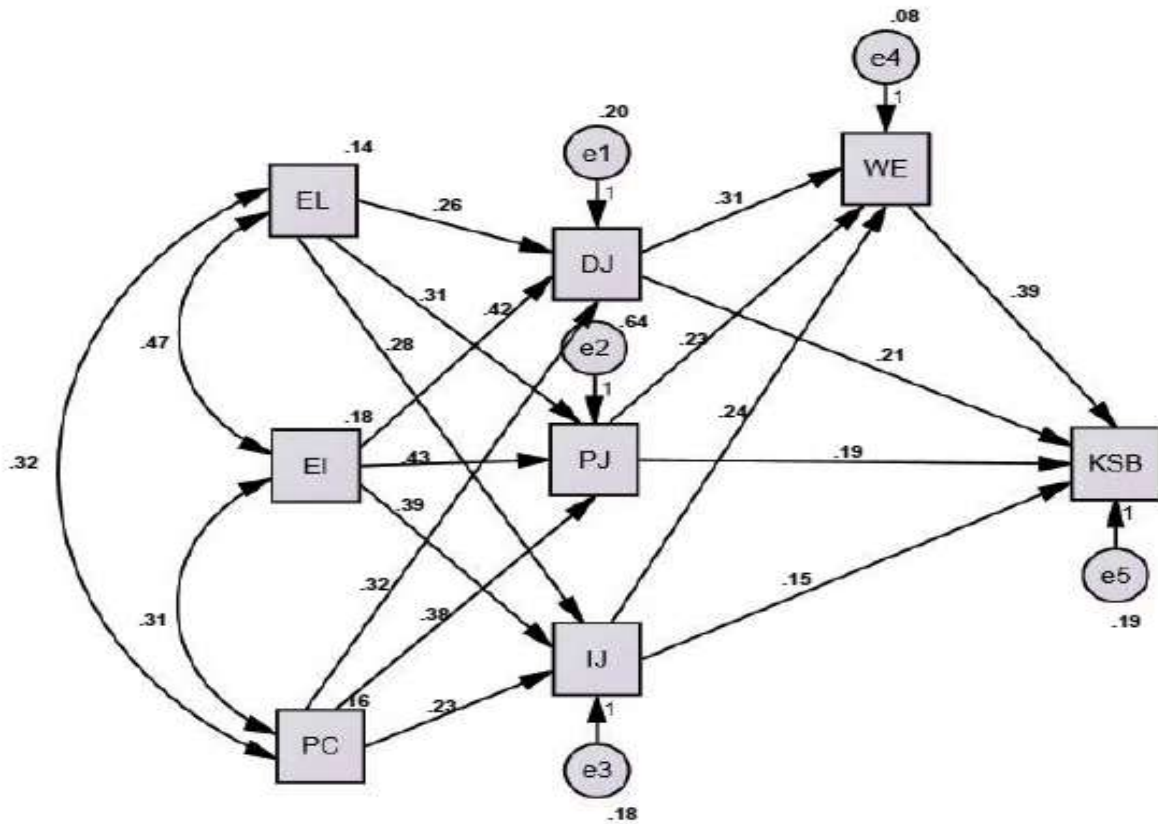
Figure 4.14 Structural Model with Standardized Regression Estimates

Table 4.28: Goodness-of-Fit Indices for Structural Model

Goodness-of-fit Indices	Structural Model
χ^2	1032.38***
NC	3.523
GFI	0.836
AGFI	0.844
RMSEA	0.074
NFI	0.892
CFI	0.935
TLI	0.946

Note: *** $p < 0.001$, *df*- 293

Table 4.29 indicates the parameter estimates of the structural model such as the standardized regression estimates, standard error, critical ratio and the significance values of the corresponding regression weights. The critical ratio is the ratio between regression weight estimates and the standard error of a respective linkage. For instance, the critical ratio of 4.69 obtained for the linkage EL → PJ, indicates that the regression estimate is 4.69 standard errors above zero. All the values mentioned in the table were obtained from the test output generated by the AMOS.

Table 4.29: Parameter estimates for the finalized structural model

Path	Standardised Estimates	Standard Errors	Critical Ratio	p-value
EL --> DJ	0.26	0.078	03.33	***
EL --> PJ	0.31	0.066	04.69	***
EL --> IJ	0.28	0.046	06.08	***
EI --> DJ	0.42	0.04	10.50	***
EI --> PJ	0.43	0.038	11.31	***
EI --> IJ	0.39	0.032	12.18	***
PCF --> DJ	0.32	0.042	07.61	***
PCF --> PJ	0.38	0.043	08.83	***
PCF --> IJ	0.23	0.035	06.57	***
DJ --> WE	0.31	0.086	03.60	***
PJ --> WE	0.23	0.113	02.03	**
IJ --> WE	0.24	0.116	02.06	***
DJ -->KSB	0.21	0.042	05.00	***
PJ --> KSB	0.19	0.046	04.13	***
IJ --> KSB	0.15	0.077	01.94	***
WE --KSB	0.39	0.119	03.27	***

Note: DJ= distributive justice, PJ= procedural justice, IJ= interactional justice, PCF= psychological contract fulfillment, EL= ethical leadership, EI= emotional intelligence, WE=work engagement and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.05$.

4.9.1 Hypothesis results

Hypothesis 1

H1a: Ethical leadership has a positive influence on distributive justice.

H1b: Ethical leadership has a positive influence on procedural justice.

H1c: Ethical leadership has a positive influence on interactional justice.

The research findings in this study indicate that ethical leadership positively influences all the three dimensions of organizational justice such as distributive (β = 0.26, t = 10.01, p< 0.001), procedural justice (β = 0.31, t = 8.01, p< 0.001) and interactional justice (β = 0.28, t = 8.39, p< 0.05). Structural equation modeling was conducted to test the H1a, H1b, and H1c hypotheses. The path coefficients, t statistics, and significance values were obtained from the structure model which was represented as part in Table 4.29. Thus, the study supports H1a, H1b and H1c.

Hypothesis 2

H2a: Emotional intelligence has a positive influence on distributive justice.

H2b: Emotional intelligence has a positive influence on procedural justice.

H2c: Emotional intelligence has a positive influence on interactional justice.

The research findings in this study indicate that emotional intelligence positively influences all the three dimensions of organizational justice such as distributive (β = 0.42, t = 11.60, p< 0.001), procedural justice (β = 0.43, t = 11.99, p< 0.001) and interactional justice (β = 0.39, t = 5.25, p< 0.001). Structural equation modelling was conducted to test the H2a, H2b, and H2c hypotheses. The path coefficients, t statistics, and significance values were obtained from the structure model (see figure 4.14). Thus, the study supports H2a, H2b and H2c.

Hypothesis 3

H3a: Psychological contract fulfillment has a positive influence on distributive justice.

H3b: Psychological contract fulfillment has a positive influence on procedural justice.

H3c: Psychological contract fulfillment has a positive influence on interactional justice.

The research findings in this study indicate that is PC fulfillment positively influences all the three dimensions of organizational justice such as distributive (β = 0.32, t = 7.09, p < 0.001), procedural justice (β = 0.38, t = 6.46, p < 0.001) and interactional justice (β = 0.23, t= 4.83, p < 0.001). Structural equation modelling was conducted to test the H3a, H3b, and H3c hypotheses. The path coefficients, t statistics, and significance values were obtained from the structure model (see figure 4.14). Thus, the study supports H3a, H3b, and H3c. Thus, this study supports H3a, H3b and H3c.

Hypothesis 4

H4a: Distributive justice has a positive influence on KS behaviour.

H4b: Procedural justice has a positive influence on KS behaviour.

H4c: Interactional justice has a positive influence on KS behaviour.

The research findings in this study indicate that the three dimensions of organizational justice such as distributive ($\beta = 0.21$, t = 3.75, p < 0.001), procedural justice ($\beta = 0.19$, t = 4.04, p < 0.05) and interactional justice ($\beta = 0.15$, t= 3.12, p < 0.001) significantly predicts KS behaviour. Structural equation modeling was conducted to test the H4a, H4b, and H4c hypotheses. The path coefficients, t statistics, and significance values were obtained from the structure model which was represented in part of Table 4.29. Thus, this study supports H4a, H4b and H4c.

4.10 Tests of Alternative Models

After confirming the measurement models for the latent variables, the structural model representing associations among the constructs in the proposed model was assessed. The concept of adequate fit of a research model is highly relative in nature. The best way to select the fit is to test for the alternative competing models and should be benchmarked against the hypothesized model. This partially mediated structural model was contrasted with three alternative models, which are framed by connecting the variables that are not associated as per the structural model. The proposed model against the alternative models allows an assessment of which one best fits the data (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In the first of the alternative models (A-l), three direct paths were added from ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and psychological contract fulfillment towards work engagement (see Figure 4.15).
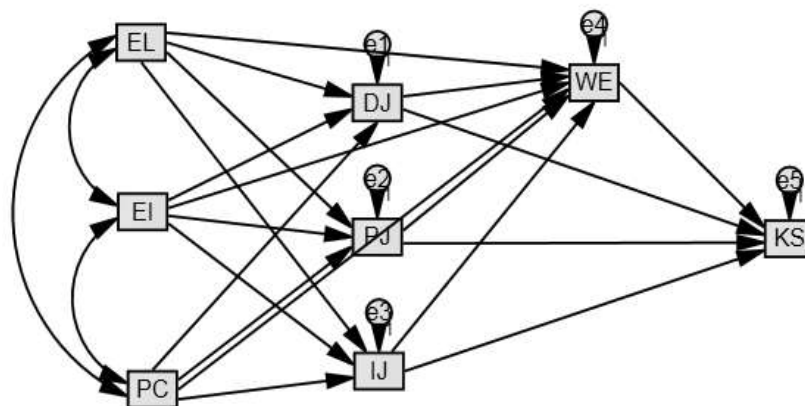
Figure 4.15: Alternative Model 1

In the second of the alternative models (A-2) three direct paths were added from ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment towards knowledge sharing behaviour (see Figure 4.16). Dogan (2003) explained the relation between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing as a four-step model connected in a circular process, such as knowing the individual, strategy development, reactive analysis and feedback. The linkage between tacit knowledge and emotional intelligence was highlighted by Othman and Abdullah (2011) and the authors concluded that effective management of emotions is a precursor to the team work which in turn affects the organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and which finally leads to knowledge sharing.
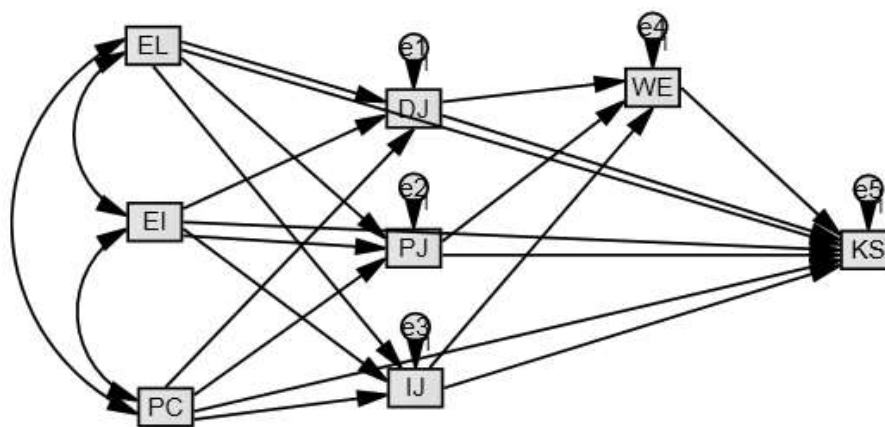
Figure 4.16: Alternative Model 2

In the third of the alternative models (A-3), six direct paths were added from ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment towards both work engagement and knowledge sharing behaviour (see Figure 4.17).
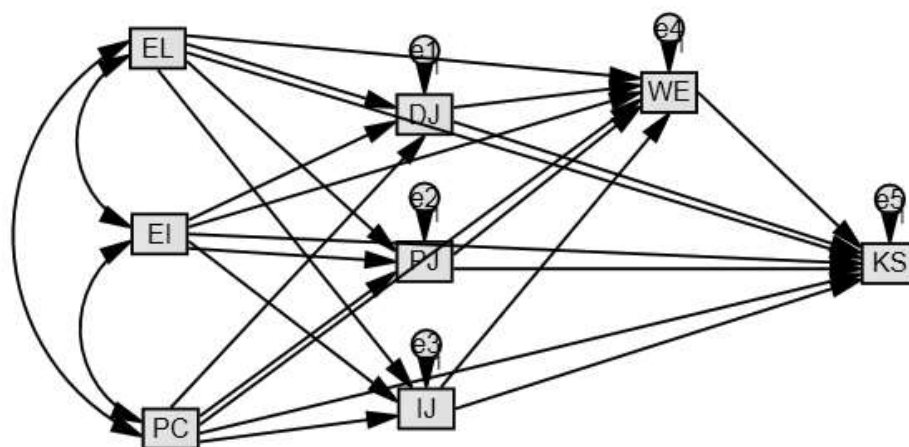
Figure 4.17: Alternative Model 3

All the fit indices of the three alternate models are represented in table no, as a reference to the proposed model. In order to conduct the chi-square difference tests, Satorra-Bentler Corrected Chi-square has to be used to calculate the scaling correction factors for each of the four models (Satorra & Bentler, 2001). Since AMOS does not provide Satorra-Bentler Corrected Chi-square, Bollen-Stine bootstrapping method and standard errors based on bias corrected confidence intervals were used to correct the chi-square. Further, these methods did produce the p-values rather than the actual values of corrected chi-squares. The significant values for the three alternative models and one proposed model are presented in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: Comparing Alternative Models

Model	Chi square	df	NC	GFI	AGFI	RMSEA	NFI	CFI	TLI	p-values
Proposed Model	1032.38	293	3.523	0.83	0.84	0.074	0.89	0.93	0.94	
Alternative Model 1	992.41	290	3.422	0.82	0.84	0.072	0.86	0.91	0.92	0.61*
Alternative Model 2	981.26	290	3.384	0.82	0.83	0.072	0.86	0.91	0.92	0.42*
Alternative Model 3	935.73	287	3.26	0.81	0.83	0.0072	0.82	0.89	0.91	0.55*

Not Significant

Chi-Square tests did not demonstrate significant differences ($p < .05$) between the proposed model and the alternative models. Accordingly, adding these paths did not provide better fitting models to the data. Hence, the proposed structural model is the best fitting model.

4.11 Tests of Mediating Effects

A mediator is defined as a variable that accounts for the relation between an independent (predictor) variable and a dependent (outcome) variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In other words, a mediator represents asymmetric relations among research variables (MacKinnon, 2008). A structural model comprising independent, mediator and dependent variables can produce the indirect effect. The indirect effect is consistent with mediation (Hair et al., 2006). Following MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, and Sheets (2002), the term *mediation* comes from the psychological literature, while *indirect effect* is the more common term in sociology. Hence, the terms *mediating effects* and *indirect effects* are used interchangeably in

this study. An indirect effect refers to the effect of a variable on another that is mediated by an intervening variable in a model (Pituch & Stapleton, 2008).

Both regression and SEM statistical strategies can be used to test the mediating effects. The logic of the analyses is the same in both strategies (Holmbeck, 1997). SEM is viewed as the preferred method because it is the most efficient and least problematic means of testing mediating effects (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Holmbeck, 1997; Hoyle & Smith, 1994). We followed the procedures of Baron and Kenny (1986) to examine such mediation hypotheses. Moreover, Kenny, Kashy and Bolger (1998) presented an updated account of Baron and Kenny (1986) and noted that the necessity of the significant direct effect of initial, independent variable X to outcome Y is no longer essential to establish mediation (p. 260). Therefore, (Hypotheses 5a, 5b, 5c, 6a, 6b, 6c, 7a, 7b, 7c, 8a, 8b, 8c) are tested by using an application provided by Hayes (2013).

The SPSS macro called PROCESS is a computational tool in order to perform complex research models with multiple mediators, moderators and at times both of them together (Hayes, 2013). PROCESS offers many of the features of SOBEL, INDIRECT and MED3/C (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). PROCESS can facilitate estimations of the indirect effect by using the SOBEL test and a bootstrap approach to obtain the confidence interval (CI) and to incorporate the stepwise procedure suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986).

The present study tests the mediating effects of the dimensions of organizational justice and work engagement as part of hypotheses 5, 6, 7, and 8 respectively. A sequential mediation analysis using Model 4 of the SPSS Process macro was adopted to perform the mediation analysis along with bootstrapping (Hayes, 2013).

H5a proposes that work engagement acts as a mediator between distributive justice and KS behaviour. Table no. 4.31, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses 5a, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect wasfound to be positive with ($\beta = 0.09$, t = 2.97, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of distributive justice on KS behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.21$, t = 3.22, $p < 0.001$) as shown Table 4.31 and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect) is significant with ($\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 2.42, p < 0.01), as shown in Table 4.31. Bootstrapping which is basically as ampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero upper and lower limit confidence interval at (1.2080, 1.1134) respectively

(see table 4.31). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis 5a and it can be concluded that work engagement acts as a mediator between distributive justice and KS behaviour.

Table No 4.31: Results for work engagement as a mediator between distributive justice and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	P
Direct and Total Effects				
DJ --> KSB	0.21	0.042	3.22	0.000
DJ --> WE	0.31	0.086	4.64	0.000
WE --> KSB (controlling DJ)	0.41	0.125	7.19	0.028
DJ --> KSB (Controlling WE)	0.09	0.069	2.97	0.003

Variable	Value	SE	z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.12	0.094	2.42	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.12	0.107	1.1134	1.2080

Note: N= 380 Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. DJ= distributive justice, WE=work engagement and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour

H5b proposes that work engagement acts as a mediator between procedural justice and KS behaviour. Table no. 4.32, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses 5b, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.11$, t = 4.83, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of procedural justice on KS behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.19$, t = 3.98, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.32, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect or product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.08$, $p < 0.05$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 2.07, p < 0.001), as shown in Table 4.32.

Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.5493, 0.6670) respectively (see table 4.32). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis 5b and it can be

concluded that work engagement acts as a mediator between procedural justice and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.32 Results for work engagement as a mediator between procedural justice and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
PJ --> KSB	0.19	0.046	3.98	0.000
PJ --> WE	0.23	0.094	4.7	0.000
WE --> KSB (Controlling PJ)	0.39	0.116	10.32	0.020
PJ --> KSB (Controlling WE)	0.11	0.168	4.83	0.041

Variable	Value	SE	Z	p
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.08	0.098	2.07	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.08	0.104	0.5493	0.6670

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. PJ= procedural justice, WE=work engagement and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour

H5c proposes that work engagement acts as a mediator between interactional justice and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table no. 4.33, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses 5c, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with (β = 0.06, t = 2.67, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of procedural justice on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with (β = 0.15, t = 3.75, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.33, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with (β = 0.09, $p < 0.01$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 3.59, p < 0.001), as shown in Table 4.33. Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1516, 0.4375) respectively (see table 4.33).

Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis 5c and it can be concluded that Work engagement acts as a mediator between interactional justice and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.33: Results for work engagement as a mediator between interactional justice and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
IJ --> KSB	0.15	0.061	3.75	0.000
IJ --> WE	0.24	0.054	3.98	0.000
WE --> KSB (Controlling IJ)	0.38	0.077	9.08	0.000
IJ --> KSB (Controlling WE)	0.06	0.115	2.67	0.028

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.09	0.061	3.59	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.09	0.073	0.1516	0.4375

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. IJ= interactional justice, WE=work engagement and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H6a proposes that distributive justice acts as a mediator between ethical leadership and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.34, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H6a, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.12$, t = 2.93, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of ethical leadership on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.22$, t = 3.98, $p < 0.001$) as shown in Table 4.34, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 2.87, p < 0.001), as shown in Table 4.34.

Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.0253,

0.0809) respectively. Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H6a and it can be concluded that distributive justice acts as a partial mediator between ethical leadership and KS behaviour.

Table No. 4.34: Results for distributive justice as a mediator between ethical leadership and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
EL --> KSB	0.22	0.054	3.98	0.000
EL --> DJ	0.26	0.078	10.01	0.000
DJ --> KSB (Controlling EL)	0.41	0.093	13.20	0.001
EL --> KSB (Controlling DJ)	0.12	0.059	2.93	0.005

Variable	Value	SE	z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.10	0.086	2.87	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.10	0.091	0.0253	0.0809

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EL=ethical leadership, DJ=distributive justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H6b proposes that procedural justice acts as a mediator between ethical leadership and KS behaviour. Table No 4.35, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H6b, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.10$, t = 2.41, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of ethical leadership on KS behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.24$, t = 3.98, $p < 0.001$) as shown in Table 4.35, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects is significant with ($\beta = 0.14$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 3.91, p < 0.001) as shown in table 49.

Bootstrapping which is basically sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.0439,

0.1816) respectively (see table 4.35). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H6b and it can be concluded that interactional justice acts as a mediator between ethical leadership and KS behaviour.

Table No. 4.35: Results for Procedural Justice as a Mediator between Ethical Leadership and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	P
Direct and Total Effects				
EL --> KSB	0.22	0.054	3.98	0.000
EL --> PJ	0.31	0.066	8.01	0.000
PJ --> KSB (Controlling EL)	0.48	0.085	12.51	0.012
EL --> KSB(Controlling PJ)	0.10	0.023	2.41	0.016

Variable	Value	SE	z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.14	0.072	3.91	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.14	0.079	0.0439	0.1816

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EL=ethical leadership, PJ= procedural justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H6c proposes that interactional justice acts as a mediator between ethical leadership and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.36, demonstrates the results for Hypothesis H6c, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.13$, t = 3.78, $p < 0.001$), the total effect of ethical leadership on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.23$, t = 3.98, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.35, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.10$, $p < 0.05$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 4.35, p < 0.001) as shown in Table 4.36.

Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.0267,

0.0635) respectively (see table 4.36). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H6c and it can be concluded that interactional justice acts as a mediator between ethical leadership and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No. 4.36: Results for Interactional Justice as a Mediator between Ethical Leadership and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
EL --> KSB	0.22	0.054	3.98	0.000
EL --> IJ	0.28	0.046	8.39	0.006
IJ --> KSB (Controlling EL)	0.39	0.071	11.80	0.022
EL --> KSB(Controlling IJ)	0.13	0.058	3.78	0.000

Variable	Value	SE	z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.10	0.056	4.35	0.001
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.10	0.064	0.0267	0.0635

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EL=ethical leadership, IJ= interactional justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H7a proposes that distributive justice acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.37, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H7a, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.09$, t = 3.06, $p < 0.001$), the total effect of emotional intelligence on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.36$, t = 5.48, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.37, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.27$, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 7.59, p < 0.001), as shown in Table 4.37.

Bootstrapping which is basically sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1516,

0.4375) respectively (see table 4.37). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H7a and it can be concluded that distributive justice acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence (EI) and KS behaviour.

Table No. 4.37: Results for Distributive Justice as a mediator between EI and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
EI --> KSB	0.36	0.054	5.48	0.000
EI --> DJ	0.42	0.040	11.60	0.000
DJ --> KSB (Controlling EI)	0.66	0.069	16.41	0.016
EI --> KSB (Controlling DJ)	0.09	0.071	3.06	0.033

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.27	0.051	7.59	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.27	0.058	0.1516	0.4375

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EI= emotional intelligence, DJ=distributive justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H7b proposes that procedural justice acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.38, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H7b, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.11$, t = 2.30, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of emotional intelligence on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.35$, t = 4.48, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.38, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.24$, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 7.17, p < 0.001) as shown in table 4.38. Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1398, 0.2570) respectively (see table 4.38).

Thus supporting the claim of hypothesis H7b and it can be concluded that procedural justice acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No. 4.38 Results for Procedural Justice as a mediator between EI and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
EI --> KSB	0.36	0.054	5.48	0.000
EI --> PJ	0.43	0.038	11.99	0.000
PJ --> KSB (Controlling EI)	0.58	0.072	15.29	0.025
EI --> KSB(Controlling PJ)	0.11	0.075	2.30	0.021

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.24	0.046	7.17	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.24	0.063	0.1398	0.2570

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EI= emotional intelligence, PJ= procedural justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H7c proposes that interactional justice acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.39, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H7c, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.08$, t = 2.46, $p < 0.001$), the total effect of emotional intelligence on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.14$, t = 4.48, $p < 0.001$), and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.06$, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 5.46, $p < 0.001$) as shown in Table 4.39.

 Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (2.5113, 3.086) respectively (see table 4.39). Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H7c and it can be

concluded that interactional acts as a mediator between emotional intelligence and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.39: Results for Interactional Justice as a mediator between EI and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
EI --> KSB	0.14	0.054	4.48	0.000
EI --> IJ	0.19	0.042	5.25	0.000
IJ --> KSB (controlling EI)	0.32	0.065	9.54	0.041
EI --> KSB(Controlling IJ)	0.08	0.055	2.46	0.000

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.06	0.041	5.46	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0..06	0.075	2.5113	3.086

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. EI= emotional intelligence, IJ= interactional justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H8a proposes that distributive justice acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.40 demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H8a, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with (β = 0.11, t = 3.64, $p < 0.001$), the total effect of psychological contract fulfillment on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with (β = 0.26, t = 4.17, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 58, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with (β = 0.17, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 4.92, p < 0.001), as shown in table 4.40.

Bootstrapping which is basically sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1754, 0.1971) respectively (see table 4.40). Thus supporting the claim of hypothesis H8a and it can be

concluded that distributive justice acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.40: Results for distributive justice as a mediator between PC fulfillment and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
PCF --> KSB	0.26	0.055	4.17	0.000
PCF --> DJ	0.32	0.042	7.09	0.000
DJ --> KSB (Controlling PCF)	0.49	0.076	9.77	0.005
PCF --> KSB(Controlling DJ)	0.11	0.069	3.64	0.101

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.17	0.047	4.92	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.17	0.058	0.1754	0.1971

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. PCF= psychological contract fulfillment, DJ=distributive justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H8b proposes that procedural justice acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.41, demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H8b, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with ($\beta = 0.09$, t = 2.19, $p < 0.05$), the total effect of psychological contract fulfillment on knowledge sharing behaviour is positively significant with ($\beta = 0.26$, t = 4.17, $p < 0.001$) as shown in table 4.40, and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with ($\beta = 0.16$, $p < 0.001$) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 4.58, p < 0.001) as shown in Table 4.41.

Bootstrapping which is basically a sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1201, 0.8172) respectively as shown in Table 4.41. Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H8b and

it can be concluded that procedural justice acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.41: Results for Procedural Justice as a mediator between PC Fulfillment and KS Behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	p
Direct and Total Effects				
PCF --> KSB	0.26	0.055	4.17	0.000
PCF --> PJ	0.38	0.043	6.46	0.000
PJ --> KSB (Controlling PCF)	0.44	0.082	8.94	0.046
PCF --> KSB(Controlling PJ)	0.09	0.685	2.19	0.028

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.16	0.055	4.58	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.16	0.067	0.1201	0.8172

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. PCF= psychological contract fulfillment, PJ= procedural justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

H8c proposes that interactional justice acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour. Table 4.42 demonstrates the results for Hypotheses H8c, which is significantly positive. The path coefficient of the direct effect was found to be positive with (β = 0.17, t = 2.95, p < 0.001), the total effect of psychological contract fulfillment on KS behaviour is positively significant with (β = 0.26, t = 4.17, p < 0.001) and the path coefficient of the total indirect effect (which is the difference between total effect and total direct effect (or) product of the indirect effects) is significant with (β = 0.09, p < 0.001) respectively. The results of two-tailed significance test illustrated a significant indirect effect (SOBEL Z = 4.607, p < 0.001) and is shown in Table 4.42. Bootstrapping which is basically sampling of the samples was conducted at the rate of 1000 samples and 95% confidence interval in order to confirm the results around the indirect effect and the results indicated a non-zero lower and upper limit confidence interval at (0.1516, 0.4375) respectively. Thus, supporting the claim of hypothesis H8c and it can be concluded that interactional justice

acts as a mediator between psychological contract fulfillment and knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table No 4.42: Results for interactional justice as a mediator between PC fulfillment and KS behaviour

Variable	B	S.E.	t	P
Direct and Total Effects				
PCF --> KSB	0.26	0.055	4.17	0.000
PCF --> IJ	0.23	0.035	4.83	0.000
IJ --> KSB (Controlling PCF)	0.42	0.065	7.68	0.009
PCF --> KSB(Controlling IJ)	0.17	0.056	2.95	0.000

Variable	Value	SE	Z	P
Indirect effect and significance using normal distribution				
Sobel	0.09	0.041	4.607	0.000
Variable	M	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95 % CI
Bootstrap results for indirect effect				
Effect	0.09	0.058	0.1516	0.4375

Note: N= 380. Bootstrap sample size = 1000, LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval. PCF= psychological contract fulfillment, IJ=interactional justice and KSB= knowledge sharing behaviour.

The results show that work engagement act as a partial mediator between the dimensions of justice and KS behaviour. Further, organizational justice dimensions act as partial mediators between the antecedents (ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment) and knowledge sharing.

4.12 Chapter summary

This chapter presents the results obtained from the data analyses. The data screening was presented first, followed by respondents' demographic profile. Next, descriptive statistics was presented which includes values of mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis and correlations. Subsequently, CFA output comprising of measurement model of all the constructs and overall measurement model were presented. Then, the output of structural model and path estimation were presented. Lastly, the results of mediation were outlined, followed by concluding remark on each hypothesis.

CHAPTER-5

DISCUSSION

5. 1 Introduction

Banking institutions are the cornerstone on the canvas of Indian economy and financial growth prospects. A change in the monetary and foreign direct investment (FDI) rates has given more mileage for the establishment of more foreign and Indian private banks. In this backdrop, public sector banks in India face a great challenge in terms of interest rates, attractive cum risk associated loan schemes and other innovation strategies for having an edge over the competitors (Shrivastava & Purang, 2011). Due to the significance of human capital in the banking sector, organizational justice and KS behaviour have emerged as topics of immense interest among organizations, researchers, and practitioners alike. Moreover, to the best of author's knowledge no study could be found that has measured the influence of employees' perceptions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) on KS behaviour in the Indian public banking sector incorporating other individual and contextual factors affecting justice perceptions.

Various studies (Lee et al. 2012; Yesil & Dereli, 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Yang, 2007) have found knowledge sharing as an important ingredient for organizational effectiveness, organizational learning, firm performance, and innovation. Thus, this study examines the impact of organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) on KS behaviour of individuals and key antecedents to justice perceptions in a comprehensive, empirically verified model.

The current study thereby fills a significant gap in understanding organizational justice, the nature of the relationship between justice and key variables that drive it, and the effect of organizational justice perceptions on KS behaviour. This research has examined the effects of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment on organizational justice perceptions of employees in Indian public sector banks. Discussions of the results are provided below.

5.1.1 Ethical Leadership and Organizational Justice

The results of first framed hypotheses (H1a, H1b and H1c) highlight the effect of ethical leadership (social- contextual factor) on dimensions of organizational justice. The results indicate that ethical behaviour of managers has a positive influence on fairness perceptions which means employees who work under ethical managers perceive more justice within

organizations. The findings of the study resonate with the findings of Demirtas (2013) who suggested that ethical leadership positively influences justice perceptions. Yukl and Van fleet (1992) advocated that manager's behaviours of using contingent rewards would promote the favourable perception of distributive justice. Xu et al. (2014) advocated that ethical leaders engender trust among employees, which in turn promotes distributive justice.

Researchers (Demirtas 2013; Li et al. 2012, 2014) have argued that an ethical leader act as a moral agent of organizations who maintains and promotes the compliance of ethical standards of the organization such as justice, thus, one may expect that their behaviours have a vital role to play in influencing employees' fairness judgment regarding organizational procedures and outcomes. Cropanzano and Rupp (2002) posit that ethical leaders or managers are viewed as moral agents of the organizations who play an important role in implementing procedures and distributing outcomes fairly.

Lastly, the result exhibits that ethical leadership has a positive influence on interactional justice. This finding corroborates with the past findings of Brown et al. (2005), Neubert et al. (2009) and Wang et al. (2015). Further, the result of the study shows that ethical behaviour of managers has more influence on procedural justice, followed by interactional and distributive justice. The findings of the study resonate with the findings of Xu et al. (2014) and Bacha & Walker (2013).

5.1.2 Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Justice

The results of the second group of hypotheses (H2a, H2b and H2c) indicate that the EI (individual factor) of employees has a positive influence on the three dimensions of organizational justice. These findings are in line with the previous findings of Ouyang et al. (2015) and Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012). Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) argued that employees with high EI easily identify and control their emotions, they are able to understand well the job stress source and adopt suitable coping mechanisms to reduce exhaustion. Mikula, Scherer and Athenstaedt (1998) posit that experience of justice motivates positive emotions and experience of injustice arouses negative emotions.

Researchers (Zeidner et al., 2004) asserted that employees with high EI positively assess factors such as distribution, processes, and interpersonal treatment and thus, positively assess organizational justice. The findings further indicate that EI has a more positive effect on procedural justice, followed by distributive justice and interactional justice. Therefore, EI seems to be significant for all organizational justice dimensions. The findings corroborates with the previous research of Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012). However, EI is more relevant for

those dimensions which are related to the structural forms of justice i.e. procedural and distributive in the case of employees in public sector banks of India.

5.1.3 Psychological Contract Fulfillment and Organizational Justice

The third objective of this study is to examine the effect of PC fulfillment (contextual factor) on organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional) of employees in public sector banks. The third sequence of hypotheses (H3a, H3b and H3c) indicates a significant influence of PC fulfillment on all the three dimensions of organizational justice. These findings were consistent with those of previous research which reported that fulfillment of psychological contract predicts employees' organizational justice perceptions (see Allyn et al., 2006; Zhang & Agarwal, 2009).

Researchers (Robinson, 1996; Thompson, 2003) posit that psychological contract acts as an approach to build trust and fairness into the work matters an employee faces with the employer. Previous research (Maley, 2009) found an association between employees' distrust on precision and fairness of performance evaluation and employees' perception of PC violation. In a similar vein, Harrington and Lee (2015) corroborated the positive influence of PC fulfillment on perceived fairness of performance appraisal.

Organizational scholars (Blancero & Johnson, 2001; Robinson & Morrison, 1995) have advocated that fulfillment of psychological contract linked positively with perceptions of distributive justice. Rosen et al. (2009) posit that low procedural signals employees that employer does not value their employees, which is connected with beliefs associated with non-fulfillment of the psychological contract. If an organization fulfills the promises related to the fairness in the implementation of various processes, such as compensation, performance evaluation, they are likely to perform their duties and responsibilities according to the employment agreement.

In addition, employees perceive interactional justice when an employer asks about their personal opinions on selection, training modules, benefits and performance evaluation because they will feel that they are being treated with respect and dignity and believe that their psychological contract, particularly relational one is fulfilled and has not been breached. The result further indicates that PC fulfillment has more influence on procedural justice, followed by distributive and interactional justice. These findings are consistent with the past research of Zhang and Agarwal (2009).

5.1.4 Organizational Justice and KS Behaviour

The fourth group of hypotheses (H4a, H4b and H4c) demonstrate the effect of organizational fairness perceptions on KS behaviour. Results indicate that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice has a positive effect on KS behaviour of bank employees. In other words, as the manager's perception of justice increases the sharing of knowledge also increases. First, the result indicates the positive influence of distributive justice on knowledge sharing. This finding corroborates with the previous research of Bartol and Srivastava (2002), Fang and Chiu (2010) and Yesil and Demirki, (2013). Researchers found that distributive justice predicts various positive attitudes and behaviours, such as job satisfaction, commitment and OCB (Teh & Sun, 2012) which in turn, influence knowledge sharing among employees.

Second, the result indicates that procedural justice predicts KS behaviour of employees. This finding resonates with the findings of Lin (2007) and Yesil and Demirki (2013). Lastly, result reveals that interactional justice has a positive impact on KS behaviour. This finding corroborates with the previous findings of Acquaah and Tukamushaba (2015), Choi (2008), Chiu et al, (2011), Fadel and Durcikova (2014), and Yesil and Demirki (2013).

5.1.5 Mediating Role of Work Engagement

Results of the fifth group of hypotheses (5a, 5b and 5c) reveal that work engagement mediates the linkage between organizational justice dimensions and KS behaviour. This finding depicts work engagement as a significant underlying mechanism that links organizational justice with KS behaviour of individuals. The effect of justice perceptions on knowledge sharing via work engagement has its roots in social exchange theory. The direct effect of organizational justice on knowledge sharing is consistent with the previous findings of Yesil and Dereli (2013).

Results indicate that work engagement partially mediates the influence of distributive justice on KS behaviour (H5a). It indicates that the perception of fair distribution of rewards and outcomes foster work engagement, which in turn invigorate positive behaviour in the form of knowledge sharing. Next, results indicate that work engagement partially mediates the influence of procedural justice on KS behaviour. This indicates that fairness in the procedures employed to distributive resources, outcomes and punishments helps in engaging employees to the work, which in turn stimulate positive and proactive behaviours. Lastly, results indicate that work engagement also mediates partially the influence of interactional justice on KS behaviour. This indicates that, if managers or supervisors treat their employees with respect, concern, politeness, and dignity, employees are more engrossed in their work. They are more attached and dedicated towards their work and subsequently show positive behaviours.

The result shows that work engagement act as a mediator between organizational fairness perceptions and knowledge sharing. These findings are consistent with the previous findings of Karatepe (2011), Salanova and Schaufeli (2008) and Sulea, Virga, Maricutoiu, Schaufeli, Dumitru and Sava (2012). These findings are noteworthy because it explains that work engagement partially mediates the relationship, and there could be other explanations or mechanism for the influence of organizational justice on KS behaviour of employees.

5.1.6 Mediating Role of Organizational Justice

Results of the sixth group of hypotheses (H6a, H6b and H6c) suggest that organizational justice perceptions (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) mediate the influence of ethical leadership on KS behaviour. The results reveal that all the three dimensions of organizational justice partially mediate the relationship between ethical leadership and KS behaviour. The direct impact of ethical leadership on KS behaviour is consistent with the previous finding of Ma, Ribbens and Zhou (2013). Moreover, the partial mediating roles of justice dimensions are consistent with the previous findings of Demirtas (2013), Li et al. (2014) and Gupta & Singh (2014). Gupta and Singh (2014) corroborate that partial mediating role of justice between leadership behaviour and creative performance. Li et al. (2014) validated the partial mediating role of procedural and distributive justice between ethical leadership and employee occupational well- being. The finding suggests that ethical leaders stimulate subordinates' KS behaviour through enhancing distributive, procedural and interactional justice perceptions.

Next, the seventh group of hypotheses (H7a, H7b and H7c) indicates that all the three dimensions of organizational justice mediate the relationship between EI and KS behaviour partially. The direct effect of EI on KS behaviour is consistent with previous studies that found EI was predictive of employee positive behaviours, such as OCB (Korkmaz & Arpaci, 2009; Turnipseed & Vandewaa, 2012) which is attributed to KS behaviour of individuals. Moreover, this study shows that organizational justice perceptions partially mediate the influence of EI on KS behaviour. This finding corroborates with the previous research of Di Fabio and Palazzeschi (2012).

Lastly, the eighth gamut of hypotheses (H8a, H8b and H8c) shows that all the three dimensions of organizational justice partially mediate between PC fulfillment and KS behaviour. The direct effect of the psychological contract on knowledge sharing is in line with the previous findings of O'Neil and Adya (2007) and Wu and Chen (2015). The indirect effect validates the findings of past research of Zhang and Agarwal (2009). These are again notable findings that distributive justice, procedural and interpersonal justice partially mediates the relationship, and

there could be other explanations for the influence of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and psychological contract fulfillment on KS behaviour.

This study also gives insight on some of the interesting questions like which is the main determinant of each dimension of justice. The study proposed that ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment are the some of the robust antecedents of organizational justice dimensions.

First, in the case of distributive justice, the beta values of ethical leadership (.26), emotional intelligence (.42) and PC fulfillment (.32). This shows that EI plays an important role in fairness perception of distribution of outcomes and rewards, followed by PC fulfillment and ethical leadership.

Second, for procedural justice, the beta values of ethical leadership (.31), emotional intelligence (.43) and PC fulfillment (.38). This indicates that emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment are the major determinants of procedural justice.

Third, for interactional justice, the beta values of ethical leadership (.28), emotional intelligence (.39) and PC fulfillment (.23). This demonstrates that emotional intelligence has more influence on interactional justice, followed by ethical leadership and PC fulfillment.

Lastly, the current study suggests that distributive justice (.21) and procedural justice (.19) have more impact on KS behaviour of individuals than interactional justice (.15). Thus, to improve the same organizations should focus on fulfillment of psychological contract and emotional intelligence because these factors show more influence on procedural and distributive justice.

5.2 Implications of the Study

The findings of this study have not just theoretical implications, but practical implications as well. The implications of the study are discussed below.

5.2.1 Theoretical Implications

The current study extends the research on organizational justice and makes several contributions to the literature. *First*, as mentioned earlier, past research has linked organizational justice to several positive and negative outcomes. However, extant research indicates that minimal attention has been given to the antecedents of organizational fairness perceptions. The research on antecedents of organizational justice is basically an under-researched area (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Several scholars (Choudhary et al., 2013; Rai, 2013) have suggested that more empirical investigation is needed on the antecedents or

determinants of organizational justice. Therefore, the results of the current research advance our understanding of the predictors of employees' organizational justice perceptions as well as outcome in an inclusive study in public sector banks of India.

Second, research on organizational justice have widely acknowledged the presence of three dimensions (distributive, procedural and organizational), however, most of the studies have taken into account only one or two forms of organizational justice (Cohen- Charash & Spector, 2001). The current study encompasses all the three facets of organizational justice in a single study and measured them individually, thus offering a more comprehensive understanding of determinants and outcomes of organizational justice.

Third, though justice has been associated with numerous individual attitudinal and behavioural responses, little research has examined its influence on knowledge sharing. This study makes a significant contribution towards a relationship which has been investigated meagrely in the literature (Wang & Noe, 2010).

Fourth, studies have investigated the influence of organizational justice on employees' behaviours. However, the mechanism through which justice perceptions can influence knowledge sharing is meagrely investigated, particularly the role of work engagement. This study contributes to the underlying mechanism of how justice perceptions predict individual behaviour. Moreover, to the finest of authors' knowledge, this is the first research of its kind to examine work engagement as a mediator between justice perceptions and KS behaviour.

Fifth, as mentioned above, much of the research on fairness perceptions has been conducted in Western countries. The findings of this study contribute to the dearth of research in a non-western collectivist culture, India. Thus, this study contributes towards the cross-cultural generalizability of research findings on organizational justice.

Additionally, the current research contributes to the existing knowledge base of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, PC fulfilment in many ways.

As mentioned above, ethical leadership has been linked to several attitudinal and behavioural responses. However, ethical leadership has been meagrely investigated in an Asian context. Moreover, comparatively less is known about the underlying mechanisms through which ethical leaders influence the behaviour of their followers (Piccolo et al., 2010; Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). Therefore, by investigating the mediating role of justice dimensions, this study advances our understanding as to how and why ethical leadership relates to individual outcomes, particularly knowledge sharing.

Aside from its contribution to the field of ethical leadership literature, this study offers insights for the field of emotional intelligence. Surprisingly, the literature indicates that few studies have been done on the effect of EI on various outcomes at the workplace (Meisler, 2013; Law et al., 2008). Further, past research has focussed more on the direct impact of EI on individual outcomes (Law et al., 2004). Thus, the current research is one of the few studies to investigate the indirect relationship between EI and work behaviours, particularly KS behaviour which has been meagrely investigated.

Another important contribution of this study is in the domain of psychological contracts. The psychological contract is acknowledged as a significant predictor of various employee attitudes and behaviours (Conway & Briner, 2002; Montes & Irving, 2008). However, little is known about the relationship between PC fulfillment and fairness perceptions and PC fulfillment and KS behaviour. This study contributes to the dearth of research on psychological contract in the context of India (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2009). This study also explains the underlying mechanism through which PC fulfillment influences the behaviour of individuals which is scarcely investigated in the extant literature

Next, this study makes a significant contribution to the current body of work on knowledge sharing. Past research has focussed more on situational motivators of knowledge sharing and provided minimal attention to personality or individual factors (Chu, Krishna Kumar   & Khosla, 2014). This study offers a comprehensive framework to understand how KS behaviour of employees can be enhanced. Several scholars (Tangaraja et al., 2015) have suggested that it is crucial to explore the factors that can enhance employees' KS behaviour because people are reluctant to share their knowledge, specifically in public sector units. This study gives a fair idea of the probable factors that could help in enhancing KS behaviour. Knowledge sharing has been recognized as an important element of KM and significant determinant of various organizational outcomes, such as innovation, firm effectiveness, and organizational performance. Thus, enhancing KS behaviour of employees could be beneficial for banking organizations in the long- run.

5.2.2 Practical Implications

The findings of the current study suggest several probable practical implications worthy for elaboration. Justice is an important issue to all the humankind. Likewise, people within the organizations want fairness in each and every activity. Employees want fairness in the distribution of rewards, procedures used to determine outcomes and interpersonal treatment given by the organizational decision-makers. Fairness has been getting increased attention from

scholars and practitioners as an important determinant of various attitudinal and behavioural responses, and organizational outcomes. Thus, a key topic of interest or concern before organizations is how to enhance the perception of fairness among employees. There could be a number of factors enhancing justice perceptions. However, this study highlights the importance of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence, and PC fulfillment as some of the robust predictors of fairness perceptions. This research provides significant insights to managers on how to enhance the different components of fairness perceptions of employees in public sector banks of India.

The findings also emphasize the importance of fairness perceptions in shaping employee behaviours, especially KS behaviour. Therefore, management should be sensitive to employees' perceptions about the distribution of rewards and outcomes, processes implemented to determine the rewards and how employees are treated by authority figures. Management should do their best to make sure that unfairness perceptions do not impairment the employee-employer relationship. The results of the current study reveal that to invigorate knowledge sharing among individuals, managers should focus more on the distribution of rewards and procedures used for decision making than interactional justice. Moreover, this study also depicts the role of work engagement as a mediator between justice dimensions and KS behaviour. This finding can be understood from the lenses of social exchange theory (SET) which advocates that the relationship between employer and employees can be reciprocal. That means, if employees feel that they are treated well and justly by the organization, they are likely to reciprocate by enhancing their engagement levels (Saks, 2006) and consequently impact knowledge sharing. Thus, Indian public sector banks should nurture a working atmosphere of fairness or justice; this would further stimulate social exchange attitudes among employees (Blau, 1964).

Additionally, founded on the norm of reciprocity employees expect their organization to recognize and reward their efforts. Thus, banks should devote their attention to recognize employees' efforts and provide financial and non- financial rewards to their employees based on the existing standards of the organization. Banks can improve the perception of distributive justice by implementing a robust grievance handling system (Ghosh et al., 2014).

Scholars (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005; Leventhal, 1980) have offered some criteria for procedures to be called as just or fair. These are as follows: ensure decisions are made on accurate information, allow to make appeal for bad decisions, provide opportunities to employee to voice their opinion during decision-making process, processes are consistent over

time and across people, suppress personal bias of decision makers and make sure decision are made in an ethical and moral manner. Banks can augment the perception of procedural justice by providing an opportunity to employees to provide opinions and suggestions in decision-making processes (Ghosh et al., 2014).

Interactional justice is generally determined by the interpersonal behaviour of management representatives, i.e. direct manager or supervisor. Cohen- Charash and Spector (2001) argued that interactional justice is considered to be related to different reactions, such as affective, cognitive and behavioural towards these representatives. This component of justice is important during selection, feedback and performance appraisal. Therefore, organizations should conduct training programs to enhance soft and interpersonal skills of managers dealing with direct reports or employees. To sum up, we may say that the findings of this study provide evidence that all the three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) can be helpful in enhancing KS behaviour of employees in Indian public sector banks. Moreover, this study also underlines the role of work engagement to foster KS behaviour. Therefore, organizations should also give importance to the factors or resources that can heighten the levels of engagement among employees.

Second, the current study findings advocate that ethical managers are crucial in fostering employees' perceptions of fairness, which in turn increases their KS behaviour. Therefore, organizations should put more effort to nurturing ethical leadership behaviour among managers at different levels. Moreover, organizations may consider recruiting more ethical managers and providing training to existing managers. Like, for hiring ethical managers' organizations can use different selection tools, such as structured interviews, integrity tests, and assessment centres exercise that put emphasis on solving ethical issues (Mayer et al., 2012). In addition, organizations may consider organizing ethics training programs to inspire their leaders and managers to exhibit ethical behaviours. These training programs can focus on accentuating the significance of ethics, serving as ethical role models and rewarding and supporting employees who behave ethically (Mayer et al., 2009). Thus, in order to create an atmosphere of fairness and sharing, it is imperative that organizations adopt strategies that empower them to develop ethical managers.

Third, the current research highlights the significance of emotional intelligence in fostering employees' fairness perceptions in the work setting. Emphasizing on the worth of EI, HR practitioners of organizations must consider the significance of EI, along with other individual's characteristics and capabilities, while recruiting and selecting candidates. They

could use psychometric selection tests that validly select individuals with high EI for jobs in the organization.

Moreover, management should organize training and development programs that can improve EI levels of individuals (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004) because unlike personality traits which are more stable in nature, EI of individuals can be enhanced through training (Di Fabio & Kenny, 2011). In addition, managers can use counselling programs to help employees developing and enhancing their levels of EI in the organization. Keeping in mind the findings concerning the positive association of EI with several positive outcomes, it can be contended that EI training might also enhance individuals' justice perceptions and knowledge sharing. Thus, organizations should implement EI training programs that focus on all the levels of the organization, so as to create an emotionally intelligent organization (Greenidge, Devonish & Alleyne, 2014).

Fourth, the current study also focuses on the worth of PC fulfillment in public sector banks for increasing justice perceptions and consequently KS behaviour. Putting emphasis on the implications of PC fulfillment, HR practitioners should monitor psychological contract over a period of time. This monitoring could be done by conducting a periodic survey to investigate what employee think the organization should provide them for the contribution they make to the organization. This sort of survey can be instrumental for organizations to assess the overall characteristics of the exchange relationship between the organization and employees, and to frame or devise appropriate actions and strategies (Choi, Moon, Ko & Kim, 2014). Tekleab and Taylor (2003) argued that organizations should prevent breaches of psychological contract and this could be done by offering employees with realistic expectations instead of making unrealistic promises, and periodically evaluate the degree to which organization (or their representing leaders and managers) are "on the same page". In addition, it would be beneficial for organizations if they design HR system around the contents of the psychological contract.

Researchers (Macdermott, Conway, Rousseau & Flood, 2013, p. 291) have argued that "psychological contracts aligned with strategy translate HR systems into firm performance via their impact on employees' attitudes and behaviours". Moreover, in recent times, personnel management of public sector units is changing rapidly, thus, HR managers may find PC fulfillment an appropriate strategy to manage the perceptions of employees and work attitudes (Berman & West, 2003). Though PC fulfillment can't be considered as a panacea to resolve all problems or issues related to HR, however, acknowledging its implications both theoretical and practical would be worthy for organizations to deal with issues related to injustice and invigorating positive behaviours.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Like other studies, this research also has its limitations. In fact, identification of these limitations should provide future research directions.

First, using a sample of managers (junior and middle level) from public sector banks of India limits the generalizability of the results to other occupations, industries, and cultural context. Future research should seek to evaluate the current research model in other work groups and cultural context to improve the generalizability of the findings indicated here.

Second, the study implemented a cross- sectional research design, which means that data collection was performed at one point in time. Thus, future studies can replicate the linkages among the study variables by conducting a longitudinal study for better conclusions.

Third, the study evaluates the latent constructs based on a single source, such as perceptions of the employees. This results in the occurrence of common method bias (CMB). Nevertheless, the study proved the absence of common method bias through Harman's Single factor approach (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). However, to mitigate the problem of CMB, it is suggested that future studies could pursue to collect data from different sources. Moreover, it might be possible that employees have reported socially desirable answers. The respondent self-serving bias is another limitation of the study as the data collected is survey based.

Fourth, this study restricted to three antecedents of organizational justice, such as emotional intelligence, ethical leadership, and PC fulfillment. In order to extend this study, future research could take more and a different number of antecedents, such as other leadership styles (transformational, servant, LMX and authentic), organizational culture, organizational structure and HR practices.

Fifth, this study is restricted to only one individual outcome i.e. KS behaviour. Therefore, to extend the proposed research model, future studies could take more individual and organizational outcomes, such as innovative work behaviour, creativity, innovation, firm performance and organizational effectiveness.

Sixth, this study investigated the role of one intervening variable, i.e. work engagement between organizational justice and KS behaviour. Thus, future study could take other possible mediators. For instance, job satisfaction, workplace spirituality, job involvement and OCB can be other variables that can connect organizational justice to KS behaviour. Thus, further research should identify other variables that might mediate the linkages between organizational justice and KS behaviour.

Seventh, the present study does not incorporate moderating variables. Future research could test the role of work engagement as a moderator between justice and KS behaviour. In addition, other possible moderators, such as trust, commitment, job satisfaction, leadership could be tested between justice and KS behaviour.

Finally, the three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) were used as sub- dimensions of organizational justice construct in the current study. It is recommended that few more dimensions, such as informational and interpersonal justice (Colquitt, et al., 2001) can be used as sub- dimensions of interactional justice, so that a four-factor model can be tested. Though the current research has limitations, it has provided theoretical and empirical justification for the influence of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfilment on organizational justice perceptions, and its subsequent impact on knowledge sharing.

5.4 Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to develop and examine a research model that represents antecedents of organizational justice perceptions and its subsequent impact on KS behaviour in an Indian context. Notwithstanding the limitations of its cross-sectional design, the current study has attained its purpose. The research provides support for the influence of ethical leadership, emotional intelligence and PC fulfillment on all the three dimensions of organizational justice. Moreover, it also provides support for the influence of fairness perceptions on KS behaviour.

We hope that the current research will spur further investigation into the factors affecting justice perceptions and the underlying mechanisms of how perceptions of justice affect diverse employees' attitudes and behaviours, and organizational outcomes. Overall, the current research offers a comprehensive framework that integrates organizational justice with personal and contextual factors and one of the important individual level outcomes in the context of Indian public sector banks, i.e. knowledge sharing.

5.5 Chapter Summary

The final chapter offers the discussion on the findings of the study. It validates the results of the current study with the previous research findings. Theoretical and practical implications of the study have also been presented. The chapter also highlights the limitations and future research directions along with the concluding remarks.

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ANNEXURE 1

Indian Institute of Technology, Roorkee

Department of Management Studies

Dear Participants,

Greetings,

Subject: Request for participation in survey

I am a Doctoral student in the Department of Management Studies at Indian Institute of Technology (IIT), Roorkee. I am conducting a research on organizational justice perceptions. The purpose of this study is to find out the factors affecting organizational justice perceptions (sometimes referred to as fairness) and its subsequent influence on knowledge sharing behaviour of employees working as junior and middle-level managers in Indian public sector banks of India.

The enclosed questionnaire is a tool which gives you a clear understanding about the questions asked. Your participation may not directly benefit you as a respondent; this research will contribute to the body of knowledge in management theory and has practical implications for your organization as well. I, therefore, request your response to the survey. Your participation is entirely voluntary and all responses are anonymous. The data gathered will be used for academic purpose only. I would appreciate your participation in this research.

Thanking you in advance

Sincerely,

Vandana Tamta
Research Scholar
Department of Management Studies
Indian Institute of Technology Roorkee,
Roorkee- 247667
Uttarakhand, India

ANNEXURE 2
Survey questionnaire

Note: This survey will take 15-20 minutes to complete and all the responses will be kept confidential and anonymous. It is important that you respond to each and every statement. Only then I can include your opinions in the final analysis. An experience of 1 year is required.

Please carefully read and honestly answer each and every question. Above each section, instructions are given please read it carefully? The survey results will be reported only in aggregate for research purposes. You will never be identified individually. Participation in the survey is completely voluntary. Your response is important and greatly appreciated.

Demographic Information (Please provide accurate information)

1. Your name (optional):- _____

2. Name of the organization (optional):- _____

3. Designation * :- _____

4. Gender * :- Male ☐ Female ☐

5. Age* : (i) Less than 25 years ☐ (ii) 25-30 years ☐ (iii) 31- 35 years ☐
   (iv) 36- 40 years ☐ (v) 41- 45 years ☐ (vi) Above 45 years ☐

6. Experience*
   (i) 1-5 years ☐ (ii) 6-10 years ☐ (iii) 11-15 years ☐
   (iv) 16- 20 years ☐ (v) More than 20 years ☐

7. Education*
   (i) Graduate ☐ (ii) Post- graduate ☐ (iii) Any Other ☐

8. Job level*
   (i) Junior- level manager ☐ (ii) Middle- level manager ☐

Using the scale below rate your direct Manager/Supervisor to whom you have to report for your work related activities on each statement. If you have more than one manager/supervisor rate the one to whom you are directly accountable or have more interaction. Please TICK the appropriate response on 7 –point scale

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree, 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	My manager listens to what employees have to say	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My manager disciplines employees who violate ethical standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My manager conducts his or her personal life in an ethical manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My manager has the best interests of employees in mind	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My manager makes fair and balanced decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My manager can be trusted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My manager discusses business ethics or values with employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My manager sets an example of how to do things the right way in terms of ethics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My manager defines success not just by results but also the way that they are obtained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	When making decisions, my manager asks "What is the right thing to do?"	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 2:- Emotional Intelligence

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer)

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree, 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree, 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I have good understanding of my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I really understand what I feel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I always know whether or not I am happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I have good understanding of the emotions of people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	around me.							
9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I always tell myself I am a competent person	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I am a self-motivated person.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I have good control of my own emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3:- Psychological Contract Fulfillment

Organizations make explicit promises (verbally or in writing) and implicit promises (simply implied through other statements or behaviours) during recruitment which obligate them to give certain things to their employees in exchange for their employees' contributions to the organisation. Please indicate the extent to which YOUR organization has fulfilled its obligations or promises to you on different aspects of work on a 7 point scale. Please TICK the appropriate response.

Not at all 2. To a very limited extent 3. To a limited extent 4. To a moderate extent. 5. To a considerable extent 6. To a great extent 7. To a very great extent.

1	Training and Development opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Compensation (salary + other benefits)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Opportunities for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Nature of job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Feedback on job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Decision making input	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Challenging and interesting job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Safe and pleasant environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Opportunities for growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 4:- Distributive Justice

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer),

1. Strongly Disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Slightly Disagree, 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree

5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	My work schedule is fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I think that my level of pay is fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3	I consider my workload to be quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Overall, the rewards I receive here are quite fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I feel that my job responsibilities are fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 5:- Procedural Justice

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer),

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	Job decisions are made by the organization in an unbiased manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My organization makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before job decisions are made.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	To make job decisions, my organization collects accurate and complete information	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My organization clarifies decisions and provides additional information when requested by employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	All jobs decisions are applied consistently to all affected employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 6:- Interactional Justice

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer).

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	When decisions are made about my job, my manager treats me with kindness and consideration.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	When decisions are made about my job, the manager treats me with respect and dignity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	When decisions are made about my job, the manager is sensitive to my personal needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	When decisions are made about my job, the manager deals with me in a truthful manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	When decisions are made about my job, the manager shows concern for my right as employee	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Concerning decisions made about my job, the manager discusses with me the implications of the decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	The manager offers adequate justification for decisions made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8	When making decisions about my job, the manager offers explanations that make sense to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My manager explains very clearly any decisions made about my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 7:- Work Engagement

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer).

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	At my job, I feel strong and vigorous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am enthusiastic about my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My job inspires me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I feel happy when I am working Intensely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am proud of the work that I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I am immersed in my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I get carried away when I am working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 8: Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

Please indicate the extent of your agreement with the following statement on a 7-point scale. (Please TICK your answer).

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Slightly Disagree 4. Neither Agree nor Disagree 5. Slightly Agree 6. Agree 7. Strongly Agree

1	I share work reports and official documents with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I share business manuals, models, and methodologies with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I share success and failure stories about my work with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I share related knowledge obtained from other media (e.g., websites, newspapers, and journals) with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I share know-how (how to do something) from work experience with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I share know where (where we can find useful things we need) or know- whom(who is an expert that we can consult) with members of my organization	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I share expertise obtained from education and training with members of my organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

List of Publications

Paper published in International Journals

1. Tamta, V. & Rao, M.K. (2015) The effect of organisational justice on knowledge sharing behaviour in public sector banks in India: mediating role of work engagement', *International Journal of Business Excellence*. Inder Science Publication (Scopus Indexed) in press.

2. Tamta, V. & Rao, M.K. (2016) The effect of psychological contract fulfilment on organizational justice, work engagement and knowledge sharing behaviour. *International Journal of Management Concepts and Philosophy*. Inder Science Publication (Accepted).

3. Tamta, V. & Rao, M.K. (2017, Forthcoming). Linking emotional intelligence to knowledge sharing behaviour: organizational justice and work engagement as mediators. *Global Business Review*. Vol. 8. No.6. Sage Publication. (Scopus Indexed , 0.2 Impact factor).

Papers in International Conference Proceedings

1. Tamta, V. & Kushwaha, V. (2014). A Panoramic view of personal competence through interactional justice and knowledge sharing. *International Journal of Business Management and Leadership*, 5(1), 167-180, ISSN 2231122X.

2. Tamta, V. & Rao, M.K. (2014). Exploring the linkages among Organizational Justice, Organizational Clan Culture and Organizational Commitment. A Conceptual Framework. Paper presented at Global Conference on Managing in Recovering Markets (GCMRM), MDI, Gurgaon, March 5th -7th, 2014.

3. Tamta, V., Kushwaha, P & Rao, M.K. (2015). Influence of Ethical Leadership on innovative work behaviour: Intervening role of organizational trust. Paper presented at 4th Biennial Conference of Indian Academy of Management Conference. December 11-13, 2015.

4. Kushwaha, P., Tamta, V. & Rao, M.K. (2015). Assessing Knowledge performance through justice dimensions and Learning Behaviour. Paper presented at IIRA- IIMB International Conference, December 16-18, 2015.