



A DISSERTATION ON

Interpersonal Mistreatments and Counterproductive Work Behavior in Job Holders: A Mediation and Moderation Model in the Context of Higher Educational Institutions in Pakistan



A thesis submitted to The Superior College, Lahore, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration

Submitted by:

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Session 2013–2016
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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my beloved parents, loving husband, and sweet little kids. I would also like to dedicate it to my friends who always encouraged me when I stopped and thought I could not continue anymore! Because of their prayers, encouragement, and love, I have been successful in life. May God give them a long and healthy life, Ameen!

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List of Abbreviations

CWB	Counterproductive work behavior
HEI	Higher educational institutions
EMIT	Emotional intelligence
OST	Ostracism
INCV	Incivility
INPC	Interpersonal conflicts
HAR	Harassment
JB	Job burnout
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
MBI	Maslach burnout inventory
OCB	Organizational citizenship behavior
IQ	Intelligence quotient
SET	Social exchange theory
DT	Demand theory
OLBI	Oldenburg work burnout stock
TIM	Taylor incivility measure
EHE	Ethnic harassment encounters
EH	Ethnic harassment
GH	Gender harassment
CWB-C	Counterproductive work behavior checklist

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Abstract

Interpersonal mistreatments at workplace is a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon . This study used a four dimensions of interpersonal mistreatments i.e. ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts and harassment. This study aims to investigate the relationship of interpersonal mistreatments and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. Employees are frequently faced with interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace. Consequently, employees do not perform by utilizing their best potentials.

The purpose of this study was to encompass the interpersonal mistreatments at workplace literature by proposing and hypothesizing a comprehensive model of outcomes associated with interpersonal mistreatments in the form of interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors under the theoretical lens of Social exchange theory. Moreover, this study investigates job burnout as mediator between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors. Additionally, this study examines the role of emotional intelligence as a moderator among the interpersonal mistreatments, job burnout and counterproductive work under the affect theory of social exchange.

This study has used self administered questionnaires to collect data from two employee groups, i.e. white collar and blue collar job holders from the higher educational institutions, Punjab, Pakistan. The stratified random sampling was used to collect the data from white collar and blue collar job holders.

Moreover, both blue collar and white collar job holders face deviant behaviors of individuals at different levels and at different designations. Therefore, this study addresses the need for rigorous research on academic workplaces.

On the basis of the conceptual model, hypotheses were developed and tested using multiple regression, mediation analysis, hierarchical regression analysis and mediation moderation analysis.

The findings reveal that there is a significant and positive association between interpersonal mistreatments and job burnout in both white and blue collar job holders whereas interpersonal mistreatments counterproductive work behaviors shows insignificant relationship except ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors in the case of both white and blue collar job holders. Multiple Regression Analysis indicated that job burnout partially mediates the relationship between interpersonal mistreatment (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment) and counterproductive work behaviors in the case of white and blue collar job holders and full mediation exists in case of incivility and

counterproductive work behaviors of white collar employees. Further, the results proved that emotional intelligence significantly moderates the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors. Moreover, emotional intelligence indicates insignificant mediation moderating effect of job burnout and counterproductive work behavior in WCW and BCW. Besides, there exists a difference between white and blue collar job holders regarding interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors except harassment and job burnout.

It is also shown to be more effective in the case of blue collar workers as compared to white collar job holders.

This study makes a sound theoretical contribution to the literature with respect to the relationship between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behavior in the higher education sector of Pakistan. The study also provides the insight to HR professionals and managers working in the higher education sector of Pakistan that emotional intelligence can be used to reduce the employees' negative emotions that may result in damaging retaliatory behaviors.

Key Words: Interpersonal Mistreatments, Ostracism, Interpersonal Mistreatments, Incivility, Harassment, Interpersonal Conflicts, Stress, Job Burnout, Emotional Intelligence, Counter productive Work Behaviors, White and Blue Collar Workers and Higher Educational Sector

Chapter 1 - Introduction

The background for this research topic is developed by describing the independent variables for this dissertation, the background for the dependent variable, and then the population studied. This study was conducted on the employees of the higher education sector of Pakistan. Moreover, the study will examine the gaps in the literature, and then the purpose statement and the objectives of the present study will be elaborated upon; the major and sub-research questions of this study will also be delved into in this chapter. Moreover, the conceptual framework and the conceptual model will be presented by generating hypotheses for this research. The significance of this study will then be addressed. Additionally, the definitions used in the study will be described. Finally, there will be a summary of this chapter and a preview of the following chapters.

1.1. Interpersonal Mistreatments in Higher Educational Institutions of Pakistan

In today's workplace, employees continuously face many troubles and are under stress in their daily routines. For the last few years, researchers and scholars have realized to focus on employees concerns in the workplace in the form of interpersonal mistreatments. However, researchers have not focused interpersonal mistreatments in the university sector in detail. This seems to be a neglected area for many reasons. Initially, their views diverged from proof consistent with different types of aggressive and derisive conduct at institutions in the form of teacher-student relationships, leadership behavior (Braxton et al., 2004; Clark & Springer, 2007), and the quality of interpersonal relations like collegiality for employee retention (Ambrose et al., 2006). Less comprehensive literature is available on conflict and misconduct focus on the operational and interactive aspects of disagreements such as bitterness, antagonism, and aggression. Moreover, certain organizational and workplace characteristics contribute to mistreatments at the workplace. In an academic context, not enough attention has been paid to interpersonal mistreatments, specifically, not enough work has been done on interpersonal mistreatments in the higher educational sector of Pakistan. Therefore, this study addresses the need for rigorous research on workplaces in academic settings. The present study focuses on this dilemma. Firstly, we draw attention to the adverse outcomes that arise from different kinds of interpersonal occurrences, specifically in the context of higher educational institutions. Next, the most important concern of this study is to discuss interpersonal mistreatment as a cause of counterproductive work behaviors, as observed in academia. Detailed theoretical and practical studies focus on different forms of interpersonal

mistreatment – ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment – in higher educational institutions among blue collar and white collar job holders. This study utilizes these findings to propose concrete measures for future research on higher education employees. The dissertation will conclude by providing suggestions for observing some analytical behaviors.

An ample review of the relevant literature on bullying in higher educational institutions is not possible given the constraints of this study. This investigation includes a number of stakeholders at different levels in the higher education ecosystem and studies different forms of mistreatment in their workplaces. Accordingly, the focus of this study is the experience and behaviors of administrative staff, teachers, and staff like peons, guards, electricians, and technicians as they are the essential determining factors of a workplace environment. They have deep-rooted experiences that have outcomes such as interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive performance.

The rate of mistreatment and bullying in Scandinavian countries is 2%–5%, for the UK it is 10%–20%, and for the US, it is 10%–14% (Keashly & Jagatic, 2003; Meares et al., 2004; Rayner & Cooper, 2006). Organizations can work effectively to prevent and manage interpersonal mistreatments (Lim & Cortina, 2005; Tepper & Henle, 2011). The nature of employees' relationships is also important for this study, as authority can also be a defining feature of interpersonal mistreatments, and it is not at all unusual for administration members, faculty, staff, etc. to experience mistreatments, as seen in the present study on university employees (Spratlen, 1995; Sulea et al., 2012). However, this study's findings focus on university employees' behaviors to understand mistreatment or bullying in academic settings. As a recent study conducted on university employees proposes, faculty can be bullies just as bosses were identified as bullies by front desk staff members (Keashly & Neuman, 2008).

The socio-cultural, religious, and economic contexts the developed and developing countries, particularly the Islamic countries context is greatly diverse (Syed 2008). Pakistani regulatory set up and their cultural enactment is almost linked to each other. Irrespective of gender there exist vivid provisions not only in both Islamic religion, but also in the Pakistani Constitution of 1973 to provide respect, safety, and equal rights for jobholders. Contrarily, in Pakistan there exists job holders at any level either the strategic level or the operational level have to struggle hard for seeking and working in a stress free environment where the employees survive without grievances and troubles at workplace (Akhtar and Métraux 2013). Though

interpersonal mistreatments are not clearly defined in Pakistan, it accompanies few hostile conducts against coworkers or subordinates such as ostracism, incivility, harassment, interpersonal conflicts, obscene phone calls, torture, and the disputes etc. (Nosheen 2011). At times, in Pakistani context the workplace relations are of diversified nature. The jobholders in Pakistani context give more importance to females whenever its about ladies people try to facilitate women at the earliest and whenever the women have to deal with male members may have accommodate the same sex first and then facilitate the male members at their work (Akhtar and Métraux 2013; Nosheen 2011).The Pakistani government has made several amendments to manage the political and economic issues regarding employees irrespective of gender (Qureshi,2013) but still in few concerns the females are suppressed by law enforcement agencies (Abbas 2011).

Pakistan is a traditional society where with the continuous effort of government in the provision of education has encouraged a lot for its citizens.The Pakistani society basically portrays the social and cultural values than the religious values.Even the Islamic perspective also allows the women to earn that is according to Shariah. Although Pakistan has made continuous efforts to enhance even the women's education, cultural control and inadequate legal protection from hostility against jobholders participation (Raza 2007). In the Pakistani economic context in order to attain sustainable economic growth, more women are needed to participate in the country's workforce (Qureshi et al. 2007). Additionally, if Pakistani women have to support their family for being employed outside the home, they still face challenges from dominant males in the workplace (Mangi 2011). Thus, Pakistani data show that working conditions are an important predictor of employee productivity (Ahmed and Islam 2011). The challenges are not only for females, but males are also encountered with different types of deviant behaviors of their workplaces at the interpersonal level. Generally, it has been observed that workplace colleagues are more prone to harassment issues compared to students. Previous studies have carefully observed whether persons working in influential positions are more likely to be involved in deviant behaviors in academic settings. Other studies illustrated "mobbing". Mobbing from superiors and coworkers is very different from harassment by an individual (Sheehan, 2004). The rate of mobbing varies according to the contexts of different occupational groups.Mobbing is harassment from a number of people, targeted at one individual. This is usually done by a closed and secretive society. They would never admit what they're doing, but continue with the, "I've done nothing wrong" attitude.

By and large, resentment and antagonistic and egotistical behaviors on the part of coworkers may vary from person to person and according to the way they perceive those experiences. In their daily routines, individuals confront these behaviors which may be inherent in their professional or academic environment. In order to avoid the biases that arise from personal perception, we have prepared research questions and have put forward theories to investigate our assumptions instead of regarding them as usual occurrences. In short, this study highlights the issue of deviant workplace behaviors in higher educational settings by examining the empirical literature. The study will focus on conceptual and empirical observations regarding workplace interpersonal mistreatment. These different types of deviant behaviors have been combined, i.e., ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts, under the title of interpersonal mistreatments, for the convenience of conducting the present study and to avoid repetition in studying these bullying behaviors again and again separately. The study aims to offer suggestions by addressing the gaps in the literature and highlighting the hidden gaps in knowledge (Bibb & Form, 1977). Consequently, this study contributes to the workplace dealings literature by examining whether the deviant behaviors influence the productivity of employees in the higher educational institutes of Pakistan. With the advent of globalization not only the education is encouraged, but also the importance of higher educational institutions has also been increased

Higher education is beneficial not only for individuals, the economy, and society, but for everyone in the country. Many students who enter colleges are unprepared for the demands higher education places on them, and subsequently, they perform worse and fail to complete assignments and the other relevant requirements and quit institutions altogether; this is no doubt depressing for the individual and leads to the waste of educational resources.

1.2. Counterproductive Work Behaviors (CWB)

In this competitive era, employee behavior is an important concern for organizations (Somers, 2001). Organizations are concerned about how people behave and perform in their workplaces (Herzberg, 1986; Kinman & Jones, 2005; Rynes et al., 2004). These behaviors may benefit the organization or may be counterproductive for the workplace environment (Crant, 2000). These harmful, dysfunctional, and detrimental behaviors have been discussed in prior studies under different heads as annoyance (Kassinove & Sukhodolsky, 1995; Sloan, 2004; Tjosvold & Su, 2007), violence at the workplace (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Neuman & Baron, 1998), workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2003; Judge et al., 2006), revenge or vengeance at the workplace (Aquino et al., 2001, 2006; Bradfield & Aquino,

1999; Tripp & Bies, 2010), workplace bullying (Khan et al., 2003; Vartia, 2001), emotional abuse at the workplace (Acierno et al., 2010; Glaser, 2002; Keashly, 1997), and mobbing and sabotage (Benndorf & Rau, 2012; Charness et al., 2013). A detailed investigation reveals that all these titles fall under the head of counterproductive work behaviors (CWB). Consequently, counterproductive work behaviors may be defined as those behaviors that are against the organization's vision and goals (Dalal, 2005).

As far as academia is concerned, in the service sector, no one can deny the importance of workplace behaviors, particularly in the case of universities that are responsible for developing the perspicacity of the nation. This study is significant as greater intellect, productivity, and creativity are required in higher education institutes. If higher authorities do not promote these values, these negative behaviors will trickle down to their employees. Teachers and professors are considered assets of the nation, and if they are handled correctly and are given adequate space, this may have a positive impact on the contribution of academia to the progress of the nation and the development of generations to follow. If employees are not productive during their working hours, then this may jeopardize the progress of the institute. Therefore, counterproductive work behaviors, which are a combination of different kinds of conduct that are opposed to mandated behaviors, may be harmful for organizations, employees, and stakeholders (Mount et al., 2006; Sackett, 2002) and may put the institution at risk (Penney & Spector, 2005).

Counterproductive work behaviors have been observed to be related to personality traits like narcissism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), sociability (Nie, 2001), disappointment (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004), jealousy (White & Mullen, 1989), and abusive feelings (Wu & Hu, 2009). Moreover, job ambiguity, job insecurity, lower career prospects, inadequate rewards (Shamsudin et al., 2011), lack of encouragement (Stipek, 2002), oppressive supervision (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), stressful situations, the intention to leave and hatred for the organization (Muafi, 2011), injustice (Hammond, 1996), non-acceptance by coworkers (Parker & Griffin, 2002), job stress (Spector et al., 2000), and mistreatment by leadership (Blase & Blase, 2002) are a few of the other factors that cause counterproductive work behaviors.

Counterproductive work behaviors may take various forms like sabotage, theft, emotional and verbal abuse, hiding information, deceit, lack of cooperation, and harassment (Einarsen & Hoel, 2008). Different studies have been done to research different variables like envy,

narcissism, social stressors, bad social relations at the workplace at the interpersonal level (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Penney & Spector, 2002), and incivility, deviance, and poor quality work at the organizational level (Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005), all of which affect employees at the workplace. The present study focuses on the different behaviors which affect the organization such as absenteeism, withdrawal of the employer's assets, less output, etc., under the head of counterproductive work behaviors, which are caused by four dissimilar types of interpersonal/social mistreatment in the context of higher educational institutions of Pakistan.

1.3. Why White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders?

Occupational social classification is done on the basis of the nature of the work, i.e., manual or skilled work, variations in remuneration in the form of wages or in salaries, and variations in employees' rights to use resources. Previous studies have approached occupational classification in the form of different color collar workers: white collar (Locke, 1973), blue collar (Toppinen et al., 2002), pink (Williams, 1988), green (Pearce & Stilwell, 2008), gray (Hutchings et al., 2009), and gold (Roe, 2001). However, this study is significant as it compares the behaviors of white and blue collar job holders. This study also reviews only the two major categories, as the other categories have not been used extensively in other studies.

The term "white collar" is used to describe a person who usually carries out their work at administrative, managerial, or professional levels within the office premises. This term, "collar", specifically indicates the white dress shirts worn by male job holders in offices, in contrast to the blue shirts or uniforms worn by service workers who perform their work manually (Hanebuth et al., 2006). White collar workers (WCW) may also be defined as employees who are paid more in comparison to blue collar workers (BCW) who perform manual and physically arduous work (Geller et al., 1983). A study explained that the individuals who work in a professional environment in offices and wear white shirts are considered as white collar (Kirkegaard & Larsen, 2011). Upton Sinclair, an American author whose major works speak about the professional, managerial, or administrative class, introduced the term "white collar" in his work titled "Easy Work and a White Collar", published in 1911 (Iverson & Roy, 1994).

In contrast, blue collar workers make up the working class who are involved in physically laborious work. The individual may be involved in skill-related work or physical work like

construction, gardening, maintenance, mining, etc. Most of the time, blue collar workers are involved in physical activities, while white collar workers perform their work in offices or cubicles (Campbell, et al., 2002). Blue collar workers get paid in the form of hourly wages, but some get monthly salaries as well. The remuneration criteria vary depending upon their sector, experience, and expertise (Osterman, 1994). A few elements of blue collar work have been listed by Dr. Renee J. Fontenot: fewer formal educational requirements, on-the-job training, time observed hourly, and daily or weekly wages. Finally, after performing the required tasks, the blue collar worker is free and need not to perform any additional duties. Blue collar workers are usually paid less than white collar workers (Jowell & Prescott-Clarke, 1970; Marandi & Moghaddas). The term “blue collar” originates from the uniforms worn by the working class in US factories (Locke, 1973; Shirom et al., 1999).

1.4. The Context of HEI in Pakistan

Education aims at transforming not only society and students, but also the employees working in educational institutions. In particular, the higher education sector focuses on equipping individuals with an array of skills and enhancing their learning potential with regard to the knowledge economy (Wubbels & Levy, 1993). The importance of higher educational institutions cannot be ignored in light of its role in improving the country’s human resources, which in turn generate and transform institutions necessary for the survival and progress of the country (Snyder & Stukas Jr, 1999; Weiner, 2001). In the early decades of the twentieth century, universities, primarily aimed to help students avail market opportunities and contribute to the development of the nation. On the other hand, due to the restructuring of economies over the last few years, the higher educational institutions that are getting an optimum response are those universities which produce a capable workforce equipped with the skills needed in the current era. Higher educational institutions need to be in the limelight to inculcate knowledge and intellect in students to create high value human capital which will lead to the economic and societal development of the nation. Moreover, higher educational institutions are necessary to present insights into society and disseminate values that promote social progress. Therefore, higher educational institutions perform numerous functions and strive to attain diversified goals. The latest teaching techniques are utilized to cater to all stakeholders, including society and the state. The primary aim of higher educational institutions is to render knowledge in the best possible manner. Higher education institutions are largely engaged in instituting and building links with the corporate world at the national and international level. They serve as a platform to establish links among

individuals and the government and are considered responsible for building better societies (den Brok et al., 2004). These targets may be seen as the responsibilities of the leaders of higher educational institutions.

In developing nations, higher educational institutions are focusing on fulfilling the demands of the emerging knowledge-based economy. This is evident in the rate of publication of research-based studies, which is greater than ever before, as well as other developmental activities (Peril and Promise, 2000). No one can ignore the role of higher educational institutions, particularly for the progress of developing nations. These are the objectives of higher education:

- To contribute to the social, economic, and political development of societies, to promote upward mobility, and to devise solutions to potential challenges at the national and international level
- To generate new knowledge, to acquire and utilize current knowledge in local circumstances, and to creatively build and sustain capabilities
- To contribute to the country's development by producing a workforce that can function in diversified scenarios
- To encourage inhabitants to follow the state's customs and contribute to its prestige and accomplishments (Bhabha, 2013).

Currently, higher education institutions have not yet been researched adequately to understand how they can meet the requirements of a knowledge-based economy. To do so, it is necessary to understand the history of these institutions in developing nations. The new independent states that were formed after the Second World War were mostly financially, socially, and educationally weak. In such a situation, these states were looking to their educational institutions, especially higher educational institutes, to release their economies from the hold of poverty and instability that prevailed in these states. In this context, the demand for the right to higher education also increased (Crosnoe et al., 2004). During the 60s, knowledge economies were becoming revolutionized, resulting in enhanced higher educational institutions. In the context of developing countries, i.e., it was difficult for higher educational institutions to become a part of this revolution (Abbas, 2011). The last few decades have witnessed an effective improvement in the output of the educational sector and in terms of the transformations it has brought about in the development of youth (Pelletier & Sharp, 2009). In contrast, in the context of developing countries, there exist means to produce researched-based knowledge and to provide the best education, though universities may have

limited resources and managerial issues (Ambady & Rosenthal, 1992; Blumberg, 1974; den Brok et al., 2004). Therefore, it is essential to focus on those issues that may add value not only to the performance of these institutions, but may also produce a civilized workforce who will be able to deal with different circumstances and behaviors without engaging in any deviant behaviors. To conclude, the culture practiced in these educational institutions influence stakeholders and inculcates values in students that will help them deal with their coworkers and not to get caught in conflicts (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002).

Currently, the higher educational institutions of Pakistan have shown the incredible growth and expansion . Pakistan has a very low Human Development Index that is 0.551, keeping it at 136th Position in the world (UNDP, 2008). Pakistan spends a meager percentage of its GDP on education. The government of Pakistan dissolved the University Grants Commission (UGC) and established Higher Education Commission (HEC) in 2002 with the aim to strengthen higher education with special focus on research in applied fields of science and technology within the country. The demand for higher education is believed to be affected by educational policies, income level cost of education, access to educational institutions, standard of the lower level of education, the structure of education, the educational background of the parents and quality of teaching (Kodde & Jozef, 1988). The ratio of education was very low at the time when Pakistan was created. The government of Pakistan tried to improve the condition of education sector, although it did not keep education on top priority. The continuous efforts by Pakistani government and private sector, especially in 1990s, added a network of educational institutions round the country. The progress in higher education remained very slow till late 1990s, but with the establishment of Higher Education of Pakistan (HEC), brought a revolutionary expansion in it. Presently, there are 128 universities imparting higher education in Pakistan. These universities include 72 public sector and 56 private sector universities

Number of universities in Pakistan

Area	No.of public sector universities	No.of private sector universities	Total Universities
Islamabad	13	03	16
KPK	15	09	24
Punjab	21	19	40

Sindh	14	22	36
Baluchistan	06	02	08
AJK	02	01	03
Gilgit Baltistan	01	-	01
Total	72	56	128

Source: HEC,Pakistan& Economic Survey of Pakistan.

Academics and the management are responsible for ensuring that, in addition to education, the necessary values for producing professionals who may perform in a productive manner in their workplaces, are imparted.

1.5. The Research Gap

Counterproductive work may be of various forms like stealing, disruption, slacking off, mistreatment, mendaciousness, bullying, etc. (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). All these behaviors may crop up at a personal or at an organizational level, and in both cases, it may spoil the organizational culture (Anjum & Parvez, 2013; A. Soylu & Campbell, 2012; Yende, 2005). Different studies are available to address the different dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors (Bolton et al., 2010; Mount et al., 2006; Spector, 2011), but no such study has been done to compare the occurrence of counterproductive work behaviors in terms of interpersonal mistreatments amongst white and blue collar job holders in the higher educational context. Hence, this study aims to analyze and compare the extent of counterproductive work behaviors in white and blue collar workers. After analyzing the available literature, we identified the following major gaps with respect to research on the association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.

Most of the literature on the relation between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors focus on the manufacturing sector, measuring performance within the corporate sector (Hawke & Heffernan, 2006; Heffernan et al., 2008). The performance of an individual, which researchers consider the foundation of organizational performance, and which is closely related to workplace interactions, has been largely ignored (Aram et al., 1971; Koopmans et al., 2011; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Zaheer et al., 1998). Besides, the higher education sector, which plays an important role in building the human capital of a nation (Kaufman & Baer, 2009; Lee, 2005), is a largely under-researched area with respect to not only white collar workers but also blue collar workers. There are a few

studies which have investigated the impact of interpersonal mistreatments on counterproductive work behaviors amongst these two categories of employees in higher education institutions in developing countries (Bahrami, 2010; Carlos & Rodrigues, 2013). Similarly, limited research has analyzed the effect of interpersonal relationships on higher educational institutions in Pakistan (Abbas et al., 2012; Bahrami, 2010; Karlsen & Nazroo, 2006; Musharraf et al., 2015). These studies either lack theoretical reasoning or fail to present a holistic view on organizational behaviors and their effects on the different dimensions of employee performance. The capacity of higher education institutes to respond to rapidly changing demands in a knowledge-intensive economy, and their ability to capitalize on these emerging trends, is rooted in the effectiveness and performance of teachers. Therefore, there is a dire need to investigate how interpersonal mistreatments affect employee productivity in higher education institutes. This is particularly important in rising nations like Pakistan, where interpersonal workplace interactions play a critical role in contributing to the development of the economy by promoting a supportive environment at workplaces.

To investigate the underlying relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors, a few studies have used different frameworks to study different types and levels of mediating or moderating factors that influence interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors (Baumeister et al., 2003; Paolucci et al., 2001; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Tepper et al., 2011). However, awareness about this topic is limited (Çelik, Turunc et al., 2011; Harlos & Axelrod, 2005; Qiu & Peschek, 2012). Besides, the studies prove the positive correlation between interpersonal relationships at the workplace and firm profitability or organizational performance. However, little attention has been devoted to understanding the mechanisms through which interpersonal interactions influence performance, and hence affect productivity amongst employees (Altman & Akdere, 2008; Çelik et al., 2011; Cullen et al., 2014; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). There has been limited research on mediating variables and their influence on the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors (Sliter et al., 2012; Sulea et al., 2012).

In today's workplace, employees face many demands or stressors daily. Interpersonal mistreatments have been found to be one of the most invasive demands that affect employees' performance at the workplace. In reality, interpersonal mistreatment is a broad term that ranges from mild disrespect or rudeness to serious acts such as consistent harassment, social exclusion, or verbal abuse. Moreover, this dissertation will explain some of the reasons for interpersonal mistreatment and common reactions to mistreatment. Finally,

there are instances where mistreatment provides opportunities for employees to thrive. A few studies have proposed that interpersonal mistreatment has no direct impact on performance, but rather has a positive influence on employees' relations and boosts productivity (Estes & Wang, 2008; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Spratlen, 1995). Since employee optimism is nowadays considered an important factor that influences an organization's outcomes (Altman & Akdere, 2008; Cullen et al., 2014; K. Harlos, 2010; Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2008), there is a need to propose and test a model that includes job burnout as a variable to investigate the elusive relationship between interpersonal mistreatment and productive work behavior.

This dissertation will enhance our understanding of interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace. Primarily, it deals with the consequences of interpersonal mistreatment and its outcomes in relation to work. Apart from the individual self-presented data and the data based on experiments (Cortina et al., 2001; Porath & Erez, 2007), there is limited published material that examines the association between employees who are victims of interpersonal mistreatment and their counterproductive work behaviors. Moreover, these studies do not identify the root cause of these harmful behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001). Subsequently, this study investigates the influence of mediation mechanisms in the form of job burnout and moderation mechanisms through emotional intelligence. This study broadens the research by paying attention to interpersonal interactions at the workplace and the conflicts that arise in the form of mistreatments, which are reflected in the communication exchanges among workers (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Further, this study intends to focus on the stress caused by these incidents (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). The present study also aims to compare two different classes of workers and their experiences regarding interpersonal mistreatments. This puts us on the path of studying the differential experiences of white and blue collar job holders.

Theory and research on emotional labor focus on the mistreatment of employees by coworkers or supervisors. However, in this study, we examine the relationships between these four types of interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors. We also examine the possibility that emotional intelligence moderates these relationships. In the present study, we focus on the mediating variable, job burnout, while studying these four types of interpersonal mistreatment and harmful work conduct.

A multitude of studies have been carried out, providing multiple perspectives on interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors. The conclusions of these

research studies (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Krische et al., 2010; Spratlen, 1995) hold true even in the context of higher education institutes in Pakistan. However, no such attempt has been made to compare the occurrence of interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors amongst white and blue collar job holders. Therefore, this study aims to compare and investigate the extent of workplace mistreatment and their outcomes in two different classes of workers. Furthermore, this study proposes to investigate the association between job burnout and interpersonal mistreatment among these workers with counterproductive work behaviors; it also aims to study the moderation effect of emotional intelligence on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.

1.6. The Problem Statement

In the current scenario of dynamic change, expanding needs and competitiveness, it has become increasingly complex for higher educational institutions to achieve high-level performance with sustainable competitive advantage. In this situation, the employees of higher educational institutions, Pakistan either the white collar job holders or the blue collar job holders are required to contribute effectively and efficiently to achieving the desired performance. The management concerns are increasing day by day that why do the job holders under perform even after having the best possible resources and ability of coping with changing tendencies and the ever-growing expectations of the educational fraternity. The previous research work indicates that competent employees help in achieving maximum performance (Wright et al., 1994; Pfeffer, 1997; Bettencourt et al., 2001; Park et al., 2003; Williams, 2004). However, for human capital to actually contribute to an organization's performance, it is necessary that positive attitudes should be demonstrated in their work relations with the coworkers. As the employees having grievances and troubles at work seems to be stressed and under perform their tasks even in the Pakistani context (Bibi et al., 2014; Khan, Sabri, & Nasir, 2016; Nasir, Khaliq, & Rehman, 2017; Nasir, Khan, & Nasir, 2017). So the emotional intelligence could be the way through which the jobholders of HEIs of Pakistan may be an effective strategy to resolve the consequences of interpersonal mistreatment and counter productive work behaviors.

1.7. The Purpose Statement

The primary aim of the present study is to present a detailed perspective on the effect of interpersonal mistreatment on employee's counterproductive behaviors; in particular, the mediating effect of a dominant variable, job burnout, will be studied in the context of the educational sector of Pakistan. One of the reasons for selecting these variables is that these variables have been described separately in a few previous studies (Cortina et al., 2001; De Raeve et al., 2009; Hirshleifer & Rasmusen, 1989; Lim et al., 2008). So, for the first time, this study will establish the correlation between these variables in the context of the academic

sector in Pakistan. So, this study can be considered a valuable contribution to the literature on job burnout and will also provide an insight into workers' behavior and of the variables that influence job burnout and performance. Therefore, as not much research has studied the correlation between these variables – interpersonal mistreatment, counterproductive work behaviors, and the moderating variable emotional intelligence – this study will make a valuable contribution to this field.

1.8. Objectives

The main objectives of the study are as follows:

- To propose a mediation and moderation framework of interpersonal mistreatment (IM) and counterproductive work behaviors (CWB) among blue collar and white collar employees in higher educational institutions, Pakistan.

Next are the sub-objectives of the present research work:

- To examine the mediating role of job burnout between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.
- To investigate the moderating role of emotional intelligence on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.
- To test the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors.
- To compare the interpersonal mistreatments of white collar workers (WCW) and blue collar workers (BCW) in HEI Pakistan.

1.9. The Questions of the Studies/Research

The study aims to address the following key questions:

1. Do interpersonal mistreatments affect the counterproductive work behaviors of white collar and blue collar employees?
2. Does the level of interpersonal mistreatment vary for different jobholders?
3. Does job burnout mediate the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors?
4. Does emotional intelligence moderate the association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behavior and job burnout and counterproductive work behavior?

1.10. Conceptual Framework

By studying interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace, this study aims to investigate its consequences. Moreover, the present study empirically analyzes various variables such as

behavior, emotions, stress, and productivity that can be influenced by interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace. It is hypothesized that to understand interpersonal mistreatments, one also needs to understand the variables that enhance its impact on productivity. Numerous stress-related studies have discussed the causes that influence workers to exhibit uncivil behaviors (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008; Schaufeli et al., 2008). In Spector's Control Framework (2005) for analyzing stress at the workplace, the incivility and irritation at workplace is considered a factor that leads to poor emotional responses (Sprung & Jex, 2012). In the same manner, another study concerning mistreatments at the workplace categorized them as routine trouble because of their repetitive and vague nature and concluded that they may harmfully influence the work in terms of emotional and physical outcomes (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Contrarily, all interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace can be categorized into four different, but main streams of mistreatments – ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts – and this study aims to examine the toxic influences that worsen them (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Despite the relation of interpersonal mistreatments to other deviant behaviors, the harmful effects of such burnouts obstruct workers' prospects to sustain healthy interpersonal relations in the workplace (Pearson & Porath, 2004). Further, the literature on workplace burnouts explain that inoffensive workplace mistreatments have a severe effect on workers' capacity and welfare.

Previous studies have highlighted the social substitute procedures that cause interpersonal mistreatments (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). In the current study, interpersonal mistreatment is considered a major construct that provides the base for remaining constructs (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Antagonistic acts lead to aggressive behaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Moreover, previous studies have described spirals of incivility in which slight confusions or conflicts may arouse serious interpersonal mistreatments or deviant behaviors. Until now, the process of social exchange has not been clearly described, and the occurrence of interpersonal mistreatments and their influence on outcomes is yet to be examined (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005).

By analyzing interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace and highlighting their nomological association, several constructs relating to workplace mistreatments have been drawn on the basis of previous literature (Bushman & Anderson, 2002): obnoxious bosses (Aryee, Chen et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) and workplace bullying (Harris et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) feature prominently in these studies. These constructs present a universal hypothetical set up that is rooted in other disciplines as well. This combined system

uses Social Exchange Theory processes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and insights on job burnouts (Griffith et al., 1999; Suresh, 2008) to comprehend interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive behaviors. As far as interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace go, these studies unswervingly relate to individual attitudes as in ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment; health as in job burnout; and performance as in counterproductive work behaviors. Moreover, the effects of interpersonal mistreatments on counterproductive behaviors, and the mediating and moderating effects of emotional intelligence on the relationship between job burnout and counterproductive work behaviour, are presented in the next chapter.

1.11. Hypotheses

- H1. There is impact of interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism-h1, incivility-h2, harassment-h3, interpersonal conflicts-h4) on job burnout in WCW and BCW.
- H2. There is impact of interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism-h5, incivility-h6, harassment-h7, interpersonal conflicts-h8) on counterproductive work behavior in WCW and BCW.
- H3. Job burnout mediates interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism-h9, incivility-h10, harassment-h11, interpersonal conflicts-h12) and counterproductive work behavior in WCW and BCW.
- H4. Emotional intelligence moderates between job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors in WCW and BCW-h13.
- H5. Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism-h14, incivility- h15, harassment-h16, interpersonal conflicts-h17) on counterproductive work behaviors in WCW and BCW.
- H6. There is a difference in interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism-h18, incivility-h19, harassment-h20, interpersonal conflicts-h21) and job burnout –h22 between WCW and BCW.
- H7. There is a difference in counterproductive work behaviors between WCW and BCW-h23.

1.12. Significance of the Study

The primary concern of the present research is to understand how interpersonal mistreatments like ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts affect white collar and blue collar workers in the context of higher educational institutions. Incivility within institutions negatively affects the abilities of the staff and influences students as well (Marchand-Stenhoff, 2009). All hostile interactions that can be categorized as interpersonal

mistreatments need to be addressed before they turn into hostile behaviors and jeopardize the academic work environment (Clark & Springer, 2010). Adversely, stakeholders like faculty, students, and administrative staff are often ignorant of the effects of their behaviors toward each other. Additionally, they are not empowered enough to deal with these deviant behaviors at different levels. However, in this context, previous studies have elucidated on the rudeness faced by staff members from pupils, ostracism (Warburton et al., 2006), and interpersonal conflicts (Xie et al., 2002), but this study aims to investigate the worsening consequences caused by four types of mistreatments where the trouble creator or the victim may both be from the staff at the executive or operational level. Therefore, there is a dire need to conduct research on interpersonal mistreatments in universities. The study proposes to fill a gap in the literature by examining the interpersonal mistreatments and unfavorable work behavior faced by blue collar and white collar workers in higher education institutions.

1.13. Definition of Important Terms

The definitions of a few important concepts regarding this study are as follows:

a) Blue Collar Job Holders

Blue collar job holders are usually the workers who perform manual work. Employees' skills tend to vary with their occupations. A few blue collar jobs need specialists who are trained and qualified. These workers include technicians, gardeners, plumbers, electricians, etc. Some blue collar highly skilled workers may hire a few lesser skilled workers to support them in simple tasks.

b) White Collar Job Holders

These employees perform their jobs in offices or cubicles. They usually have an academic qualification for getting their job. They have formal professional training. They may render services to their clients or employers – e.g., accountants, receptionist, bankers, teachers, department heads etc.

c) Workplace Ostracism

Ostracism in the workplace can be described as being left out or excluded from a social circle or being intentionally ignored by coworkers or bosses. These experiences of being ignored may have adverse effects like isolation, anger, inferiority complex, assault, etc. Ostracism is

also found among white collar workers. An official can deliberately avoid a coworker while inviting everyone else.

d) Workplace Incivility

Incivility in the workplace refers to bad temperament or less intense hostility with the vague intention to hurt someone. Incivility in the workplace may be regarded as rudeness, bad mannerisms, discourteousness, etc.

e) Workplace Harassment

Harassment in the workplace is regarded as a form of bullying an individual or a group. It has different names like mobbing, workplace bullying, workplace mistreatment, workplace aggression, and workplace abuse. Harassment at the workplace includes discriminatory behaviors toward a specific class or group. Under harassment we include discrimination with the intention to cause physical or emotional deterioration.

f) Interpersonal Conflicts

Interpersonal conflicts at the workplace can be described as conflicting or disagreeable situations between coworkers or groups involving bitterness or offensive behavior.

g) Stress or Burnout at Work

Stress in the workplace is an inward state or response to anything we intentionally or unintentionally see as a risk, either actual or supposed (Clarke & Watson, 1991). Stressed employees tend to be unhealthy, have medical issues, experience burnout and even premature death. They are poorly motivated, less productive, and less comfortable at work. In case of job burnout, which is specifically related to stress at work, employees experience physical, mental, or emotional tiredness along with reservations about their abilities, competence, and worth of work.

h) Emotional Quotient/ Intelligence

Emotional quotient is a state of consciousness, and it deals with feelings in interpersonal relations. We can also define the emotional quotient as the ability of individuals to be aware of their and others' emotions and to cope with these emotions.

i) Counter Productive Work Behaviors

Counterproductive work behaviors can be defined as those employee behaviors that are not in the interest of the employer or the organization. These behaviors may have adverse effects on the organization and all stakeholders. These behaviors may vary from person to person and from environment to environment. Generally, an employee who is aggressive may quickly respond to stress at work by wasting official resources without producing the expected output – this is an example of counterproductive work behavior.

1.14. Summary

This chapter sets the context for the study through detailed steps. Initially, the background for the study is presented by describing the independent variable – interpersonal mistreatments. Subsequently, the chapter also described the background for the dependent variable-counterproductive work behaviors, and then provided details on the population of not only white collar workers, but also of blue collar job holders. It then highlighted the context of the employees of higher educational institutions. Moreover, this chapter detailed the gaps in the literature, the problem and purpose statement of the study, the targets of the present research, as well as the research limitations. Moreover, for this research, the conceptual framework has been presented by generating hypotheses. The significance of this study has then been addressed. Additionally, the definitions of the present study were elaborated upon. This chapter concludes with an outline of the next chapters.

1.15. Organization of the Remaining Chapters

The forthcoming chapters of the present study are organized in the following manner:

The second chapter comprises five parts. The first section presents a detailed discussion on interpersonal mistreatments. The second section provides details on counterproductive work behaviors with a particular emphasis on blue collar and white collar workers. The third section outlines the empirical literature available and the scholarly debate on interpersonal mistreatments. It describes the mediating effect of the variable job burnout on counterproductive work behaviors. The fourth presents a detailed review of the moderating variable - emotional intelligence for interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace and counterproductive work behaviors. The fifth part describes the hypothesized conceptual framework.

The third chapter presents a literature review, the methodology of the study, and the rationale of the existing research. Additionally, the section elaborates on the mode of query plus the relevant techniques used for this study to examine the hypotheses.

The fourth chapter features the data analysis and the inferences drawn from the collected information.

The fifth chapter indicates the discussion about the results of current study plus it seeks to elaborate upon arguments that disagree with this study's findings and hypothetical argumentation.

This sixth chapter explains the research findings as well as the limitations and delimitations of the study and future research implications.

Chapter 2 - Nexus of Literature

This chapter comprises six sections. The first presents a detailed discussion on interpersonal mistreatments. The second section discusses counterproductive work behaviors among white collar and blue collar job holders. The next section investigates the empirical literature and scholarly debates on the association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors and the effect of the mediating variable, job burnout. The fourth segment starts with a detailed review of the moderating variable, emotional intelligence, and its effect on interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace and counterproductive work behaviors. The fifth part defines the conceptual framework for the study, which is based on Social Exchange Theory. And finally, the sixth section offers the hypothesized conceptual framework of this dissertation.

2.1. Interpersonal Mistreatment

In the current era, the problematic situations that employees go through at the workplace have been labeled as interpersonal mistreatment by researchers (Lim & Cortina, 2005). It is a broad definition that captures slight rudeness or ignorance to serious actions like harassment, abrasiveness, and interpersonal conflicts. Studies have indicated that people experiencing workplace stressors like inflexible workloads, conflict in the workplace, and a shortage in resources tend to exhibit higher levels of counterproductive behaviors (Cunningham et al., 2014). Indeed, more complications arise where organizations do not structure employees' interactions with their coworkers. Therefore, the victims are more likely to be mistreated by their peers regardless of the situation (Cole et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2014). Prior studies on interpersonal mistreatments have only examined the reactions of victims of such behaviors (Miner & Cortina, 2016). But this study adds to the literature by focusing on mistreatments at the workplace and their association with negative outcomes like anxiety, depression, mental trauma, unproductivity, and in extreme situations, the employee quitting their job. An organization will have to pay heavily when interpersonal mistreatments prevail in the office environment in the form of incivility, ostracism, and harassment. These behaviors increase the prevalence of interpersonal conflicts that negatively affect employee performance (Cullen et al., 2014).

The last few decades have witnessed a plethora of studies on interpersonal mistreatment at work (Lim & Cortina, 2005; Tepper & Henle, 2011). Researchers have proposed several concepts to study different aspects of detrimental work behaviors, and in particular,

interpersonal mistreatments (Mullen & Kevin Kelloway, 2013), including bullying (Harlos, 2010), incivility (Lewis & Malecha, 2011), and social undermining (Duffy et al., 2012). The frequent occurrence of mistreatment at work, whether by supervisors or by peers, suggests that it is a serious social problem that warrants research (Frazier & Bowler, 2015; Kammeyer-Mueller et al., 2013). To begin, it is necessary to examine the literature on interpersonal mistreatments and its relation to this study. This study would like to emphasize that despite there being meaningful conceptual differences among the mistreatment constructs (Sulea et al., 2012), there is a need to conduct an empirical study on workplace mistreatments which lead to counterproductive work behaviors and to test the theoretical relationships between these variables as well.

Interpersonal mistreatment is a common and frequently distressing occurrence at the workplace. Mistreatment, which is caused by interpersonal dealings among employees, is rarely acknowledged. Moreover, few studies have tried to understand the theoretical relationship between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors through the variable job burnout (Sulea et al., 2012; Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). The current research addresses these needs by analyzing four types of interpersonal mistreatment: workplace ostracism, workplace incivility, workplace harassment, and interpersonal conflicts.

2.1.1. Workplace Ostracism

When someone is made to feel excluded from the group they work with, such a situation is known as ostracism. Humans are dependent on social relationships to fulfill their needs (Wu et al., 2012), and these relationships are central to the lives of most individuals. Moreover, there is a need to maintain favorable social relationships, not only for the well-being of individuals, but also for their social groups (Ellwardt et al., 2012). A few studies have shown that ostracized employees lose interest in their work and curtail their productive work behaviors (Goodacre & Zadro, 2010). Other researchers have described workplace ostracism as a form of interpersonal workplace mistreatment, where the individual is pushed aside or excluded by the supervisors or coworkers (O'Reilly et al., 2014; Nasir et al., 2017). This is a global situation that can be found across hierarchical levels, organization structures, and nations, and it is having adverse and hostile effects on social beings (Goodacre & Zadro, 2010). Individuals who have been ostracized for long may acquire multiple disorders like melancholy, dejection, anxiety, depression, and suicidal tendencies (Yaakobi & Williams, 2015). Short-term ostracism can cause depression or stress (Major et al., 2014)

Ostracizing behaviors at the workplace include hiding required information, ignoring someone, or avoiding them and giving them a cold shoulder (Cui et al., 2015). Besides, ostracizing behaviors are regularly exhibited in the workplace, and sometimes they may arise from a fundamental need for survival in the organization and not necessarily maliciousness (Cockrell et al., 2012). Hence, ostracism can either be intended or unintended (Faris, 2012; Matthiesen et al., 2011). It is an excruciating experience where an individual is made to feel nonexistent. The persons or groups responsible for rejecting the coworker make the victim think that it is better to keep distance from others. However, a few victims respond differently by investing more energy in getting involved when confronted with ostracism. However, one may assume that the opposite kind of behavior helps reduce interpersonal conflict, but in fact the situation gets worse. Individuals engaging in grouping tend to show compensatory pro-group behaviors that are vigorous and irreversible at times. Therefore, the exclusion can take different forms based on the victim's response as well, and it is important to understand the different responses to exclusion or ostracism by predators as well (Matthiesen et al., 2011).

Prior studies have examined the nature and causes of workplace ostracism over decades (Cui et al., 2015; MatthieSen et al., 2011). They have shown that ostracism tends to be an extremely agonizing and subtle experience that may trigger physical aches and arouse sensitive feelings (Allman, 2013). Ostracism is distressing as it jeopardizes the individual's social needs that are fulfilled by being a part of a group – congruosity, a sense of self-improvement and empowerment, and a sense of belonging that comes from being identified as part of a group (Nielsen et al., 2011). Therefore, one would assume that a smart individual would respond to exclusion or ostracism by performing tasks in such a manner that they become an active member of the group (Brownlee, 2013; Karaduman, 2016). Contrarily, some individuals distance themselves from the group and show no interest in the troublemakers (Vie et al., 2011; Berlingo, 2015) or they respond violently to the instigators (Lovell, 2010; Ferris et al., 2014; Carter-Sowell & Carter, 2016).

Previous studies have shown that ignorance, disapproval, and exclusion from peers has various worsening outcomes like gloominess (Schoel et al., 2014), isolation (Latif et al., 2011), feeling pained (Tehrani, 2013), and depression (Finne et al., 2011). Moreover, ostracism may push individuals to aggression and deviant behaviors, not only toward those who have ostracized them, but also toward others (O'Reilly et al., 2014; Su, 2011). Other studies have showed that the victims of ostracism usually have less social reliance on their peers (Zhao et al., 2013), and some even try to avoid them in future (Robinson et al., 2012;

Balliet & Ferris, 2013). Therefore, ostracism on the part of coworkers may lead to physical and emotional isolation and detachment.

Past studies on the effects of ostracism concentrate on the interactive environment at the workplace (Wu et al., 2011). However, there is no one study that has empirically examined the four forms of interpersonal mistreatment in combination (Lim & Cortina, 2005), and the possible linkages and associations between them. Instead, studies have focused on exclusion in the workplace on the part of coworkers or bosses and the different forms of discouraging behaviors (Jones, 2010; Tepper & Henle, 2011). Employees may undermine others in different ways – i.e., by expressing verbal annoyance, hiding relevant information, indirectly snubbing peers, and abusing employees by misusing authority. These interactions at the workplace may lead to mistreatments (Scott et al., 2013) and may increase the stress faced by victims.

Organizations also often fail to support victims, which may spoil the worker's morale to perform well in the workplace (Chen et al., 2013; Robinson et al., 2014). Consequently, workplace social exclusion may escalate such that it not only creates trouble for the employees, but also for the organization. Moreover, in a few studies, it has been shown that ostracizing behaviors may be influenced by demographic aspects, i.e., gender, ethnicity, age, education, and status (Hershcovis & Reich, 2013; Ramsey & Jones, 2015). In another study, researchers linked the lack of organizational support to the integrity level of employees in their workplace (Wu et al., 2012); this lack of support may influence employees to focus more upon in-role performance rather than extra-role performance (Wu et al., 2012). The prevalence of workplace ostracism reflects the constraints of socially interactive workplaces.

A few other studies have investigated workplace ostracism under the wide construct of workplace incivility; these studies focus on certain behaviors which harm coworkers or the organization leading to organizational mistreatment (Zhao et al., 2013), deviance at the workplace (Leung et al., 2011), detrimental behaviors (Gneezy et al., 2011), hostile behaviors (Kraus et al., 2011), workplace bullying (Belacchi & Farina, 2010), and counterproductive work behaviors (Krischer et al., 2010). But very few studies have empirically observed the association between workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors.

In the present study, the primary goal is to understand and explain workplace ostracism and its effects on blue and white collar job holders in the higher educational context of Pakistan.

2.1.2. Workplace Incivility

Incivility means the uncivil, offensive, and discourteous conduct of employees that unveils their lack of respect and regard for coworkers (Trudel & Reio, 2011). Incivility is a ubiquitous occurrence in universities these days. Another study defined this term as less intense hostile behaviors with the vague intent to hurt the victim by spoiling the culture of respect and honor at the workplace (Lewis & Malecha, 2011). Past studies have investigated the link between workplace incivility and the health-related issues for employees, but few studies have established a similar link between workplace incivility and the productivity of employees (Lewis & Malecha, 2011). An initial examination of the literature shows that an aggressive work environment characterized by rudeness may influence employees to underperform. Past studies have researched uncivil environments in medical contexts (Porath & Pearson, 2012), among nursing staff (Leiter et al., 2010; Smith et al., 2010) and personnel (Naff et al., 2013). However, few empirical studies focus on incivility though many studies have been conducted to investigate the problem of overcrowding (Khanna et al., 2011; Qureshi et al., 2011; Rowe et al., 2011; Unwin, 2013).

Researchers have explored workplace incivility in business organizations (Andersson & Pearson, 1999) and have discussed them from different perspectives by studying varied independent and dependent variables (Riratanaphong, 2013). These hostile behaviors harm the environment and affect the employee's motivation to perform (MacIntosh et al., 2010; Rhodes et al., 2010). Research has primarily been done on hostile environments, bullying on the part of coworkers or bosses, offensive behaviors, and injustice in the corporate and medical sectors (MacIntosh et al., 2010; Wollard, 2011). Incivility has been studied from the student's and boss's perspective, but it has been ignored in the higher educational sector along with the other forms of interpersonal mistreatment like ostracism, harassment, and interpersonal conflict.

Although incivility lacks the intensity of more offensive and hostile behaviors in the workplace (Williams, 2010), it may point to other kinds of behaviors like making comments with multiple meanings, insulting coworkers, making derogatory remarks, and ignoring the worker's perspective (Popa et al., 2010). Uncivil behaviors bring devastating outcomes for the organization (Metters et al., 2010).

Generally, the intention of incivility is not to harm anyone, and it is slightly inexplicit. It can be described as socially criticizing others where the individual is aided somewhat by the surroundings of the organization (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). In an organizational set-up, if

policies are not properly executed to check hostile behaviors in the workplace environment, then it enables the individuals involved in all such bullying behaviors (Kert et al., 2010). Although all the workers in the workplace are somewhat aware of these problematic behaviors, some choose not to participate in such deviant behaviors (Agboola & Salawu, 2011).

These deviant behaviors increase workplace stress and the working environment becomes saturated with unaddressed conflicts and confusion, poor leadership, and social exclusion (Reisig & Pratt, 2011). Incivility is contagious, and the uncivil behavior may be exhibited again by other sources. Even in a professional environment such as a workplace, uncivil behaviors may take place. In academic settings, authorities do not generally take disciplinary regulations for granted, and they usually follow a culture of shared values, of respect and honor, of proper communication, of accountability, and of employee development and acknowledging workers' contributions. However, staff consider incivility a malicious and ubiquitous part of academic institutions and still perpetuate these behaviors.

The major concern in case of incivility is that it poses costs to the institution either directly or indirectly (Côté et al., 2011). These costs are hidden in nature, indirect, and hard to detect and cope with (Chullen et al., 2010). Uncivilized conduct can have adverse effects on organizations and do not align with organizational regulations or legislative sanctions. Incivility is usually not recognized as it is not apparent and is not practiced with the intent to harm. Formal complaints of incivility show that only up to 6% of workers consider themselves victimized by incivility (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). The deviant behavior may arise from conflicts or may lead to conflicts. Researchers have explored the concepts of incivility and conflict as independent or dependent variables (Hayes, 2010).

There are some differences in points of view, values, level of skills, and behavior, which leads to competition between coworkers or between employees and their organization. And due to this, the unsuccessful management of the workplace conflict can cause unfavorable outcomes not only for the organization, but also for its members (Belendiuk et al., 2010).

Moreover, at a lower level, workplace competition is similar to workplace incivility. It is lower in intensity, but as time goes on, it can become a serious problem. Earlier studies have established that social contest is related to unjust (deviant) workplace behaviors (Hayes, 2010). Some studies have shown that strong and robust management structures are rooted in workplace incivility (Boman & Gibson, 2011), while others have discussed conflict

management (Tekleab et al., 2009). Furthermore, there is a strong claim that unsolved workplace competition may lead to antisocial behavior, retaliation, and even bloodshed (Anwar et al., 2011). Many researchers have also found that workplace bullying (also a form of incivility, but is intentional rather than uncertain in intent) arises from relational battles and the ways in which these battles are managed (Anwar et al., 2011). They have also indicated that workplace incivility is indirectly associated with job achievement and productivity and can be paired easily with laziness, absenteeism, and unwillingness to work in the office (Edwards, 2010; Stack, 2013). Other researchers have found that more violent and offensive behaviors are the causes of workplace incivility (Cropley et al., 2010; Prinstein et al., 2011). Porath and Pearson (2012) stated that the response offered by a company should be equitable to that offered by other companies, or it may lead to a more grievous attitude. This can also lead to a spiral where one act of discourtesy annoys others and sparks a chain of incivility; this could lead to dangerous scenarios within the departments of different organizations. Extreme unfavorable work behavior can arise if these kinds of situations are not handled properly, and the worst-case scenario would be bloodshed and aggression.

Researchers such as Hershcovis and Barling (2010) and Taylor and Kluemper (2012) have studied workplace incivility because it is becoming a growing problem. The increase in workplace incivility has effected the employees of organizations. In fact, Taylor and Kluemper (2012) have described that the largest cost to failing organizations is unsettled workplace conflicts. So, there is a dire need to analyze this area due to its negative effects on jobholders and the negative impact on the organization (Bartlett & Bartlett, 2011; Roberts et al., 2011; Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Researchers have elaborated that studying incivility needs a higher priority (Meier & Spector, 2013). These researchers have also explained that workplace incivility offers a lot of scope for serious research due to its harmful effects, not only to the organization, but also to individuals. Many areas require thorough research due to the rising occurrence of workplace incivility and its negative impact on the organization (Sakurai & Jex, 2012; Spector & Fox, 2010). To propose potential solutions to workplace incivility, it is necessary to understand its causes and outcomes. To develop a list of antecedents or the factors that motivate or trigger incivility, an integrative review must focus on the outcomes of workplace incivility and the variables that aid or abet it, so that it is possible to understand the possible causes and impact of workplace incivility.

Workplace incivility leaves a negative impact on workers. Workplace incivility alters different variables such as finance, work environment, and organizational structure. By

categorizing variables, this study contributes to the knowledge base on incivility. In addition, it also shows how antecedents impact incivility and how incivility affects the worker. In previous studies, information about the individual variable was provided, but none of them provided a clear view of how all the variables linked with workplace incivility. With the vast growth in the prevalence of workplace incivility, there is a need for different studies to understand how different variables affect incivility, and it can also provide a framework for investigating incivility (Griffin, 2010). With the help of this framework, a vast number of workplace settings, including classrooms, higher education, and business offices of different kinds can be studied. The framework may also be applied to sectors such as criminal justice, poverty, and healthcare.

Researchers have linked incivility and counterproductive work behaviors (Griffin, 2010; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). But in these studies, none of them have explained the moderating function of emotional intelligence. So, to fill this gap, this study has decided to test emotional intelligence in relation to workplace incivility and counterproductive work relationships in the Pakistani context. So, the study focuses on the higher education arena, including students and administrative staff. The primary focus of this study is the teaching and non-teaching staff, which not only includes white collar workers but also blue collar workers in higher education intuitions of Pakistan.

These studies primarily focused on the employees of the university and revealed that interpersonal conflicts, ostracism, incivility, and harassment are common in higher education institutions. There can be no doubt that incivility affects teachers' pedagogical skills which ultimately influences the students' learning skills (Leiter et al., 2011). Other researchers have stated that all these alarming behaviors should be addressed before these codes of conduct turn into codes of destruction and the academic work environment becomes threatening (Biron, 2010). These are negative behaviors that have a harmful effect on others, but stakeholders including students, staff, and the administration remain unaware of them. In addition, in these complicated situations, victims are not usually well-equipped to deal with them. While earlier studies have focused more on classroom incivility, the current study focuses on the incivility and counterproductive work behaviors that teaching and non-teaching staff experience in higher education intuitions.

2.1.3. Workplace Harassment

Experiencing one or more personal acts that can be categorized as vexatious behavior can also referred to as harassment. Many of these behaviors are listed in the CRA (Civil Rights

Act). More precisely, it can also be defined as those nonverbal or verbal behaviors that defame someone or shows aggression towards someone due to their color, region, race, home place, bloodline, height, gender, impairment, or due to their allies, associates, or relatives. It also includes those behaviors that

- Have the intent to, or result in, unconsciously exhibiting extremely harsh behavior toward an individual's work achievement
- Have the intent to, or result in, making the workplace scary, threatening, or hostile
- Otherwise can affect even a single employee in a very negative way (Zapf & Einarsen, 2011).

Harassment can be considered any act in which one member of a group is targeted due to his or her social identity, his or her caste, or on the basis of gender (Einarsen et al., 2010). So, in this sense, gender harassment can be included under social identity harassment because it is provoked by one's membership in a group and affects one's social identity (Meyer, 2015). Gender harassment, unlike unwanted sexual remarks or demands for sexual favors, transmits a threatening vibe without any particular sexual motivation (Ali, 2010). However, evidence shows that gender harassment is frequently accompanied by demands for sexual cooperation. It has also been shown that when sexual harassment does occur, then it is always coupled with other forms of harassment, including gender harassment (Sue, 2010). Further, this study will also investigate ethnic harassment in the workplace. This involves targeting the ethnic group of an individual and involves making offensive comments and rejecting the individual either in the form of social communication or at work (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b).

Previous studies have examined the harassment of ethnic minorities and the gender harassment experienced by women (Raver & Nishii, 2010). These types of research are quite exhaustive. Much of the information in this study on sexual harassment has been gathered by examining the literature (Richman et al., 2005; Sims et al., 2005; Shannon et al., 2007; Einarsen, 2000). Furthermore, Schneider et al., (2000) examined different studies on caste patterns and the discrimination that employees encountered in the form of harassment (Rederstorff et al., 2007).

In short, workplace harassment has received attention in recent studies (Rospenda & Richman, 2004). To study the broader category of mistreatment, a variety of labels have been used, including workplace bullying (Khan et al., 2016; Sharp & Smith, 2002), emotional abuse (Glaser, 2002), incivility (Pearson et al., 2005), workplace aggression (Hershcovis et

al., 2007), workplace abuse (Weinstein, 2013), emotional abuse (Keashly, 1997), and workplace harassment (Rospenda & Richman, 2004).

Ignoring these labels, these behaviors include actions that create a work environment that is offensive or intimidating, despite the fact that the abuse may have been caused by frequently questionable generalized workplace harassment rather than gender or ethnic profiling. This may arise due to a number of different factors including competition in the workplace where coworkers may attack others who have lower social power or a counterproductive response (Raver & Nishii, 2010). This means that if a certain identity group reports a significantly higher level of generalized work harassment, then it could be concluded that that group is facing a subtle form of discrimination (Hoobler et al., 2010). There is no significant evidence on the relationship between experiencing generalized work harassment and other forms of harassment. Hence, there is a need to research the relationship between these two types of harassment – sexuality harassment and ethnic harassment – and their effect on counterproductive work behaviors.

Many researchers have aimed to concentrate on every class of conduct separately. The present study aims to connect these ignored aspects. We approach this topic in an empirical manner to find modern methodological openings and to offer new procedures to process the information on workplace harassment. Samples were taken from 224 peer-reviewed articles published over a 26-year period (1987–2012 inclusive) and were analyzed. These studies have approached workplace harassment as pushing someone beyond the limit, looking at them in a degrading manner, attacking them, and exploiting them (Neall & Tuckey, 2014).

2.1.4. Interpersonal Conflicts

Glick and Fiske (1996) indicate that a model was developed on interpersonal conflict at work and was tested on a sample of young employees (Appelberg et al., 1991). Opposing personalities or individuality clashes are the main causes for these kinds of conflicts. These conflicts can also be triggered by many different factors such as spite, grudges, or even something as basic as disgust for another. Interpersonal conflict can also be caused by discrimination based on gender, religious, or racial differences (Volkema & Bergmann, 1995). Workplace gossip not only sustains this conflict, but also affects other employees (Volkema et al., 1996).

Interpersonal conflicts between employees can also be an extreme issue for employers. If interpersonal conflicts continue, then it would lead employees to waste time, cause uneasy or

tense relationships, or lead to a loss of productivity, litigation, or distress. And besides these, it can also cause employees to leave the organization or make them mentally and physically absent (Wai & Yip, 2009). So, it is important to discuss the problem so that the interpersonal conflict is resolved and a bond is established between the people who have been affected by it. The affected individuals experience resistance, aggression, anxiety, hostility, and antagonism.

Workplace conflicts exist as individuals tend to take different stances on a variety of issues. Whether the organization is aware of it or not, these conflicts occur at the workplace. In an organization where individuals interact with each other, there is potential to create different kinds of situations that could lead to difficult relationships. A conflict is when two or more people disagree with the other's point of view (Yazici, 2005). Conflicts may also be described as incompatible views among the involved parties (Briere & Rickards, 2007). Studies on organizational behavior show that there may be intergroup, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and inter-organizational conflict.

In other words, we can say that the word “intra” means within and “inter” means between (Li, 2005). Western and Asian schools of thought (Freeman & Browne, 2004) provide insights to interpersonal conflict management (Barbuto & Xu, 2006). In the previous few decades, researchers in this field have been working on ways to reduce clashes, let alone eradicate it in organizations. The unshakable presumption is that conflict is hazardous to organizations and thus it would be advantageous to wipe out conflict (Kaushal & Kwantes, 2006). In recent times, researchers have pondered over more beneficial inquiries, i.e., at which times does this conflict harm the organization, and on which occasions does it bring benefits? Therefore, it cannot be concluded that conflict is entirely good or bad, but that it has aspects of both. Studies have also moved toward finding a way through which the drawbacks of conflict can be mitigated and its benefits enhanced (Chen, 2006). This theory attempts to identify different types and origins of conflicts to make the best of it in everyday life. Conflicts can be categorized as internal or external conflicts. Internal differences occur between people who are involved in conflicts of values and seniority, etc., while external conflicts involve various parties with conflicting interests. Interpersonal conflict refers to the process by which a person or a department annoys others and stops them from pursuing their goals. A culture of professionalism should be inculcated so that this kind of conflict can be stopped before it begins (Graham & Folkes, 2014). Many kinds of personal differences lead to interpersonal

conflict, including clashes in terms of personalities, values, attitudes, perception, and culture (Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013)

Disputes in motives, values, manners, or personality conflicts are not resolvable through interactions. For instance, if both parties are forceful and feel the need to dominate the relationship, then it would not be possible for both their needs to be met, leading to conflict. Interpersonal struggles usually involve the use of rewards, punishments, threats, emotional blackmail, flattery or ingratiation, and deception and evasion (Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013). These unresolved power conflicts keep on regenerating, and then a time comes where a relationship either needs to be fixed before the point of breakdown or needs to be eliminated (El-Khouly & Amer, 2013). According to the demand control model, conflicts are largely influenced by job design and employees' health has been shown to be interrelated (De Dreu et al., 2004). In this model, the individual channels their stress into motivation, and then sees how others take further action to handle the situation. After that, the energy produced by that individual will become an opportunity, since his or her efforts to further his or her own excellence will cause distress to others. This may help increase productivity overall (Herscovis et al., 2007). Interpersonal conflicts are also based on the differing way each person imagines the relationship, and each of these possibly has an outcome. Nonetheless, the different forms of conflict perception can be connected in a group involving numerous links such that there is a higher risk of clashes and interpersonal conflicts may become a bad habit or temperament (De Dreu, 2008). Conflicts regarding tasks can turn into personal conflicts. These disagreements can lead the other person to consider that his or her skills are being challenged, and then due to this outcome, relationship conflict may arise (Spector & Fox, 2005).

Various factors can lead to conflicts. These include differences among individuals in terms of objectives, desires, etc. Additionally, some studies have described the troubles and stressors that emerge out of these workplace conflicts (Spector et al., 2006). After reviewing various recent definitions of conflict (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005), it can be concluded that these definitions are not the same, but they do overlap with each other.

Interpersonal conflicts arise because of varying beliefs between both parties that influence them to obstruct each other's activities. Interpersonal conflicts arise out of diverse interests and employees' interaction, and these interests may generate conflicts. Actions by one or both sides may lead to the thwarting of the others' goals (Bartholomew et al., 2011).

A conflicting situation may also arise in case of competition to survive in a stressful situation. Clashes based on authority may occur among individuals who are aggressive in their interactions. Conflicts within groups may also arise when one or more members try to control each other's actions (Van Veen & Carter, 2006). Generally, conflicts arise because authority figures pit employees against one another for fulfilling their goals. Conflicting situations may also arise because of the stress faced by a person. Moreover, work requirements that necessitate individuals to collaborate with each other sometimes becomes critical and a source of conflict. Interpersonal disagreements are not the only source of conflicts in the workplace, and a few external factors may be the cause of these stressful situations (Hofmann et al., 2012).

Researchers have differentiated these factors into two major categories – organizational factors and personal factors. Furthermore, personal factors are unique to each individual. These may be sub-divided into smaller groups according to the employee sentiments they inspire. Many individuals enter into conflicts because they have different values and beliefs. Individuals constantly feel under threat that they may lose their power or social position. The atmosphere of distrust and lack of confidence may become a distressing reason for conflicts among employees. Universally, uncivil behaviors such as disrespect and disregard may be a cause for interpersonal conflicts among employees, i.e., being ironic or sarcastic etc. (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003).

Organizational culture usually becomes a reason for interpersonal mistreatments, especially interpersonal conflicts, due to resource limitations, unfair dealings in the workplace, ambiguous roles in the workplace, incompatibility of goals, changes either technologically or socially, the contradicting goals of the organization and its members, a lack of information, and workplace stress (Alpert et al., 2000).

Different studies have shown ways to differentiate conflicts on the basis of its sources for a deeper understanding of how to solve it. A brief outline of these classifications is presented below:

1. Conflicts that are characterized according to whether they arise within or outside the organization (Cai, 2008).
2. Conflicts of values that occur due to different social identities and are affected by different ideologies and issues (Vaske et al., 2007).

3. Conflicts of variations that arise by relating disparities to social entities (Hartup, 1992).
4. Emotional conflicts that arise from attaching different sentiments to different conflict-related situations (Steele & Steele, 2005).
5. Conflicts regarding goals “may involve divergent preferences over all of the decision outcomes, constituting a zero-sum game” (Locke et al., 1994).
6. Conflicts in accuracies relate to the incorrect assignment of causes (behaviors, parties, or issues) to conflict (Simons & Peterson, 2000).
7. Conflicts of interest arise when “when each party, sharing the same understanding of the situation, prefers a different and somewhat incompatible solution to a problem involving either a distribution of scarce resources between them or a decision to share the work of solving it” (Marchalant et al., 2009).
8. Rational and irrational conflicts related to what is rationally believed about the behavior of a person in the particular scenario (Rentsch & Zelno, 2005).
9. Functional conflict versus dysfunctional conflicts: These occurs when two or more organizational members disagree on their task or issues related to particular conflict (Menon et al., 1996)
10. Cognitive versus Affective Conflict occurs when two interacting social entities, while trying to solve a problem together, become aware that their feelings and emotions regarding some or all the issues are incompatible (Jehn, 1997).

The methods of handling and managing the conflicting situations identify the nature and outcomes of conflict. These methods have received very positive feedback, and hence it has received much support from different scholars (Anwar et al., 2012; Beheshtifar & Zare, 2013; Pronin, 2008). There are different methods to manage conflict, such as focusing on structural changes and interpersonal changes. Volmer (2015) states that individuals have to take constructive actions because this is the best option to resolve a conflict in an organization. If the conflict grows, then it needs to be handled properly so that we can convert the negative force into a positive force; otherwise, it would threaten the individual or other groups in the organization. The interpersonal approach also involves addressing the situation that causes the conflict (Kazan, 1997). Another researcher claimed that rather than resolving

organizational conflict, it should be managed (Roscigno et al., 2009). To manage the conflict, the management needs to examine conflicts at different levels of the organization. A survey should be conducted to find out whether there is a need for intervention and if so, then what type (Slaikeu, 2005). It may be designed to control interpersonal conflicts (INPC) at different stages and may encourage organizational members to learn how to handle interpersonal conflicts.

These conflict resolution methods involve changes in behavior, attitude, and organizational structure so that the members of the organization can cooperate with each other to achieve their goals (Stafyla et al., 2013). To make this happen, the organization's members must learn to manage necessary criteria so that they can solve their problems amicably (McCullough, 2005).

2.2. Job Burnout

Previous studies adequately examined the occupational stressor, job burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). In other words, a study described job burnout as an unfriendly and unfavorable situation that can cause changes not only in employees but also in the organization (Swider & Zimmerman, 2010). The main business of this study is to not only understanding burnout, but also proposing solutions to how to solve it, so that we could understand what more can be done about it (Griffin et al., 2009). The literature shows us how to identify the key factors – the fundamental causes and specifications that lead to stress-related scenarios (Cole et al., 2012; Lasalvia et al., 2009; Toker & Biron, 2012).

The current study believes in a modified but similar approach that focuses on identifying the initial causes of the stress that acts as a mediating factor between counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal mistreatments (Blau & Andersson, 2005). These initial measures are indeed valid and can help predict future problems with burnout. In addition, they may apply to ensure that at-risk individuals adopt preventive measures (Read & Laschinger, 2013).

Stress in the workplace was originally studied by Hans Selye in 1956 (Glanz & Schwartz, 2008). He also studied how people's conflicts grow when they struggle to cope with changes in the environment. He also demonstrated that stress is a general, non-specific physiological reaction to mistreatment. Further, he draws attention to the difference between distress, also known as bad stress, and eustress, also known as good stress. The feelings of emotional or physical tension, or the feeling of being unable to deal with irritation and anxiety, especially

in reaction to change, can be called stress. Researchers explain organizational stress in many different ways and using various terms, including strain and stressor (Kahn et al., 1964). Though job-related stress plays an important role in high stress work environments, the individual characteristics of an employee are also significant determinants of one's performance in such an environment (Safaria et al., 2011). Teachers have to perform many different tasks including organizing the lecture, getting students, using body language, maintaining posture, and holding students' attention (Wilkerson and Irby, 1998). Studies have found that in the workplace, long-term job stress can lead to a huge amount of burnout. Researchers have characterized burnout as the prevalence of cynical beliefs and a feeling of ineffectiveness, exhaustion, detachment, and a lack of personal achievement in the form of creating change through teaching (Cancio et al., 2013).

Technological advancement and day-by-day changes in global science are putting greater pressure on the workforce to perform at a higher level of output and have raised competitiveness. So, with changing technology, workers are required to perform better on their jobs (Bhatti et al., 2011). The outcomes of these stresses may affect the employees' work (Rehman et al., 2012).

Job stressors include beliefs or reactions to anything that make us feel under threat, whether it is real or imagined (Nazari & Emami, 2012). Employees who are stressed face medical issues and burnout, are less productive, seem poorly motivated, and are unhealthy and less comfortable at work (Tarafdar et al., 2007). Mental health problems, divorce, and substance abuse are the effects caused by job stress (Oloyede, 2006). Individuals face constraints, opportunities, or demands according to their reactions and behaviors in response to the continuous changing form of stress. Moreover, the outcome is perceived to be both uncertain and important (Kim & Stoner, 2008). Researchers link job stress with increases in workers' desire to leave the organization, quitting, and absenteeism (Lamontagne et al., 2007). Employees face many problems due to job stress and their relationships with family members, clients, friends, and coworkers tend to suffer (Kompier & Cooper, 1999; Smith et al., 1995). So, in simple words, job stress is not only harmful to employees, but also to the employing organization (Smith et al., 1995).

Job burnout causes chronic exhaustion followed by psychological distancing from work in the form of cynicism or depersonalization. A fall in productivity or a lack of sense of achievement makes the syndrome worse (Geurts & Grundemann, 1999). A plethora of studies have linked job burnout to strained social relationships at work, in particular, strained

supervisory and collegial relationships (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994). Other studies have proposed that improving the quality of collegial relationships can mitigate cynicism and exhaustion (Noblet & LaMontagne, 2006). Moreover, these improvements are evident at a one-year follow-up assessment.

Job burnout and attachment avoidance have one thing in common, which is psychological distancing. The original definition of burnout describes depersonalization as an effect, which causes the individual to emotionally distance themselves in social encounters from service recipients, in order to cope with the exhaustion of energy-intensive encounters (Maslach et al., 2001). Other studies have proposed that cynicism, a parallel aspect tracked in the Maslach Burnout Inventory General Scale (Maslach, 2000; Sebastiaan Rothmann, 2008), can be described as the inability to invest energy in the work when the worker faces exhaustion. The general burnout concept extends the original definition to include patients for whom people are not the sole or even major source of emotional demands at work. Any type of work can cause immediate emotional exhaustion, but types of work which demand vivid concentration, creativity, or encounters, specially drain emotional energy (Bakker et al., 2005).

Moreover, studies have also identified the relationship between attachment avoidance and anxiety with job burnout. For example, a manager's attachment insecurity can cause less satisfaction and greater burnout among employees within their work groups (Toppinen-Tanner et al., 2002). A lack of job autonomy has also been shown to increase the likelihood of avoidance of work (Van Der Ploeg & Kleber, 2003). Therefore, the study proposes that both types of attachment insecurity are likely to lead to higher levels of exhaustion and cynicism.

Healthcare providers have a high level of ongoing social contact with their colleagues or/and patients. Ongoing social contact will make particular demands on their energy beyond routine requirements. And these demands will be higher for those who experience higher attachment anxiety. Another study has proposed that social rejection is more likely to concern those who have greater attachment anxiety (Schaufeli et al., 2008). Those with attachment anxiety require greater skill to manage social encounters, because the anxious person must deal with both experiences – the experience of anxiety and the experience of attempting to cope. When experiencing stressful situations, reducing anxiety takes priority over attending to job performance (Lewig & Dollard, 2003).

The rate of reduced efficacy can vary according to the nature of relationships. Employee productivity could be jeopardized by problematic social relationships that cause anxiety, and

the more distant the relationship is, the more it is connected with avoidance. For example, one of the key aspects of hospital care is team effort, in which different types of healthcare providers interact with a given patient in a series of shifts. Employees who have not been integrated into the team adequately would face difficulties in collaborating with the team without a substructure of trusting relationships with colleagues. Without strong helpful relationships with patients, the help they render patients will be limited. Therefore, the study proposed that individuals who are not properly integrated into the workplace will have lower levels of efficacy.

The research on incivility at work shows its shared nature (Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). Victims have not only received incivility, but have also reported that they instigated it. The social culture of the work setting is reflected in the consistency with which incivility is both received as well as instigated. Tolerance of incivility varies by work culture, and in some places, there is active promotion of it (Demerouti et al., 2009). Another important factor is that reciprocal incivility often reveals a dearth of social skills. Both attachment avoidance and attachment anxiety have been shown to be affiliated with poor social skills (Demerouti et al., 2009). So, this suggests that improper team integration is linked to a higher occurrence of incivility, both received and instigated.

This approach is a practical one which emphasizes people's personal experiences at certain moments rather than assuming or adding various points to deal with stress-based situations. The basic premise is that if an individual appears to be suffering from the initial stages of burnout, then sufficient data should be collected to prevent burnout and build engagement. In the mid-1970s and 1980s, the early research on burnout was mainly done in USA and Canada, but translated versions of the articles and research measures were circulated in other countries as well. Internationally, much work was done on the topic in post-industrialized nations (Demerouti et al., 2009). However, there are differences in the level of burnout despite the similarities between different cultures. For instance, Europeans show lower average scores than those in America (Chang, 2009; Laschinger et al., 2009).

Researchers have stated that burnout reflects the occurrence of stress, which is related to different health concerns, i.e., headaches, cold/flu episodes, muscle tension, gastrointestinal disorders, sleep disturbances, and hypertension (Lovelace et al., 2007). However, though this is a form of mental illness, these symptoms can also be seen in "normal" persons who do not suffer any mental illness. These symptoms are work-related and include reduced performance because of negativity (Rothmann et al., 2003), experiencing stress and gloomy attitude, and

exhibiting immoral behaviors rather than physical symptoms. These indications are presented in the diagnosis for job-related neurasthenia (DeTienne et al., 2012), so research uses this description of burnout.

Other studies state that burnout is different from other kinds of mental illness, despite the two phenomena being related. Kim and Stoner (2008) and Xanthopoulou et al. (2007) have identified the differences between burnout and depression. Other studies suggest that burnout predicts depression and other emotional symptoms (Allen & Mellor, 2002; Greco et al., 2006). Previous studies have connected burnout with different forms of unproductive work behaviors at the workplace. Symptoms includes dissatisfaction at work, absenteeism, poor commitment towards the workplace, quitting, and intention to leave the job. There are a dearth of studies which gather direct evidence other than the outcomes at work.

Some studies have found out that patients, judges, and nurses experience higher levels of burn out (Allen & Mellor, 2002; Greco et al., 2006). Moreover, a study undertaken on the law and order forces discovered an association between violent behaviors in response to crimes and burnout (Rössler, 2012). Also, a negative spillover effect was found in the research done on work–family issues. Spouses tend to rate their partner’s burnout more negatively (Söderfeldt et al., 1995). Workers have reported that their employment has had a negative influence on their family members, and that their marriage has become the disappointment for them (Brandes et al., 2007).

Many demographic variables have been studied in relation to burnout, but these studies are comparatively few and their findings are not that consistent (Leiter & Maslach, 2005). Many other personality attributes have been considered in an effort to find out which type of workers might be at greater risk of experiencing burnout. Studies on the big five personality types and their relation burnout have revealed some possible tendencies (Awoyemi & Bamigbade, 2016). Psychological distress and emotional instability are more likely in neurotic individuals, so it is possible to theorize on personality types and their association with burnout. These aspects may be summarized in the context of the workplace environment such as load at the workplace, empowerment, fairness and values, etc.

The most popular research topic in occupational health psychology is burnout. The research highlights that the employees who face burnout hold a negative, cynical attitude toward work and seem to be chronically exhausted. They may face serious health problems in future over the course of time and may show impaired job performance (Laschinger & Fida, 2014).

When an employee experiences a high level of burnout once, then it becomes a recurring problem. A longitudinal research has showed that burnout affects employees over a longer period (Liang & Hsieh, 2007). How can we explain why burnout persists for so long? Research has not adequately explored the topic of burnout, because most of the studies do not consider burnout a long process that extends over time (Miller et al., 1990).

Prior research on burnout proposed that there is a structural cause for the syndrome including the work environment, especially in case of high and low demand (Laschinger et al., 2009). This research also points out that the individual is also a factor for burnout, since he or she may be inclined to perfectionism or neuroticism. Due to these characteristics, the employee may be inclined to cope with their high job demand in an unfavorable way (Kirk-Brown & Wallace, 2004). With all the available knowledge, we still have little awareness about which part of an employee's routine pushes him or her to burnout.

The main intention of this study is to examine the development of burnout from the perspective of the burned-out worker. To understand burnout, we have to capture the processes that leads to burnout and explain how individuals who experience a high amount of burnout function in the workplace. Does the problem advance from bad to worse?

The dynamic model clarifies how burnout makes an impact on the productivity of employees. Also, it reveals how stress plays a role in the burnout of an individual employee.

2.3. Emotional Intelligence (EMIT)

Supervisors at work do not deal with all employees at the workplace in a same manner, and this generates a need for moderation (Gita & Thenmozhi, 2015). Organizational hostility is often caused by the behavior of bosses and influences workplace norms and values. Negative associations and linkages in the workplace such as interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors create a hostile environment.

Not all employees are likely to affected by ineffective administration similarly, which suggests that there is a need to test for the effect of emotional intelligence (Grandey, 2008). Oppressive leadership is directly linked to faults in the organization culture where workers perceive abnormal behaviors as standard in their organizations (Martinko et al., 2013). In addition, a lack of organizational response to negative behaviors likewise reinforces the positive relationship between bad leadership and normalization of negative behaviors (Martinko et al., 2013). Other studies have proposed that oppressive leadership is directly

linked to counterproductive work behaviors and other negative results which have a direct impact. The variables that have been used in this study are situational instability (Ayoko, Callan, & Härtel, 2003), locus of control (Ilies et al., 2011), and emotional intelligence (Fox & Spector, 2006; Skogstad et al., 2007). Besides, studies have likewise uncovered that the counter-beneficial behavior that victims develop as a consequence of being exploited is influenced by the intervening impact of toxic feelings (Fox & Spector, 2006) and emotional apathy (Christian & Ellis, 2014). Emotional acts may likewise impact the situation, and may, for example, cause counterproductive behaviors (Alias et al., 2012) and work fraternity (Hough & Furnham, 2003). In light of these studies, researchers have proposed that the relationship between oppressive leadership and negative results can be examined in terms of either individual or situational components.

One of the individual components which may directly impact the relationship between oppressive leadership and counterproductive work behaviors is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is a mix of insight and a deep sense of belonging to an organization (Edwards et al., 2009). It is an important and significant principle of knowledge since it helps the individual lead others (Holley, 2012). This profound sense of being, as a type of insight, implies that it is a set of capacities that empower individuals to take care of issues and achieve objectives in their regular lives. It is a sort of knowledge by which people can lead their work and home lives in a more profound, wealthier, and purposeful way (Munyon et al., 2015). Another study assessed the five parts of profound knowledge to demonstrate that this deep sense of being is a type of insight. The five segments are: (1) the capacity for amazing quality; (2) the capacity to develop profound awareness; (3) the capacity to invest ordinary occasions and circumstances with a feeling of the sacrosanct; (4) the capacity to use otherworldly assets to tackle issues in life; and (5) the ability to take part in ethical behavior – to show forgiveness, to express appreciation, to be modest, to show sympathy (Ones & Viswesvaran, 2003). In the interim, as indicated, this amazing quality is characterized by the capacity to rise above one's ego with a feeling of belonging and complete wholeness in ways that improve one's work (Gooty, 2007). Emotional intelligence is the capacity to be aware, to tap into one's instincts, and to incorporate various perspectives in ways that will improve everyday working and efficiency. Further, it refers to the capacity to experience significance, collaborate, improve quality, and develop understanding in ways that improve the work and its success, with time and effort and through endurance. It also refers to the capacity to be available, to love calmly and surrender to truth, and to show openness, nearness, modesty and trust in ways that improve everyday working and overall prosperity. When people's

emotional intelligence is high, they are thought to be wise and have been observed to exhibit appropriate behavior. Be that as it may, when emotional intelligence is low, they seem to develop dangerous behavior (Stanton, 2011). Emotional intelligence restricts counterproductive behaviors and powerlessness and boosts efficiency. It greatly affects psychological wellness, and along these lines, can be used as a solution to work-related issues (Wisker, 2011). Emotional intelligence includes a sense of purpose, purpose, and affection, and reflects a willingness to help other individuals and animals. Thus, a person with high emotional intelligence does not consider others to be annoyances, rather, he or she cherishes individuals and is hesitant to do any harm to them (Arvey et al., 1998). Emotional intelligence has been found to have a direct effect on certain results, for example, productivity (Kisamore et al., 2010). Others analyzed the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional wellness (Levine, 2010), innovation (Ilies et al., 2011), efficiency (Zhao et al., 2013), work fulfillment (O'Boyle et al., 2012), and so on. In light of the above findings, it is clear that emotional intelligence will play a role in clarifying the relationship between bad leadership and counterproductive work behaviors. Thus, in this study, we foresee that emotional intelligence seems, by all accounts, to be a moderating variable in the relationship between oppressive supervision and counterproductive work behaviors (hierarchical and interpersonal CWBs) and it has been shown that the relationship between oppressive supervision and counterproductive work behaviors will be weaker in case of higher emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence (EQ) is more important for the success of people and businesses than intelligence quotient (IQ). Therefore, EQ may likewise impact the success of the organization. A particular study researched the impact of emotional insight on counterproductive work behaviors (Zhao et al., 2013; Prati, et al., 2003) and leadership patterns among waiters and bartenders in a fancy inn. They reported that as components of emotional knowledge, awareness of other's feelings, intuition, and self-awareness significantly affected counterproductive work practices, while self-evaluation of one's emotional state and intuition impacted leadership patterns. The impact of emotional insight, authoritative citizenship practices, and job fulfillment on employees' productivity in the Iranian inn industry was studied (Hanzaee & Mirvaisi, 2013). Another study reported that emotional intelligence significantly affected job satisfaction (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013). A study investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and a set of other markers of counterproductive work practices particular to employees in the client administration field (Momeni, 2009). They reported that emotional imbalance, a feeling of inadequacy, and self-

doubt were critical indicators of employees' counterproductive practices at work. Additionally, they focused on the direct effect of the self-awareness variable upon the relationship between emotional imbalance and counterproductive practices.

Workplace ostracism alludes to the degree to which people believe that they are overlooked or ignored by different employees in the workplace (Zhao et al., 2013). As an interpersonal ordeal, workplace shunning puts the victims through abuse and mental anguish, and leads to a decrease in self-control and increases the risk in negative practices (Einarsen et al., 2013). Because of the all-inclusiveness and hurtfulness of counterproductive work behaviors and workplace alienation, numerous researchers have given careful consideration to both these subjects. However, not many studies examine alienation and counterproductive work practices with this blend of variables. So, this study aims to focus on emotional intelligence as a variable that affects the relationship between workplace ostracism and counterproductive work practices.

Emotional competence or emotional intelligence is a generally new concept which alludes to one's capacity to recognize and direct emotional reactions (Bibi et al., 2013). People of high emotional fitness are said to be more mindful of their own sentiments and the feelings of others; they are more equipped to manage their own feelings (Laschinger et al., 2014), and probably better perceive the feelings of those who hurt them (Taylor et al., 2012). Along these lines, while encountering workplace incivility, people of high emotional skill may be more able to perceive the feelings of instigators and understand that some uncivil exchanges are simply fleeting articulations of pessimistic feelings and will respond with less adverse feelings. Further, as a sort of mental asset, researchers believe that emotional intelligence can cushion workers from the impact of taxing work demands (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). In this manner, while encountering workplace incivility, those with high emotional skill might understand the negative feelings that are inspired by their encounters and may recover more rapidly from the negative emotional state. Thus, it is likely that people of high emotional fitness are less likely to experience negative feelings in the workplace. In these circumstances, incivility is less likely to impede prosperity, and these workers are less likely to participate in uncivil practices or counterproductive work behaviors.

One of the aims of this study is to get an perspective on workplace conflicts. Though much research has been done on this topic in recent years, its operationalization is yet to be fully understood. For instance, a few studies depict it as an instance in which a worker tries to physically hurt a colleague (Ayoko et al., 2003). Another study characterizes workplace

conflicts as any type of conduct, exhibited by one or more individuals, that harms others in that workplace in ways that force the victims to maintain a strategic distance from them (Ilies et al., 2011). This sort of behavior is deliberate and results in mental and physical damage. Endeavors to harm others in the organizational context range from subtle and concealed activities to dramatic showdowns, pulverization of property, and direct physical animosity (Jaramillo et al., 2011). These types of behavior can include terrorizing others, impoliteness, taking revenge, psychological mistreatment, and oppression (Ilies et al., 2011). In this context, while encountering workplace incivility, those with high emotional fitness are more likely to be aware of their negative feelings and will recover more rapidly from their negative emotional state. Consequently, it is likely that people with higher emotional intelligence are less likely to experience pessimistic feelings in the wake of encountering workplace incivility, are less likely to reduce productivity, and will develop fewer uncivil practices or counterproductive work behaviors.

Harassment refers to an episode in which a worker is manhandled, undermined, or attacked in circumstances related to their work. The negative conduct – provocation, abuse, terrorizing, physical risk, and theft – can be exhibited by clients or colleagues at any level of the organization (Johnson & Spector, 2007). A study characterizes workplace assault as an act in which an individual endeavors to physically harm an associate (Avey et al., 2008). In the same manner, workplace assault is considered as any kind of conduct exhibited by one or more people in a workplace with the objective of hurting people in that workplace, such that the victims are inspired to stay away from them (Douglas et al., 2008). These behaviors are deliberate and evoke mental and physical harm. There are a range of acts that can be considered assault or harassment at the workplace (Lee et al., 2013). Workers can also hurt the administration of an organization through direct and subtle ways, from interrupting meetings and destroying property to direct physical strikes (Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Therefore, this type of provocation includes harassment, incivility, abuse of power, psychological mistreatment, and oppression (Hoel et al., 2002). Because of the comprehensiveness and destructiveness of counterproductive work behaviors and workplace ostracism, numerous studies have carefully considered both topics. However, not many studies have focused on harassment and counterproductive work practices with this mix of variables. So this study intends to concentrate on emotional insight as a mediating factor on harassment and counterproductive work behaviors.

Previous studies illustrate that the bosses at the workplace shape a negative and bullying environment. The moderating effect highlights the situational improbabilities (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) in the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors. Emotional intelligence (EMIT) is a major variable necessary for creating an effective workplace environment (Zeidner et al., 2004). EMIT is the ability of the human being to avail appropriate opportunities at the workplace to resolve occupational conflicts (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). EMIT is associated with the expressions, silence, and mannerisms required in different situations to improve the working environment as a whole (Cooper, 1997). Therefore, in the current study, it has been hypothesized that emotional intelligence is a moderator to the relationship between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors.

2.4.1. Ostracism and Job Burnout

Ostracism is an interpersonal stressor that can prompt mental trouble (Wu et al., 2012). Research has demonstrated that the pain experienced in the working environment can cause undesirable results, for example, life trouble, intention to quit, and poor physical well-being (Sulea et al., 2012). Subsequently, it is imperative to ponder upon the relationship between workplace ostracism and mental pain.

In addition, understanding how to adapt to ostracism is necessary on the grounds that powerful coping techniques may relieve the connections between ostracism and its negative results (Sulea et al., 2012). A typical behavior for adapting to alienation is ingratiation (Ronen & Baldwin, 2010). As a kind of social conduct, ingratiation is “an endeavor by people to expand their allure according to others” (Wang & Liu, 2013). This behavior includes emphasizing similarities, bootlicking, and doing favors for others (Yuanxia et al., 2015). This study concentrates on ingratiation, since it is an effective strategy usually connected at an underlying level with interpersonal collaboration in numerous settings (Yuanxia et al., 2015). In any case, the study proposes that the efficacy of behavioral systems has a tendency to fluctuate between people (Liu et al., 2014). All things considered, behavioral changes are frequently ineffectual in alleviating the undesirable impact of shunning; often, some approaches may even exacerbate the situation. Specialists have long tried to see how and why these strategies are powerful, but there is a lack of understanding on this topic (Tracy, 2009). This is especially the case for ingratiation, which requires the individual to have the capacity to perform appropriately in the work environment (Zimmerman et al., 2016).

Situational attributes include behaviors caused by some factors related to the situation (Goodboy et al., 2015). Work requests include physical, mental, social, or authoritative work and include that which require exertion or aptitude and are connected with certain physiological and mental expenses (Moodley, 1995). Studies have demonstrated that requests at work play an important role in burnout such as emotional requests, sexual favors (Sulea et al., 2012), and interpersonal clashes (Leiter, 2013). In a comparative vein, DeJuliis and Flinko (2016) contend that burnout will probably show up soon after confronting unfavorable behavior amongst people and in their work conditions.

Segregation among individuals in the workplace lead them to experience indifference and may cause clashes with others. Besides, there is an increased chance that this will prompt disappointment, a threatening environment, and decreased social support. The influenced individual will be more defenseless against burnout. Particularly, excessive interpersonal requests and working environment abuse, e.g., verbal harassment from individuals at work, appear to be indicators for burnout (Robinson et al., 2014). Working environment abuse is an expansive term covering a broad spectrum of physical and mental abuse among individuals in the work environment. This abuse additionally influences victims' home lives due to spillover effects (Livingston, 2014). This usually includes types of non-physical (social or mental) interpersonal abuse, oppressive supervision, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and undermining (Haq, 2014). Research has connected damaging non-physical non-cooperation with burnout symptoms like fatigue and negativity (Hauge et al., 2010). In the present study, we concentrate on five principle sorts of broken communications at work such as oppressive supervision, undermining, incivility, ostracism, and undesirable sexual advances.

2.4.2. Workplace Incivility and Job Burnout

Working environment incivility has received considerable attention in general and in research on stress (Zhou & Long, 2012). There are various reports of uncivil conduct in nursing and in social insurance settings, though few studies exist in the writing. Work environment incivility is characterized as a low-power conduct with a vague intent to hurt, infringing upon work environment standards for mutual professionalism. Uncivil practices are distinctively impolite and inconsiderate and show an absence of admiration for others (Scott & Duffy, 2015). The victims who experience incivility at work deliberately tend to decrease the amount of work they do, and in this way, decrease general productivity (Shabir et al., 2014). Additionally, work environment incivility tends to lead to diminished productivity and lack of job satisfaction (Matthiesen, 2006). The big connections amongst incivility, worker well-

being, prosperity, and intentions to quit are described (Kendall et al., 2000). In a study on medical attendants, it was found that work environment incivility was closely linked to feelings of being bullied by the manager and is linked to sentiments of work-related anxiety and the desire to quit (Carpenter & Berry, 2014). Chen et al. (2013) characterized burnout as a mental disorder causing fatigue, pessimism, and inefficacy, which arises in response to endless employment stressors (Schilpzand et al., 2014). Another study contended that burnout is characterized by energy depletion, skepticism, and inefficacy (Carpenter & Berry, 2014). Energy depletion is the main component of burnout, bringing about pessimism toward one's work and is associated with lower productivity (Blase & Blase, 2002; Xu, 2012). Another study connected elevated amounts of weariness to lower levels of work fulfillment (Paek et al., 2015). Furthermore, another study found that training and low burnout together caused more noteworthy employment fulfillment and better patient results (Maris, 2013). There are noteworthy connections between an employee's relationship with coworkers and managers and two key components of burnout (Ferreira, 2012). They found that backing from bosses accounted for 7% of the difference in emotional fatigue, while support from partners represented 9.6% of the fluctuation in skepticism.

Workplace incivility is connected with the worker's experience of dissatisfaction and is correlated with their ability to accomplish objectives (Deery et al., 2011). This disappointment can be seen as a type of occupation stress, created by environment stresses in addition to demands to take on more work. Representatives react to work stress with outrage and disappointment that tends to result in mental and physical strain (Tracy, 2009). Work stress is usually foreshadowed by the conduct and behaviors of employees who struggle with intellectual exertion and is identified with work anxieties and inadequate methods of coping (Yuanxia et al., 2015). Stress responses like antagonism, weariness, and energy depletion lead to lower productivity (Yanling et al., 2014). Overtime hours and increased workload are correlated with incivility and bad collaboration practices (Yanling et al., 2014).

2.4.3. Harassment and Job Burnout

Verbal harassment can range from having inconvenient to destructive consequences for workers (Deery et al., 2011). Studies propose that harassment is connected with greater uneasiness, higher rates of anxiety, and poorer job execution (Lambert et al., 2010). Victims will probably endure greater physical sickness and are more likely to take additional time off work (Miner-Rubino & Cortina, 2007). Hospital attendants are especially prone to burnout, and studies demonstrate that they every now and again face verbal abuse from supervisors

and doctors, which have clear adverse results for their own careers and for the organization (Laschinger et al., 2009). Thus, medical caretakers from ethnic minorities may require greater support compared to non-minority attendants to cope with the impact of verbal harassment and the resultant burnout and desire to quit. Giving workers elective projects can give them a chance to get away from the verbal animosity by pulling back from the organization and the wellspring of the abuse (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Harassment is said to bring about greater burnout and higher rates of staff sickness and rate of quitting (Lambert et al., 2012). Work burnout is a condition of physical and mental weariness which can leave people feeling depleted and baffled and drained of vitality (Fernet et al., 2013). It is an unmistakable type of anxiety in the workplace where continuous and regular contact with individuals can bring about tension and dissatisfaction and feelings of exhaustion. Harassment is liable to have a less negative impact on productivity if workers trust that the organization will control or restrict the offensive conduct (Deery et al., 2011). Compelling changes in the organization's hierarchy can lessen sentiments of unfairness and hatred among workers. If an organization takes action against an offensive employee, it not only checks the culprit, but also helps mitigate the bitterness and hurt of other employees (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b). When an organization shows a readiness to rein in an oppressive executive or partner, or to challenge the conduct of a threatening client or customer, victims may feel that they have some control over their work environment. Then again, if workers feel that the organization will endure or support the harassment, and they if they feel that the hostility is likely to continue unchecked, then this is more likely to affect productivity (Dierendonck et al., 1994). Indeed, victims may feel that the only way to shield themselves from injurious conduct is to leave the place of employment (Hoobler et al., 2010). The poor treatment of workers by bosses specifically can make employees lose their trust in the capacity of the organization to control mistreatment in the work environment (Giorgi et al., 2015). Feeling defenselessness in the face of unfriendly or damaging conduct can force people to investigate exit options. Specifically, ethnic minorities tend to face a greater share of harassment and frequently do not have the assets to stop that harassment (Astrauskaitė et al., 2010). Due to this increased powerlessness, it is likely that minorities would depend more intensely on the protective measures offered by organizations. The study incorporated demographic qualities as controls, including sexual orientation, business status, ethnicity, age, and employment status. Past investigation has demonstrated that those at higher risk of burnout tend to be female, full-time workers, and workers from minority ethnic groups, while more seasoned workers and those with a longer history in the organization tend to experience lower burnout (Rospenda, 1999). A greater

desire to quit was seen in female representatives and those from an ethnic minority. In addition, younger workers, those with lesser experience, and those who received lower wages are more likely to experience burnout (Deery & Guest, 2011).

2.4.4. Interpersonal Conflicts and Job Burnout

Conflict regularly goes with negative emotions such as feelings of inadequacy, outrage, tension, apprehension, and debilitation. Strife demonstrates the strength of an individual's belief in his/her own convictions (Fujiwara et al., 2003). It is seen as a necessary component of a working environment. When conflicts become common in a work environment, the level of morale tends to dip, absenteeism becomes common, and productivity is profoundly diminished (Leiter & Maslach, 1988)

Since the 1980s, job burnout was measured by the Maslach burnout inventory (MBI) as a standard scale, and Maslach given the most persuasive definition on this concept. He defines job burnout as a set of mental signs which include long-term responses to employment stressors with three characteristics: depersonalization, energy depletion, and lower productivity (Maslach et al, 2010). Personal connections are needed when dealing with the organization's administration or customer, fatigue includes an absence of vitality and passion, and the individual may have a self-reported lower sense of achievement (Wisniewski & Gargiulo, 1997).

In the current age, diverse organizations of various sizes play an important role in individuals' lives, and numerous people spend an essential piece of their time in organizations (De Dreu et al., 2004). The struggle is actually only one part of human life and has accompanied humans through history. Stories of struggle can be found in the heavenly Quran – stories of the great and underhanded, right and wrong, equality and oppression, light and darkness, and stories like that of Moses and the Pharaoh, Yusuf and his siblings, and the Partners of the Hollow (Ok, 2009). Even if human life and struggle have developed like two siblings, researchers have been focusing on strife only in the more recent decades in spite of its oldness in human life. In this vein, organizations can also productively develop contentions and differences. The presence of various individuals with their own identities, needs, convictions, qualities, desires, and levels of understanding have brought on unavoidable clashes in associations. On the other hand, the structure of these organizations and their inflexible managerial framework has cleared the ground for all sorts of strains, clashes and incompatibilities. Such clashes are uncovered in various ways – for example,

they take the form of rivalries, debates, restrictions, disagreements, and battles among people and groups. Though numerous individuals consider clashes and differences negatively, if they are carefully controlled and supervised, they can transform into a useful and positive exercise (Islam et al., 2012). From one perspective, the relations among individuals in an organization are organized hierarchically. The culture set by the top administration affects workers' general perceptions of their working environment, their formal and casual relationships, their identities and needs, and the structure of the organization (van Dierendonck & Mevissen, 2002). To lead their operations, organizations require a set of ethical mandates. Notwithstanding, authorities are responsible for their workers not just in terms of their managerial practices and activities, but they also need to coordinate between employees and ensure that they are integrated into the group, and that the group as a whole works well. Generally, authority figures acknowledge the role they play in the organization. Organizations should have a lawful and professional environment. Appreciating correct conduct is an imperative of those in authority (De Dreu et al., 2004). A good organization should take into consideration its employees' mental and physical well-being as well as their productivity and efficiency. The obligation of an organization is not simply to increase revenues or profit, but the directors of such organizations should realize that an administration cannot accomplish anything without paying attention to its workers' psychological wellness. Thus, it is not a long shot to say that each able, informed, and legitimate administrator should consider the workers' psychological well-being in his/her organization. Directors ought to demonstrate their interest in utilizing the principles and ideas of emotional wellness in the working environment. By ensuring emotional well-being in the work environment, one spares employees mental anxieties and behavioral dysfunctions caused by sickness (Baruch-Feldman et al., 2002). According to recent research in neuroscience, disappointment and weariness is caused in office-goers by job burnout (Spooner-Lane & Patton, 2007). Job burnout suppresses the force of an individual's personality because of stressors and emotional and physical disappointments (Winstanley & Whittington, 2002). Moreover, job burnout happens because of consistent mental stress. Mental stress happens when there is no harmony between the demands made on an individual and the individual's capacity to react to them. At the point when people are overstretched by job demands and burdens and cannot react to them, mental stress would lead to job burnout (Winstanley & Whittington, 2002). Since job burnout causes administrations to lose clients/customers and restricts workers' abilities to serve them, perceiving and avoiding job burnout can be assumed to be a fundamental part of advancing the emotional well-being of

individuals and increasing the organization's quality (Maslach, 2000). Job burnout is exceptionally common today – it can diminish the quality of work and harm the national economy. It jeopardizes the general public in all measures (Zohar, 1997). Those individuals who endure job burnout do not just suffer in silence, but are more likely to cause problems for others and risk their emotional well-being and job security. The vital point is that those people who work excessively and even on holidays are more likely to endure job burnout (De Dreu & Beersma, 2005). Individuals with job burnout experience ill-effects such as migraines, restlessness, mental disturbances, disappointment in conjugal life, uneasiness, dejection, hypertension, and so forth (Crane & Iwanicki, 1986). The primary cause of job burnout is the mental tension from working long hours. Lack of engagement at work, mismatch between the individual's capacity and the job profile, and lack of physical fitness could thus lead individuals to job burnout (Zellars et al., 2004).

2.5.1. Ostracism and Counterproductive Work Behavior

The literature describes workplace ostracism as social alienation in the workplace and distancing from one's work (Zhao et al., 2013). It denies the worker a sense of purpose and makes them feel that they are unworthy of consideration (Hitlan & Noel, 2009). Thus, being alienated by others, it may diminish the worker's feeling of belonging and their loyalty to the organization. An organization's human capital is said to be its most critical asset for guaranteeing its success as a neighborhood, provincial, national, or even worldwide commercial enterprise. Consequently, it makes sense that organizations would go out of their way to build a sense of belonging amongst its employees, particularly given the positive connection between integration, workers' mental well-being, organizational structure, duty, and efficiency (Hitlan & Noel, 2009). However, little research has particularly analyzed workers' avoidance of the work environment. Drawing on past studies exploring social ostracism (Berry et al., 2012) and leadership behavior (Kwok et al., 2005), we characterize working environment avoidance as the degree to which an individual (or group) perceives themselves as being rejected, disregarded, or shunned by another individual (or group) inside their workplace. One essential presumption fundamental to this definition is that such conduct often impedes one's capacity to finish those assignments required for effective job execution.

This study has two essential objectives. The first is to look at the connection between work environment avoidance and negative work practices. As depicted below, one vital idea in attempting to understand how alienation functions in a workplace is to study the wellspring of

the rejection e.g., bosses. A second objective is to better examine the direct impact of work alienation on work conduct (Hitlan et al., 2006).

As expressed, the point of this study is to better comprehend the remarkable impact of alienation and identity on counterproductive work practices. In particular, the study looks at how a worker's view of being restricted by different colleagues or bosses is related to interpersonal and authoritative counterproductive work practices (Neuman & Baron, 2005).

As a rule, CWB is characterized as, "an arrangement of volitional acts that damage or expect to mischief associations and their partners e.g., customers, collaborators, clients, and administrators" (Yan et al., 2014). Accordingly, CWB includes an extensive variety of practices from taking stretched-out breaks to taking to physical brutality.

Despite the fact that there are various obviously particular acts that can be considered under the umbrella term CWB (Einarsen et al., 2011), research has focused on those practices connected with interpersonal conflicts – contending with others and authority figures, stealing – as measures of CWB. Besides, the literature has not particularly examined how one's personality can influence alienation and its results. In addition, this study examines workplace ostracism and CWB by looking at how the wellsprings of rejection – collaborators and bosses – influence particular sorts of CWB.

We start by quickly looking into whether avoidance at the workplace has been studied by organizational analysts. Next, we use the most applicable social-mental examination to look at how social alienation impacts states of mind and practices. Given our focus on workplace connections, we depend on social trade and social personality theories to help explain particular predictions about the connections between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behavior. In particular, the emphasis here, in this dissertation, is on how one's identity is linked to the effect of alienation on CWB.

As indicated by the belongingness hypothesis (Hauge et al., 2010), individuals have an intrinsic need to belong to feel that they are working toward a purpose greater than oneself. Research shows that being rejected can have a negative impact on one's mental state. When one's need to belong is denied, individuals try to reaffirm their feeling of self-esteem and importance (Hitlan & Noel, 2009).

Alienation, either genuine or fake, is related to a large number of negative emotional states including bitterness, depression, envy, blame/disgrace, shame, and social tension (Thau et al.,

2015). Research demonstrates an immediate connection between rejection and a need to restrict future contact with the rejecters (Renn et al., 2013), diminished routine practices, diminished self-control and motivation, and weakened emotional state (Ferris et al., 2015). Rejection may diminish an individual's self-control and may direct the individual's energy to unhealthy habits that are not in the individual's interests nor in line with more long-term practices needed for the organization's success (Carpenter & Berry, 2014). Such a movement has been observed in research on trade relations and commercial organizations. Therefore, when a worker feels alienated, he/she may develop negative behaviors – increased animosity and aggression – which will be to the long-term detriment of the organization's representatives (Ferris et al., 2012). However, alienation in the workplace has been found to arise from certain instigators in the work environment, including incivility, abuse, non-cooperation, and harassment. Given this, and the potential significance of alienation for one's prosperity, there remains a gap in the research with regards to how precisely to avoid the effects of counterproductive work behaviors.

2.5.2. Workplace Incivility and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Workplace deviant behaviors have remained the center of analysts' focus for a long time. These practices have been considered from different points of view, both according to their results and their causes (Bibi et al., 2013). Negative practices, on the one hand, ruin organization culture, and on the other, bring down the motivation of workers (Penney & Spector, 2005). At first, this study aims to explore various sources of counterproductive work behaviors, including various sorts of abuse – for example, harassment, abuse, hostility, and incivility (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). In any case, incivility has risen in popularity as a topic of consideration for organization analysts (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010). Andersson and Pearson (1999) characterize incivility as “low force negative conduct with questionable aim to hurt the objective, infringing upon work environment standards for shared admiration. Uncivil practices are viewed as typically inconsiderate and rude, showing an absence of respect for others” (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Incivility is less intense than animosity, but is more common in workplace relationships (Spector & Fox, 2010). The most widely recognized uncivil practices are disparaging others, censoring, making demeaning remarks, showing a lack of concern for workers' sentiments, overlooking an associate, and bullying (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Despite the fact that incivility is at the lower end of the work environment abuse continuum, it cannot be ignored considering the overwhelming effects it has for the organization as a whole (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Analysts have observed that

in the working environment, incivility has effects on profitability and job satisfaction; they have also correlated it with non-attendance, lateness, and intention to quit (Robinson, 2008). As indicated by a few studies, work environment incivility prompts more aggressive practices (Duffy et al., 2010). Andersson and Pearson (1999) have additionally contended that incivility can draw a comparable response from others in the group or may make such practices part of the organization's culture. It may make the idea that incivility incites greater honesty on the part of the other party more common. Such circumstances could rapidly lead to counterproductive work behavior, which may bring about animosity or aggression. There are a few studies that have concentrated on the connection between incivility and counterproductive work behavior (Wei & Si, 2013). Yet, none of the studies, to the best of our knowledge, have attempted to uncover the moderating role of emotional intelligence in this connection. The present study plans to fill this gap in the literature by testing the effect of the moderating variable emotional intelligence on the relationship between incivility and CWB in the context of Pakistan. In addition, studies on higher education institutions concentrate chiefly on less educated or managerial staff (Liu et al., 2009). This study examines staff in advanced educational establishments of Pakistan. By studying college instructors, the study aims to uncover the role that incivility may play in higher educational organizations. The incivility that instructors face influences their capacity to instruct and influence an undergraduate's learning (Atwater & Elkins, 2009). All troublesome behavior that can be categorized as incivility must be tended to before these practices transform into animosity and jeopardize the educational institution (Meier & Semmer, 2013). Unfortunately, numerous stakeholders including employees and less educated and regulatory staff are uninformed about the negative impact of their conduct on others. In addition, they are not very well-equipped to handle and/or manage such difficult circumstances. Though previous studies have focused on classroom incivility from the students' perspective, the present study aims to break down the impact of incivility regardless of whether the instigators or the targets are from the faculty. Incivility in higher educational organizations is an immediate concern that should be addressed immediately. The present study was proposed to fill this gap in the literature by studying incivility and CWB amongst the workforce in higher education institutions. Counterproductive work behavior includes fundamentally willful or purposeful actions that could hurt the functioning of the organization either directly or in a roundabout way by harming other employees, which would resultantly decrease their productivity (Porath & Erez, 2007). Spector et al. (2006) have described five features of CWB: (a) misuse: practices that can be destructive physically or mentally (Schilpzand et al., 2014) – these

include making insulting remarks about a colleague or decreasing the productivity of an organization; (b) damage: destroying the physical property of the association i.e., undermining the physical working environment of the organization (c) unproductivity: practices that demolish the efficiency of the workplace (d) burglary: results from financial need, work disappointment, or foul play; it can be considered a type of animosity against the organization (Grandey, 2008; Wu et al., 2014) and (e) withdrawal: working fewer hours than expected that hinders the organization in achieving its goals. Physical damage and deviant behavior has an immediate effect, while the withdrawal of workers indirectly affects the working of the organization (Goh, 2006). The jobholders may exhibit counterproductive work behaviors as an emotional response (Tucker et al., 2009).

2.5.3. Workplace Harassment and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Abusive male employees regularly use job obstruction strategies to maintain control and keep their victims from going to work (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b). Male accomplices regularly irritate their peers at work (Sackett, 2002). Women may look for support from the organization or from colleagues with respect to episodes of harassment in the workplace (Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Hauge et al., 2009). Though the support given by bosses can help decrease harassment in the workplace, women are now and again censured by managers for raising the alarm, and they are at risk of losing their jobs (Martinko et al., 2002). No detailed studies have been done to investigate why this happens or to find out if confrontations regarding workplace harassment correlate with business-related censuring (Saunders et al., 2007). Research on workplace harassment is moderately new (Sheridan & O'Sullivan, 2003). The study by Saunders et al. (2007) was germinal to this study. Low (2012) proposed that there is a correlation between the support offered by bosses and productivity in the workplace – for example, the business obstruction strategies women experience because of male accomplices requires further investigation. Research on interpersonal work environment harassment is moderately new (Ontiveros, 1993; Richman et al., 2001). Interpersonal workplace harassment is a type of counterproductive behavior between individuals in an organization (Lewis et al., 2002). Interpersonal workplace harassment can be related to one's home, social, or work spheres (Ehrenreich, 1999). A few employees who faced interpersonal workplace harassment in the hands of directors or colleagues have resigned or have been fired from their positions (Ehrenreich, 1999). This study investigates the feelings of these women with respect to workplace harassment and interpersonal harassment. The definitions used in this study exposes data that was earlier kept

a mystery with regard to workplace harassment by male accomplices and bosses (Lewis et al., 2002). Trust is needed to empower employees and reasonable expectations are needed to finish the assignment (Claybourn, 2011). Interpersonal workplace harassment on the part of authority figures and colleagues, including bosses, colleagues, or workplace groups, includes coordinated, deliberate, progressive, and negative practices targeting particular employees in the workplace (Rayner & Cooper, 2006). Gender-based harassment occurs usually by male job holders on female job holders (Herbert, 1997). This also includes passing comments that will harm an individual or evoke sentiments of dread and sadness (Glass, 1988). Workplace harassment is a job obstruction strategy that male colleagues use and includes physical, verbal, emotional, and monetary threats that impact women at home or in the workplace (Glass, 1988). Particularly the previous studies regarding Pakistan highlighted that higher job stress and lower job satisfaction result in greater absenteeism (Shahzad et al. 2011). Thus, the influence of harassment may result in counterproductive behaviors because when work expectations are not comfortable, but harassing the reluctance to complete work tasks goes up (Patton 2008). This is also likely to be the case in Pakistan, where findings show, for example, that employees who felt their salaries were lower than other employees despite their higher qualifications were also discouraged and increased their absenteeism (Habib 2010).

2.5.4. Interpersonal Conflicts and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Interpersonal conflict alludes to struggles between workers (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). Any kind of conflict can be categorized as interpersonal conflict. Appelberg et al. (1991) found that interpersonal conflict is fundamentally characterized by antagonistic feeling. Workplace conflict, like incivility, is present but is of lesser intensity. Interpersonal conflicts are caused by impolite or rude practices (Spector & Jex, 1998). Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) found, through self-reports, that when an individual experiences interpersonal conflicts, he or she is more likely to exhibit counterproductive work behaviors.

2.5.5. Job Burnout, Workplace Ostracism and Counterproductive Work Behavior

After considering the variables associated with anxiety, a few hypothetical models have been proposed which have been listed below. Some of these models have gotten empirical support: the Interest–Control Model (Theorell and Karasek, 1996), the Exertion–Reward Unevenness Model (Siegrist, 1996), and the Interest–Aptitudes–Bolster Model (van Veldhoven et al., 2005). The greater part of these models includes various dependent and independent variables that influence how individuals cope with circumstances and work demands. These variables

combine in various approaches to produce stress, prompting undesirable outcomes such as burnout, disease, quitting, or participating in counterproductive conduct. A few studies have underlined the connections between specific sorts of anxiety and counterproductive work behavior (O'Boyle et al., 2011). In this way, Spector & Jex (1998) investigate the relation between restrictions at work and counterproductive work behavior. Chang and Lyons (2012) have highlighted the vital connection between cooperation, conflict, organization structure, work conditions, and interpersonal counterproductive conduct.

2.5.6. Job Burnout, Workplace Incivility and Counterproductive Work Behavior

The findings of this study demonstrate that there is a positive relation between incivility and distinctive aspects of CWB (Schilpzand et al., 2014). Numerous researchers have categorized workplace incivility as a workplace stressor or deviant behavior and CWB as an emotional reaction to incivility (van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). Different individuals react to – and adapt to – the uncivil environment in unexpected ways even in Pakistani context. The seriousness of their reactions eventually decide the extent to which they may harm the organization. Among the different kinds of counterproductive work behaviors, withdrawal was observed to be the most pervasive reaction among the faculty to uncivil treatment. This finding reinforces the conclusions of past studies that have observed that withdrawal is the behavior that most employees adopt while managing workplace incivility (Aryee et al., 2008). They get even by working less, getting to work late, and taking long breaks. Workers resort to these behaviors keeping in mind the end goal of abstaining from confronting stressful circumstances and dealing with their anxiety (Sakurai & Jex, 2012).

2.5.7. Job Burnout, Workplace Harassment and Counterproductive Work Behavior

The problem with incivility is that it is not always clear to the instigator, target, or witness if the behavior is intentional or if the instigator really intends to harm the victim (Law et al., 2011). Conversely, Podsakoff et al., (2007) say that while unintended incivility can be destructive, it is not an area of focus for research on CWB. In particular, research on CWB focuses on volitional behavior that damages or intends to hurt the organization's interests (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). To be clear, while intention can be ambiguous in case of uncivil behaviors, CWB is a deliberate negative workplace behavior (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b). The second difference between incivility and CWB is the objective of the behavior.

Research on counterproductive work behavior differentiates between behavior directed against the organization and interpersonal types of CWB (Leiter et al., 2011). Conversely, incivility research studies impolite behaviors that are coordinated within a group and are thus interpersonal in nature. Harassment is usually associated with job burnout and leads to counterproductive work behaviors. For many years sexual harassment was not taken into account in Pakistan because there were no particular laws against it. Moreover, the Protection Against Harassment of Women at Workplace Bill (2010) was passed in Pakistan to make harassment illegal. The intent of this bill is to create a better working environment for women (i.e., free from harassment, abuse, and intimidation). Yet, despite Pakistan's anti-sexual harassment law, Pakistani working women still experience rampant sexual harassment (Mangi 2011; Noreen and Awan 2011; Savitha 2010). This is partly because many Pakistanis do not consider harassment as a serious social issue and to some extent deny its presence. Due to a lack of support mechanisms, targets of harassment in Pakistan are, to a large extent, ignored (Savitha 2010).

2.5.8. Job Burnout, Interpersonal Conflicts and Counterproductive Work Behavior

In the previous studies, a few speculations and models attempted to clarify the essential variables which relate to work stress and energy depletion and lead to positive and negative behavioral results in workplaces (Balducci et al., 2012). Interpersonal conflicts attest that negative feelings, i.e., irritation, encourages deviant behaviors, while positive feelings (i.e., positive effect) have a tendency to encourage loyalty and commitment toward the organization. Fundamentally, in case of a natural setting, the feeling and behavior model is more applicable (Spector & Fox, 2002). In addition, presented with positive occasions, a worker is more likely to exhibit positive behavior. On the premise of this model, work stress accentuates negative feelings, and with it the probability of negative behaviors increases. O'Brien's (2008) stressor-strain model states that organizational stressors, followed by personality, especially characteristic-specific feelings and traits, initially influence organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and deviant behaviors. Thus, this influences workplace stressors and strains (Golparvar et al., 2012). Burnout affects workers' motivation and the organization's success (Golparvar et al., 2012). This study hypothesizes that employees encounter burnout will show more unproductive behaviors. Besides, it is likely that workers in stressed situations and more likely to have troublesome mental conditions, leading to more unsatisfied, unmotivated, and despondent employees. Another model for

clarifying the basic component that influences the connection between occupation stress and emotional fatigue and positive and negative behavioral results at workplaces is the anxiety–non-harmony–remuneration approach (Golparvar et al., 2012). According to this model, stress initially instigates a destabilizing effect in the human framework, and after that it propels them to try to get back the past balance. A few people, while trying to restore harmony, encounter contrary feelings – e.g., energy depletion – and will develop deviant behaviors. According to this model, when occupation stress and emotional depletion are high, the employee’s sense of responsibility and imagination will diminish. This study focuses on the anxiety–non-balance–remuneration approach. There are some other studies that have shown the connections between employment stress and energy depletion, and deviant behaviors and lack of innovation and responsibility (Appelberg et al., 1991). There is a relationship between workers’ emotional disappointment in managers’ leadership styles and employees’ negative behaviors. Additionally, it found that negative behaviors are likely to increase with pressure, physical strain, exhaustion, and burnout (Spector & Jex, 1998). Another study examined the impact of fatigue on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) by using two measures of OCB proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Cropanzano et al., (2003) found that emotional weariness influenced OCB. In another study, Fodchuk (2007) concentrated on the relationship between malevolence, burnout, and OCBs. They reported an adverse relation between OCB and a sense of individual achievement and between benevolence and emotional fatigue (Golparvar et al., 2012). In a study, Konovsky (1989) has likewise investigated the relationship between burnout and organizational citizenship behavior. They determined OCBs across three categories, including interpersonal citizenship efficiency, hierarchical citizenship efficiency, and errand/work citizenship efficiency. They discovered adverse relationships between OCBs and emotional weariness and lower individual productivity. One more study investigated the relation between positive and negative behaviors and inferred that employment stress and emotional fatigue are variables that influence these behaviors (Jaramillo et al., 2011). O’ Brien (2008), on the premise of the stressor-strain model, understood that OCBs and negative behaviors are influenced by stressors, including interpersonal conflicts, low interactional equity, excessive work demands, and negative organizational culture (Jaramillo et al., 2011). Also, the workers’ personality and attribution styles influence the measure of these stressors. Hershcovis and Barling (2010), in a meta-investigation, showed that different interpersonal behaviors are linked to the employees’ productivity, compensation pattern, attrition rate, and absenteeism. Likewise, counterproductive behaviors were observed to be adversely linked to profitability,

proficiency, diminished costs, consumer loyalty, and unit-level turnover (Krischer et al., 2010). Likewise, studies have uncovered that stress and counterproductive work behaviors due to workplace conflicts require more time and energy to address substantially (Friedman et al., 2000). Some studies have demonstrated that conflicts impact employees' emotional state (Spector et al., 2006). Generally, positive encounters fortify the worker's emotional balance, leading to greater intuition and motivation in workers (Balducci et al., 2011). In this manner, some studies on organizational behavior have further demonstrated that there is a negative critical relationship between occupation stress and interpersonal conflicts with productive behaviors and the relationship between employment stress and energy depletion with deviant behaviors (Yang & Diefendorff, 2009; Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Moreover, a study uncovered that occupation stress and emotional exhaustion are connected with deviant behaviors (Sonnetag et al., 2013). In another study, it was found that emotional balance was adversely connected with occupational anxiety and negative behaviors and was positively connected to innovation and productive work behaviors (Hogh et al., 2011). The study also uncovered that emotional intelligence influences the relation between stress with unproductive behaviors (Bulutlar & Öz, 2009). This study concentrates on the mediating effect of job burnout on the relationship between interpersonal conflicts at work and counterproductive work behaviors.

2.6.1. Workplace Ostracism between WCWs and BCWs

In the cultural context of Pakistan, the industrial worker is often contrasted to the clerical laborer or salaried class. In Pakistani culture, the salaried worker is seen as somebody whose objective is to be a productive employee paying little heed to the effect on his work on his family. The worker is expected to focus on individual satisfaction, so that organization ranks higher than the family in the worker's priorities (Soylu, 2011).

In Pakistan, white collar workers are for the most part university taught, while blue collar workers ordinarily just have secondary school education or have gone to an exchange or vocational institution. Before World War II, most blue collar workers typically just had an ordinary primary school education or a senior grade school certificate (Royster, 2003). In the same way now in Pakistan, physical laborers were censured as "unscholarly" and "substandard".

Japanese blue collar workers work 40 hours a week from 9 am to 5 pm with infrequent extra hours of work. White collar workers may work more than 12 hours a day or 60 hours a week

and can invest the most part of their energy working and driving to work, and additionally may stay at their place of employment for longer (Giorgi et al., 2013). White collar workers may once in a while have leisure time with family or friends and can be seen as lacking in family life (Hogan, 2001). Research demonstrates that work demands can affect the physical and mental state of a worker (Roberts, 1990).

Instances of death by overwork and suicide caused by workaholic behavior have been reported in Pakistan. Only a little portion of these cases are that of blue collar workers.

2.6.2. Workplace Incivility in White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

The conduct can be seen as exchanges in which people trade ideas politely with the specific end goal of promoting peace in the workplace (Chadha, 2007). These emotionally assuaging and forgiving exchanges help diffuse danger in these social situations (Roscigno et al., 2009). As indicated by research on organizational behavior, observing codes of conduct and rules and regulations is the best way to avoid hurting the pride of others. This can help forestall hostile conduct so that there is no need to apologize to diffuse the situation. Previous research utilizes a “dramaturgical viewpoint” to depict how one trusts the crowd around them. According to different contexts, the dramaturgical point of view depicts how individuals project an image of themselves that they might want others around them to accept (Roscigno et al., 2009). Also, the accomplishment of an individual’s goal implies that they have performed adequately to accomplish it. Sutton states that individuals cannot see the full picture that accompanies up close and personal connection (Giorgi et al., 2013). This includes the misconceptions individuals carry about each other’s work loads and their physical work settings, “So individuals create fragmented, and regularly excessive negative assessments of each other” (Terlicki, 2011) Job titles are not by any means the only thing that gives individuals power to demand higher payments. The bigger the gap between various pay scales, the greater likelihood of harassment. At the point when the gap between the highest and least paid individuals in an organization or group decreases, a large number of good things happen, including enhanced money-related execution, better item quality, improved quality inspections, and in baseball groups, a superior win-misfortune record (Brandes et al., 2007). These studies underpin the theory that good conduct is necessary in a desk job for the success of the individual worker as well as for the organization overall. Be that as it may, what is viewed as great behavior, according to those with great influence? This can buck the general view of what is viewed as “great behavior”. Researchers have pointed out that in the

past it was customary to avoid people from specific groups as in Pakistan people avoid to be the part of those groups which exhibit negative behaviors (Anjum & Parvez, 2013).

2.6.3. Interpersonal Conflicts between White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

Interpersonal conflicts and organizational culture are among the most commonly noted employment stressors in organizations (Frone et al., 1992), and as a job stressor, interpersonal conflicts are connected to antagonistic feelings, which have been found to correlate with different types of CWB (Appelberg et al., 1991).

A plethora of studies has proposed distinct variables to identify different types of CWB, and sexual orientation is one of them. The relationship between male and female workers is well documented – males demonstrate aggressive behaviors more than females (Kanai & Wakabayashi, 2001). Since these individual variables have been identified with CWB, and investigated gender and sexual orientation (Wright & Hamilton, 1978). In the literature, numerous individual variables have been compared to identify different types of CWB, and organizational structure is one of them. The relationship in terms of organizational context between blue and white collar jobholders has been elaborated (Smith, 1996).

This study investigates the most prevalent conduct among salaried employees. This study endeavors to add to our understanding of behavior and how it can be influenced in the workplace. It adds to our understanding of how today's strains in Pakistan higher education institutions affect workplace communications. The positive behavior characterized in this study are practices that are viewed as attractive and legitimate by specialists, and for the most part, are acknowledged by those in powerful positions in the workplaces and in society. Poor behaviors are those that conflict with or overlook the accepted behaviors (Kinnunen et al., 2004).

2.6.4. Workplace Harassment between White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

The aim of this study is to review the literature on how workplace unfairness, ostracism, provocation, mishandling, and abuse may add to work-related counterproductive behaviors (Shapiro, 1990). Historic and current societal forces inside and outside the workplace can bring about the abuse of workers (independently or as a group) through unjustifiable practices (Gruber & Bjorn, 1982). It is hypothesized that the abuse of workers in the workplace may intensify differences between groups of laborers. Generally, an immediate and roundabout manifestation of workplace perfidies causes counterproductive work behaviors. The literature contains a diverse collection of work on workplace foul play at various levels; a large number

of these studies are not connected to the well-being of workers. Our review was limited to papers that present proof of the connection of workplace treachery to work-related counterproductive behaviors (Mansfield et al., 1991). Our study drove us to propose a reasonable structure to present the different connections recommended by our initial review of harassment at the workplace its association with counterproductive work behaviors.

Workplace harassment is different from ostracism since it includes negative behaviors toward a worker because of his or her traits including race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and so on. This leads to an antagonistic workplace. Segregation, on the other hand, includes unequal treatment or limiting the opportunities available to a worker because of their traits (Tuch & Martin, 1991). Provocation involves the targeting of a worker in an organization to hold on to power (McCabe & Hardman, 2005). Inappropriate behavior is a kind of workplace harassment that is commonly carried out along sexual orientation/sex lines (McCabe & Hardman, 2005). A research study outlined four sorts of lewd behavior – sexist conduct, sexual threatening, undesirable sexual advances, and sexual intimidation. Sexist practices include activities in which one's gender or sex is the essential focus of segregation (Flske & Glick, 1995). This broad definition can make the line between sexism and provocation blurry. The other three depict encounters that are more physical and sexual in nature.

2.6.5. Job Burnout between White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

From a hypothetical perspective, examining the feelings of workers may be significant to comprehend the results of unpleasant exchanges and workplace abuse (ToppinenTanner et al., 2002). Along these lines, feelings are key to comprehending individuals' responses at work (Schreurs et al., 2010). Research on victimology has demonstrated that harassment at work might be experienced as an injury and, all things considered, may produce serious emotional responses such as apprehension, nervousness, and shock, and, in addition, may deter the objective of generating positive emotions (Schreurs et al., 2010). Studies have demonstrated that feelings of uneasiness, dread, resentment, vulnerability, and touchiness are common after the experience of being harassed (Cameron et al., 1991). Moreover, in an Irish study, harassment was found to result in abnormal amounts of uneasiness and despondency. Väänänen et al., (2004) observed a college in the UK and reported that victims tend to feel disgrace (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Additionally, feelings of sadness, powerlessness, resentment, uneasiness, and despondency are common among the harassed, and such sentiments appear to be common to victims across the board irrespective of sexual orientation, position, and age (Van den Broeck et al., 2008). Positive feelings likewise appear

to diminish with workplace harassment (Rees & Cooper, 1992). In accordance with this view, a study examining the connection between upsetting incidents and positive and negative dispositions among white collar workers demonstrated that stressors strengthened their negative emotional state while diminishing the power of their positive outlook (Hennequin, 2007). Another study shows that victims of harassment reported much lesser job satisfaction compared to non-victims. Both negative and positive feelings are associated with harassing someone, and most studies report that the instigator feels intense emotional states after abusing someone (Landsbergis, 1988). However, these studies fail to note the impact that these feelings may have on the victims' mentality and consequently their conduct.

2.6.6. Counterproductive Work Behaviors between White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

Five qualities are common to every job including skills, aptitude, willingness to take up responsibility, independence, and the ability to give and receive criticism (Collins & Schmidt, 1993). Various factors influence the employees' association with the work itself, for example, their relation with collaborators and bosses and the organizational culture (Bayram et al., 2009). Jobs are ordered and categorized into various classes, groups, or families as per a precise blueprint which clarifies the role played by each group of workers to achieve particular goals. This organizational structure depends on hierarchical levels of power, innovation, employee conduct, and the job role. Moreover, this structure can be broadly categorized thus: i) white collar jobs (administrative staff and executives) and, ii) manual jobs (the physical and plant workers) (Fox et al., 2012). Salaried jobs include performing non-manual work that is managing data but not the things. These job roles require experience and educational qualifications (Bruursema et al., 2011). Employees who perform these roles are called professionals and bear work titles like bookkeepers, investors, lawyers, phone operators, administrators, agents, experts, and managers (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Industrial workers perform manual work that requires physical effort (Anjum & Parvez, 2013). These jobs require experts who are formally trained and qualified like specialists, mechanics, engineers, circuit-testers, and auxiliary laborers. Hands-on occupations can likewise be performed by low-skilled individuals who are assigned straightforward errands, for example cleaning, support, and mechanical production work (Nonis & Swift, 2001). The job titles given to these industrial laborers change according to the sectors where these workers are employed; their roles additionally vary according to their job titles. Their essential duty is to

guarantee the best possible utilization of organizational assets with the goal of increasing the organization's profitability (Marcus & Schuler, 2004).

Blue collar and white collar employees vary on the basis of their job roles and their conduct – white collar workers receive higher incomes and industrial workers receive lower-paid jobs (Davis, 1991). Both tend to value different parts of their careers – white collar employees generally tend to value the inherent nature of their job, though industrial workers attach greater value to extraneous perspectives, for example to rewards or professional stability (Jensen & Patel, 2011). It has been observed that the key motivational variables for blue collar workers are extraneous factors such as employer stability and bonuses. Professionals value inherent parts of their jobs like independence and the importance of the work (Gruys & Sackett, 2003). Workers report that the aim is to come late and leave early, take longer breaks, skip responsibilities, engage in vandalism, and take frequent leaves. These behaviors have been seen more in manual laborers – they are typically less fulfilled, are more contentious, and have poor interpersonal relationships compared to their white collar counterparts (van der Heijden et al., 2012). White collar employees tend to engage in minor wrongdoings as a result of strict social and work standards (Anjum & Parvez, 2013).

2.6.7. Emotional Intelligence between White Collar and Blue Collar Job Holders

Emotional intelligence skills, expression evaluation, and emotion are contained and used in emotional management. The first factor to determine emotional intelligence is the ability to properly express feelings as well as to be compassionate and be able to assess the emotions of others. Clearly, people are unique in their abilities to identify differences in the expressions of emotions experienced by others as well as in appraising their own feelings. Some people cannot express their feelings and emotions, some can express their feelings, and some still are unaware of their feelings. There are positive relationships among the feelings of highly skilled individuals because high emotional intelligence leads to efficient work performance and a high level of belief in oneself, both individually and in a team.

A series of studies on emotional intelligence show that people with a high level of it are intellectually gifted in business or their personal lives, and are often more successful. Emotional intelligence refers to an awareness of our own feelings and the ability to recognize them in others. It is not enough just to have feelings; emotions may be good or bad but we handle these feelings in either a negative or positive way. With emotional intelligence, we learn to recognize and respect the feelings of others and respond to them appropriately.

Modern science constantly provides evidence that emotional intelligence is not only intelligent quotient (IQ), but is one of the many influential factors underlying our decision-making processes. Of the above two kinds of intelligence—the intellectual and emotional—emotional intelligence is not unlike raw brainpower (Palmer et al., 2001). Neuroscientists suggest that emotions are key in understanding connections, feelings, reasoning, and decisions. This combination is referred to as making a choice in how to respond. This system is a combination in the brain that is involved in emotions. Feelings and emotions influence and have a powerful effect on reasoning.

A number of research studies have revealed that higher emotional intelligence scores are associated with higher quality interpersonal relationships (Heider, 2013), academic performance and social competence (Gui & Sugden, 2005), and important workplace outcomes such as stress tolerance and peer and/or supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation (Treadway et al., 2007). On the other hand, a low level of emotional intelligence may be a key factor in a variety of deviant behaviors (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Parker et al. (2004), found that lower emotional intelligence is linked to deviant behaviors in secondary school students, and lower emotional intelligence scores are linked to drug abuse, excessive drinking, and deviant behavior in male college students. Cherniss et al. (1998) estimated that 90% of our actions and activities are actually sense-related and only 10% are based on thoughts, logic, and reasoning.

Administrators and others with the power to control anxiety or to maintain hope in the face of adversity and compassion share these feelings with employees; this may result in empathy. All the components of emotional intelligence can be used to make people more aware of bullying and to understand its place at work. Research needs to address the emerging awareness of the need for supervisors and executives with emotional intelligence. This would ensure faster and maximum resolution, while grasping the team and organizational risks. For many years, leading thinkers have been advising organizations to learn about the value and organizational sense it makes to manage emotions. These business scholars, often in the realm of intuition rather than analysis, go looking for lost key management work to combat bullying.

Research supports the idea that emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to form meaningful relationships with colleagues and managers (Collins & Schmidt, 1993), both of which are features of employment fulfillment. A study examined a little group at a Fortune

500 insurance agency to test the relationship between EI and appraisals by associates and managers (Carstensen et al., 2000). Employees with higher EI were evaluated as less demanding to manage and more capable of making a positive workplace. Managers likewise evaluated these workers to be more amiable, approachable, more tolerant of anxiety, and more willing to take up initiatives. Sincerely smart people make incredible workplaces which helps ensure higher job satisfaction for themselves, their colleagues, and managers. If the higher management rate them well in terms of their innovativeness, then high EMIT people will probably get career advancements and higher pay, both of which are features of higher job satisfaction. Studies additionally demonstrate that high EMIT people are better at overseeing and performing their jobs (Carstensen et al., 2000). By definition, emotionally insightful workers are better at taking care of their feelings and adjusting to what is required for the job (Varca, 2009), which ought to positively affect productivity. They can handle stress better since they can recognize the reasons for the anxiety and deal with their feelings as need be (Hopp et al., 2009). They ordinarily perceive positivity in testing times and use their feelings to make changes (Oren et al., 2012). As a result of this positivity, people who are high in EMIT will probably get salary increases and promotions, and thus will have higher satisfaction at work.

This raises the question of why individuals deliberately engage in great behavior in specific circumstances and not in others. Is there ever a period when behavior is of little significance? What role does behavior play in a white collar workplace, where professionalism requires one to control or expel one's feelings from work?

2.7. Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The social exchange theory gives a consistent explanation of individuals' reciprocated behaviors (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007). It shows that Machiavellians, narcissists, and the mentally disturbed dislike a great number of people. They are not recognizably unpleasant or upsetting, but rather, they evaluate motives and costs, and whether what they receive relates to what they put in, in terms of time and effort. Besides, if individuals are not committed to the work, this will probably debilitate the impact of their interpersonal connections. For instance, Machiavellians may think about the chance to get "payback" for any additional kind of exertion they put into work (Jones, 2009). Narcissists suppose they surpass their peers, so views about occupation and responsibility cannot apply to them (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Neurotics do not care for others' methods and they may not act in ways that will bring joy to others or minimize others' suffering (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b).

By drawing on the social exchange perspective, we estimate the connection between every component of the demand theory (DT) and productivity and CWB. Following Parzefall and Salin (2010), we perceive that these qualities cover every kind of development. Everyone depicts a set of qualities, including positive and negative behaviors, so their relations to work practices are moderately comparative. The uniqueness of every quality remains, and in any case, this being an experimental inquiry, we offer speculations about conceivable mediators for those relations. We do not expect any variable to alter the course of the general connection. Besides, it is hard to envision a variable or individual attribute that would invert the negative impacts of the DT; yet, in specific settings, these relations might be tempered to some extent.

Social trade has been characterized as “activities dependent upon the remunerating responses of others, which after some time accommodate common and compensating exchanges and connections” (Thau & Mitchell, 2010). Social trade connections have a tendency to include socio-emotional assets such as responsibility, backing, or trust (Jensen et al., 2010; Thau & Mitchell, 2010). In this manner, these connections have a tendency to replicate over a timeframe (Thau et al., 2009). This can be differentiated from monetary trade, which is portrayed as more short-term trade, which involves the exchange of money (O’Boyle Jr et al., 2012).

Contemporary social trade hypotheses conceptualize social exchange as a kind of interpersonal relationship that is conducted within a set of tenets that are built up inside a one-of-a-kind trade connection (Hershcovis, 2011). For instance, Penney and Spector (2002) have established the standard of correspondence in connection with social trade in organizational behavior research. Correspondence is for the most part perceived as a widespread standard (Jensen et al., 2010), and includes “reimbursing the activities of others with relating activities of our own” (Aryee et al., 2007). For instance, when employees feel that their manager and the organization has dealt with them reasonably, i.e., fostered common sentiments of trust, support, and responsibility, the employee feels committed to responding in a positive way. For example, this may help build citizenship practices in support of that manager (Aryee et al., 2007). The standard of communication can likewise be connected to interpersonal abuse in the workplace. While trying to set a standard of communication, previous research clarified that most people desire to help as opposed to hurt the individuals who have helped them. This makes one wonder – how does social exchange theory explain an individual’s negative responses toward someone? One proposal is that when an individual

encounters out-of-line treatment, it is conceivable that he or she will “reimburse” the culpable party for abuse through negative workplace practices, for example, CWB (Jensen et al., 2010). Few studies have elaborated social exchange theory to negative relationship results (Aryee et al., 2007). For instance, Fox et al., (2007) conducted one of the most earliest studies to apply social trade hypothesis in connection to negative workplace practices. They proposed that social trade was an alternative hypothesis to the idea that burglary is a simply criminal action. While they acknowledge that some genuine violations are outside the administration’s control, they proposed that understanding the negative ramifications of social trade could help supervisors distinguish and control minor types of pilferage in the workplace. Further, in a more recent meta-examination, it was proposed that CWB is a response to certain practices taking into account the social trade hypothesis. In the course of this study, it was discovered that there is a direct relation between procedural, distributive, and instructive equity and CWB. However, these were not influenced by social dealings or exchanges (Tepper & Henle, 2011). In addition, they gauged social exchange quality by utilizing basic measures of positive social exchange such as trust, responsibility, support, and the feeling that one is making a significant contribution. Another study proposed that this complements the perspective that organizational citizenship behavior and CWB are not alternate extremes on the same continuum; rather, it is conceivable that an alternate sort of mediator underlies the development of CWBs. By and large, the hidden variables that cause negative social exchanges have not been examined as completely as the variables that characterize positive social exchanges, leaving potential for future research. As such, it is conceivable that measures of negative social exchanges may vary from the measures utilized for positive interactions, e.g., support, trust, responsibility, and so on. A few scholars have studied negative exchange spirals and the spiraling effect of social interactions. The incivility spirals observed by Andersson and Pearson (1999) appear to fit this idea of responses to negative exchanges sparking further negativity. As indicated by Andersson and Pearson’s (1999) hypothesis, incivility may escalate to more forceful practices. They clarify that uncivil conduct in an organization can begin with something as basic as a ignoring someone, which can be interpreted as abuse (Sakurai & Jex, 2012).

Now, one could contend that once a negative exchange is initiated, it spurs the victim to respond to the culpable party. Along these lines, the first victim of the negative conduct turns into the instigator. At that point, the first person may see the victim’s response as unreasonable, and therefore, the negative spiral continues over and over until both of the groups agree to drop the issue or it escalates to the point of brutality (Bowling & Beehr,

2006). Other studies appear to support this escalating or spiraling effect. For instance, a study investigated the research on worker efficiency and consumer loyalty and proposed that a negative exchange spiral like that depicted by Andersson and Pearson's (1999) study leads to a spillover of negativity to clients and other employees (Thau et al., 2007).

Further, studies have observed that the acceleration of hostility, in light of social exchange theory, results in the possibility of 'equal hostility'; people who take part in demonstrations of bitterness towards others are prone to end up the object of hostility by receiving the same bitterness from others (Thau et al., 2007). Further, the data upheld the hypothesis that being the object of abuse led to workers adopting aggressive conduct. A study proposed that it is not always possible to recognize victims versus aggressors, and so established correlations between being the object of hostility and exhibiting aggressive behavior (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Therefore, they did not investigate the variables that underlie this behavior, for example, a craving for vengeance (Tepper & Henle, 2011). Another study examines negative effects in organizations, in particular, as deviation-enhancing ways that have counterproductive results (Fox et al., 2007). On the off chance that the other sides does not respond in kind, the aggressor can become more aggressive. Usually, though both sides would lose from participation, acceleration of the conflict is usually the more common rather result, rather than abstaining from contacting the aggressor (Thau et al., 2007). Further, the research clarifies that a basic line must be crossed to spark the negative exchange, and after that, external factors outside of the cycle might be the best way to end the cycle. The idea of a basic limit that is crossed is important to the relationship between incivility and counterproductive work practices. One more study proposed that incivility did not prompt counterproductive work practices in light of the fact that uncivil behavior was seen as a minor infringement that was not sufficiently upsetting to warrant CWB, which is a more extreme type of striking back. In fact, different researchers have reflected on this idea. For instance, a qualitative study included interviews and surveys to gather representative encounters of workplace animosity (Spector & Fox, 2010) from both the victims' and attackers' points of view (Meier et al., 2013). While the information suggests that abuse tends to escalate, the seriousness of the study was an essential indicator of the subsequent pessimism of the respondents.

The findings by Meier et al. (2013) are not entirely opposed to the hypothesis proposed in this research; rather, they supplement the hypothesis that has been proposed and the information that has been collected so far. In particular, Andersson and Pearson (1999)

contend that due to the nature of incivility spirals, incivility evokes a response of more incivility at first. Therefore, more aggressive reactions, i.e. interpersonal mistreatments may occur as continuous stress and burnout at work even in the context of Pakistan. Essentially, Scott et al. (2013) states that emotional encounters tend to have a cumulative effect, which shapes states of mind and practices. This idea appears to fit with the finding that the seriousness of the first act will determine the seriousness of responses (Lyons & Scott, 2012). Further, there is a need for more research to establish the connection between occurrences in the employees of HEI, Pakistan. As this study has proposed, day-by-day measures could uncover examples of escalation that have been covered up. Following this, in this thesis I examine the relationship of interpersonal mistreatments such as ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts to burnout at work influencing the CWB. This study aims to capture the impact of negative behaviors at different levels in the organization to capture the escalation of conflict as suggested by the social exchange theory in time.

Qualitative studies to better understand the process of social exchange in groups found that both positive and negative variables affect social exchanges. Those who do not show consideration, support, trust, appreciation, or participation tend to develop low quality social exchange connections. Companionship critically improved positive social exchanges, which were connected with sentiments of interest, joy, solace, fulfillment, happiness, and enthusiasm. Negative social exchanges were marked by feelings such as being uncomfortable, irate/irritated, disappointed/despise/incensed, apprehensive/on edge, focused, anxious/frightened, and disturbed/troubled (Manegold, 2014). On the other hand, positive and negative variables connected with particular occasions in the relationship may affect the nature of social exchange relationships and the progression can have an enduring impact by influencing one's memory of the occasion (Schultz et al., 2015). For instance, it has been contended that displeasure and related feelings – antagonistic vibe, disdain, and repugnance – increase the likelihood of vengeance (Fox et al., 2007). A study focused upon how emotions tend to increase the desire for revenge, and clarified that the power of the feelings experienced after abuse were entirely significant. Further, people depict the pessimistic feelings that follow abuse as being extreme, for example, as being incensed or angered (Tepper & Henle, 2011). So, the power of these emotions will engrave the feelings into memory, permitting the outrage experienced over the abuse to persevere, and driving a longing for retribution after some time. Hence, to examine the relationship between social exchange and the variables that influence it, the study investigated if there is a hypothetical possibility that there is a non-recursive relationship between the apparent nature of the social

exchange and its influence on the emotional state of someone. There are a few tangents to the hypothesis that can be deduced. Of late, multifocal viewpoints have become popular in the research on organizational equity. This point of view stresses the responsibility of the individuals who commit abuse (Cook et al., 2013). For instance, the objective comparability model recommends that various sources of equity are essential workers, and they hold differently, one-of-a-kind exchange relationships with those in power (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Lambe et al., 2001). For instance, research has demonstrated that the idea that the injustice was perpetuated by the management is more likely to be linked with CWB than the idea that it was associated with the organization (Lambe et al., 2001). As such, while target comparable connections ought to have the most grounded impact, smaller effects may be noticed between unique targets. Be that as it may, the reason for these “overflow” or persistent effects is not clear. Linking feelings and their effects in a social exchange point of view may fill in this gap. For instance, assume that Jamil has been uncivil to Maria and has made an inconsiderate remark. This may annoy Maria and evoke negative feelings, for example, outrage. These feelings may prompt a negative response. While she may lash out at Jamil because of his actions toward her, it is also possible that she may lash out at other colleagues or her life partner. Soon, other individuals who did not annoy her will credit it to an awful temperament and deep-rooted animosity (Liao, 2008). Hostility happens when the object of negative conduct did not cause it. So is it conceivable that the persistent effect that has been observed in studies is identified with the cause and effect relation among the variables. Social exchange based attributions may clarify the impact on the connection between the victim and the predator and feelings-based states of mind, e.g., one’s emotional state may explain the spillover effects of this dislodged animosity. A study explored the difference between social exchange theory and studies on the influences of workplace abuse (Liao, 2008). In particular, most social exchange concentrates on relations between variables, while most research on workplace abuse concentrates on current individual incidents (Rupp & Cropanzano, 2002). Moreover, the power of the emotions driving every development were interesting, prompting distinctive momo-logical systems of dependent variables. Their study shows that conduct can shift typically, even over short periods of time. Social exchange processes can trigger feelings such as bliss or joy or displeasure, trouble, or dread (Pindek & Spector, 2015). In addition, earlier scholars have established that people have emotional reactions towards progressive social interactions. It states that effective social exchanges can prompt positive sentiments such as fulfillment, delight, interest, or favor, and that people are inspired to understand what brought on these sentiments. Through this process, the social

exchange relationship turns out to be more beneficial (Drach-Zahavy & Trogan, 2013). Moreover, a series of investigations found that individuals who report that they receive positive feelings from their social exchanges are more likely to stay committed to those relationships. The previous studies highlighted the social exchange perspective by emphasizing the power related processes, resource distribution and behavioral outcomes. The affect theory of social exchange presented by Lawler (2001) elaborates the emotional reciprocity in shared conducts. Earlier studies put forth with emphasis on work in exchange on employee integrity and commitment (Cook and Emerson, 1978; Kollock, 1994), the other studies focused on the role of emotions in relations (Collins, 2004). Particularly, the affect theory encompasses that how the exchange processes affect the individual temperaments at the interpersonal level.

2.8. Affect theory of Social Exchange

Generally, the individuals in SET are considered as unemotional beings who possess information and cognitively process that information and make decisions to deal with those emotions intelligently. The affect theory of social exchange complements the SET by including the individual emotions as a part of the exchange process. The affect theory investigated the structural conditions of exchange that generate such feelings and emotions that ascertain that individuals deal and manage at interpersonal and organizational level (Lawler, 2001). The affect theory highlights that the frequent exchanges produce emotions that are attributed to the relation and ultimately deals with them intelligently with effecting the employee productivity. This sense of reciprocity as the source of positivity encourages the individuals to remain in relation and also to strengthen it with the help of emotional intelligence as is presented in this study. Finally, in SET exchanges must be negotiated. Lawler et al. (2001) demonstrated the productive exchange, endogenous process's utility at interpersonal and organizational level along with negotiations. This led to the development of the affect theory of social exchange.

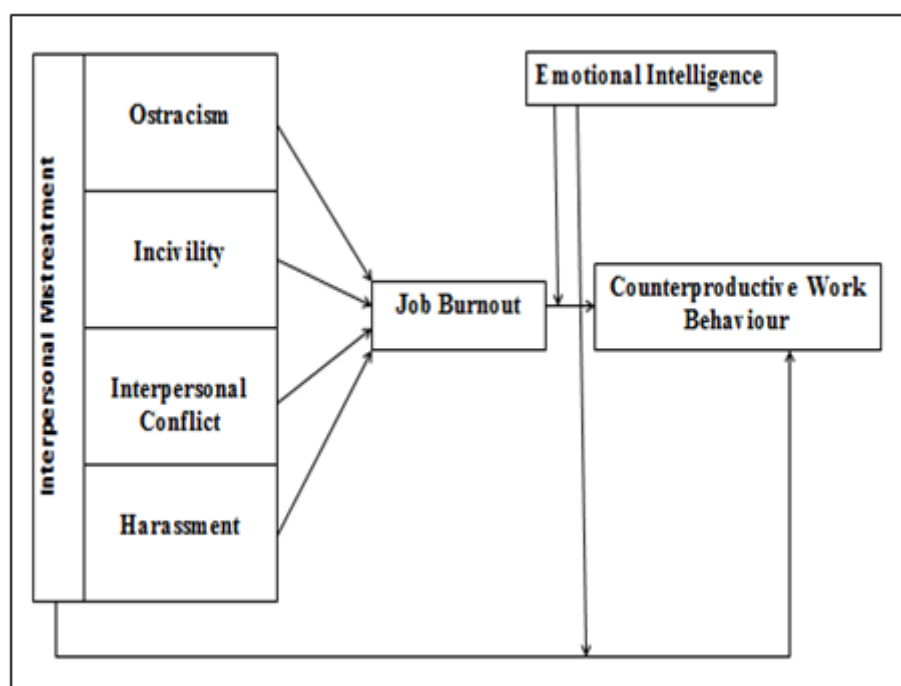
The social exchange theory influences the jobholders relations and their perceptions about their coworkers conducts. This study is aimed at describing the impact of SET on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors among the jobholders with the mediating role of job burnout. Further, the affect theory of social exchange describes its impact on emotional intelligence for this study.

2.9. The Conceptual Model

We developed a mediation model and moderation model, building on the findings of previous studies, in particular, social exchange theory (Cropanzano et al., 2002). By keeping in view the prevalence of interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace, the aim and focus of the present study is to investigate its consequences. The present study analyses the empirical validity of various concepts regarding the behaviors, emotions, stress, and productivity of workers in relation to interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace. It is hypothesized that to comprehend the interpersonal mistreatments, it is necessary to identify the variables that enhance their impact on productivity. Numerous stress-related studies have discussed the factors that cause workers to exhibit uncivil behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001; S. Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). In Spector's control model of stress at the workplace, workplace incivility has been shown to lead to poor emotional responses (Sprung & Jex, 2012). In the same manner, another study construes workplace mistreatments as routine troubles, because of their repetitive and vague nature. It also showed that they may have work-related emotional and physical outcomes (Lim & Cortina, 2005). This study proposes to study the toxic effects of four different but related forms of mistreatment: ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts (Lim & Cortina, 2005). Despite the influence of other factors, the harmful effects of such behavior obstruct workers' potential to sustain workplace interpersonal relations (Pearson & Porath, 2004). Further, the literature on burnout explains that inoffensive workplace mistreatments can have severe consequences for workers' performance and welfare. Other studies highlight the social exchange processes can cause interpersonal mistreatments (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). The assumptions behind the current study treat interpersonal mistreatments as a major construct (Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Greenberg & Scott, 1996). Antagonistic acts lead to aggressive behaviors (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Moreover, they describe spirals of incivility in which slight misunderstandings or conflicts may lead to serious interpersonal mistreatments or deviant behaviors. Until now, the processes related to social exchange are yet to be fully explored to explain the occurrence of interpersonal mistreatments and their outcomes (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). By analyzing interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace and highlighting its nomological association, several constructs related to workplace mistreatments have been explored (Bushman & Anderson, 2002), such as oppressive management (Aryee et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007) and workplace bullying (Harris et al., 2007; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). These constructs present a universal hypothetical set up that has been examined in other disciplines as well. This combined system emphasizes

social exchange theory, processes (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), and its insights into job burnout (Griffith et al., 1999; Suresh, 2008) to comprehend the association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive behaviors. Interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace appear to be unswervingly related to behaviors like ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment. They can also be related to health, as in the case of job burnout, or may be performance-related, like counterproductive work behaviors and emotional intelligence.

Figure 2.1 The conceptual model



Chapter summary

This chapter reviews the literature on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors. The literature review was done for the conceptual model of this study, and this chapter has been divided into four major parts. The first part presented the literature review for the individual variables, the second part reviews the literature on the hypotheses for the model and the mediating and moderating links presented in this study. Further, the third part of the chapter presents the literature review of the theoretical implications of the social exchange theory and affect theory of social exchange; and finally, the fourth part describes the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter 3 - Research Methodology

In this chapter, we present the research design, which includes the survey instrument, participants, and analytical techniques applied to test the established hypotheses. In this study, we investigate the impact of interpersonal mistreatment on counterproductive work behaviors in blue collar and white collar employees. This chapter is structured as follows: (1) the research approach of this study, (2) the sampling description, (3) the survey instrument, (4) addressing the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, (5) pilot testing of the present study, (6) data collection procedure, (7) data analysis undertaken for this dissertation, and (8) addressing the single source bias for data collection.

3.1. Research Approach

The research approach involves more than just the procedures utilized by the analyst. It alludes to a more general introduction to research cases relevant to the study (Blessing & Chakrabarti, 2009). The research approach, research questions, and research designs all are interrelated. The method and approach chosen by the researchers are determined by their knowledge and the direction of inquiry of the work (Loyens & Rikers, 2011).

Researchers define ontology as knowledge, and epistemology as the relationship between the researchers and subject being researched. Axiology focuses on the intrinsic value of the research, and methodology reflects the processes chosen for the study (Neuman, 2005). Finally, rhetoric is the written component or the language utilized. Assertions such as philosophical assumptions, epistemologies, and ontologies may be considered as paradigms or views on research (Berg et al., 2004). In a broader sense, we may perceive them as methodologies (Berg et al., 2004; Creswell, 2013). A paradigm is a set of thought patterns or concepts including theories, research methods, or standards for what constitutes a legitimate contribution to a field (Blanche et al., 2006). The right paradigm enables a researcher to adopt philosophical assumptions and choose apparatuses, tools, participants, and methods (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Generally, the three accepted schools of thought regarding knowledge are positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism. Assumptions recognized earlier (Evans et al., 2009) focus on positivism, post-positivism, quantitative research, and empirical science, which are related to philosophical pragmatism and have a scientific approach to the pursuit of knowledge

(Kothari, 2004). Indeed, knowledge that emerges through positivism relies on careful observations and numeric measurements of objective reality in the world (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009); it is closely related to the hypothetic-deductive method (Dana & Dana, 2005; Heeks & Bailur, 2007; Holden & Lynch, 2004; Klabbers, 2006). The law of positivism proposes that philosophies must be verified and advanced to understand the world (Healy & Perry, 2000). Therefore, like technical research, advancing philosophies involves organized observations and descriptions of phenomena within the context of an ideal or theory, presenting theories, executing controlled trials, utilizing inferential insights to test speculations, and elucidating measurable results in light of original hypotheses (Cacioppo et al., 2004).

In contrast to post-positivism and positivism, constructivism – also known as interpretivism – refers to qualitative research. Individuals seek an understanding of the world in their social and historical contexts. Their experiences have multiple and varied meanings; they are subjective. As such, interpretivist and constructivist researchers examine the multifaceted nature of various perspectives instead of narrowing down the implications to just a couple of classifications or thoughts (Williams, 2000). Thus, the result of this type of examination, in which the inquirer gathers implications from subjective techniques for information accumulation, is inductive in nature (Creswell & Creswell, 2005).

Finally, researchers find that the pragmatic approach initially derived from work in last few decades (Bahari, 2012; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Murphy & Rorty, 1990; Tuli, 2011) is concerned with solving problems and applying what really works (Blanche et al., 2006; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Pfeffer, 1993; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). The methodology is a blend of positivism and constructivism, which permits specialists to comprehensively to determine and examine the issues (Aken, 2004; Maxwell, 1992; Morgan, 2007). Table 3.1 offers a contrast of all three paradigms used in social and behavioral sciences based on ontology, epistemology, logic, method, nature of inquiry, and rhetoric.

Table 3.1: Comparison of important worldviews used in social and behavioral sciences

	Positivism	Constructivism	Pragmatism
Ontology (Reality)	Simple realism	Relativism	Reality based on the consequences of actions

Epistemology (Association between the researcher and the subject being researched)	Objective	Subjective	Subjective and objective
Logistics	Deductive	Inductive	Deductive and inductive
Technique	Quantitative	Qualitative	Qualitative and quantitative
Rhetoric	Formal	Informal	Informal and formal

Source: Adopted from Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010).

Selection of an appropriate method is based on the problem being investigated (Creswell et al., 2003). If the problem requires classifying variables that affect the outcome, using proper intervention, understanding the appropriate predictors of outcomes, or testing theories, then the positivist paradigm and quantitative approach is the best option (Creswell et al., 2003). If the concept or phenomenon needs to be established because of the limited scope of previous research, then it merits using a constructivist or interpretivism paradigm and a qualitative approach. A pragmatist paradigm or mixed method study is utilized in a situation in which an investigator wants to discover and generalize a phenomenon that follows consecutive, simultaneous, or transformative actions (Creswell et al., 2003). Therefore, the suitability of a research design is justified by whether it fulfills the requirements of the study (Hakim, 1987; Kothari, 2004; Sobh & Perry, 2006).

Quantitative research comprises various types of research such as descriptive, associational, and intervention studies. Descriptive studies explore and describe the research problem by summarizing sample features, attitudes, and behaviors inherent to the problem (Oncu & Cakir, 2011; Svensson, 1984). This information can be attained through content scrutiny and survey or qualitative approaches. On the other hand, associational research investigates the relationship between two or more variables (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2006). Associational research is further divided into correlational and causal comparative research (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007). Correlational research examines a set of data in order to define whether or not a relation exists between variables. In the current study, the

researchers did not manipulate participants and their surroundings but only examined and observed naturally existing relationships (Lofland & Lofland, 2006). Causal examination includes observing variables with known distinctions and attempting to control superfluous variables that may bring about these distinctions. Finally, another category of quantitative exploration is trial or manipulative studies (Mares et al., 1982; Schenker & Rumrill Jr, 2004), which allow the researcher to observe differences in respondents or situations that apparently affect the results of collected data. Manipulative studies are suitable for testing academic prototypes and examining causation (Bullock et al., 1994).

Keeping the experimental and objective nature of the current work in perspective, positivism and quantitative methodology were considered the most fitting exploration procedures. Quantitative methodology best served the goal of the present study, which was to look at the effects of interpersonal abuse and counterproductive work on manual laborers/specialists at the operational level and desk representatives. The study took place at a number of higher education establishments to test the proposed intervening factor of job burnout stemming from interpersonal abuse and counterproductive work behaviors. In short, there are a number of practices used in quantitative studies. Since the aim of this study was to examine the relationship between interpersonal conflicts (independent variable) and counterproductive work behaviors (dependent variable) involving the mediating effects of job burnout, emotional intelligence, and workplace spirituality as moderating variables, the associational approach was utilized during data analysis.

In order to get exact instructions for the procedures used in a research project, it is important to determine a strategy of review (Singleton Jr et al., 1993). The two widely used associated strategies are tentative design and survey study (Kothari, 2004). Experimental research strategy includes the random allocation of subjects to intervention conditions and quasi-experiments (Keppel, 1991).

Survey research is the most frequently used approach for data collection in the social sciences (Bradburn, & Sudman, 1979). It uses questionnaires or organized meetings to gather data in either cross-sectional or longitudinal time frames (Spector et al., 2000). Survey research describes specific aspects of a given population in numeric form (Bradburn et al., 1992). Considering the importance of survey research and its wide use in the social sciences—specifically in the context of interpersonal conflicts (Xie et al., 2002) and counterproductive work behaviors (Sackett, 2002)—the current study utilized the survey method, as it best

served the objectives of the study. This method enabled the researchers to gather data from a large sample. Data were collected using questionnaires and a self-administered survey approach. Since the study did not involve any experiment or investigation of perceptions over a long period of time, it was a cross-sectional study in which data were gathered from the sample population at one specific point in time.

3.2 Description of Sampling

Sampling is an important part of the research process, in which researchers select a segment of the population for investigation (Baik & Silverstein, 2006). Based on the test results, researchers sum up the discoveries and make claims about the population as a whole. Examining strategies are divided into two general classes—likelihood inspecting and non-likelihood testing. Likelihood inspecting is a technique that takes into account a likelihood hypothesis, which draws test units from a populace such that every single conceivable example is likely to be chosen. Scientists generally utilize likelihood testing in quantitative studies because it gives the entire population an equal likelihood of being chosen. Hence, there is a smaller chance of bias, which empowers analysts to make measurable deductions (i.e., speculations) about the larger population. In addition, the sample chosen from the population allows for fewer errors, which means that the analyst can determine the most important differences between variables. Contrarily, non-likelihood testing comprises any inspecting plan wherein the likelihood of a section of the populace being picked is not based on chance. This kind of testing best serves as a subjective methodology where the sample is generated based on the judgments of the specialist (Babbie, 1990).

In keeping with the conventions of quantitative exploration, this study used the likelihood technique, as this strategy allowed for objectivity and deductive assessment. Despite being less exorbitant, the likelihood technique allows for impartial representation and assessment of information.

Probability sampling may be done by utilizing various test variations. If groups are distinguished, every person of the population is incorporated into the sample. Since the groups are chosen arbitrarily, it is fitting to assume that the people in picked groups are fundamentally similar to people in un-picked groups (Davies & Bouldin, 1979). In randomization, a sample test from a population gives researchers the capacity to sum up the overall results of that populace (Creswell et al., 2003).

It is vital to decide the base sample size required to accumulate information before gathering the data so that adequate statistical power can be attained (Hooper et al., 2008). The sample size directly affects the power to determine valid measures and the generalizability of results (Hoe, 2008). While conducting the survey research, attempting to use the largest possible sample size can pose temporal and financial constraints and make the research difficult to carry out (Kotrlík & Higgins, 2001).

The normality of the data and the approximation method both affect the required sample dimensions (D'agostino et al., 1990). However, a value that is generally agreed upon is ten observations for every allowed limitation to be estimated (Linacre, 2002; Moriarity & Barron, 1976; Peterson, 1994). Moreover, the absolute minimum sample sizes, rather than being subject to item ratios, are based on a review of previous studies (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). Sampling errors are reduced with a rise in sample size (Kotrlík & Higgins, 2001). These studies have sample sizes that range from 50 to 400 individuals (Barrett & Kline, 1981; Aleamoni, 1976). Previous studies suggest that for analyzing an appropriate sample size is of 200 respondents (Bentler, 1990; Hooper et al., 2008; Westland, 2010). Abdi and Williams (2010) propose that for a large sample size (i.e., more than 300), reliability can be confirmed from the results of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). So, in the light of above explains the sample size of 646 (323 white collar and 323 blue collar) respondents have been used for collection for this study. In the light of Abdi and Williams (2010) the sample size of 646 respondents is considered appropriate and considered for analysis in this study.

In the current study, in order to advance from earlier mentioned studies, pre-tested questionnaires were distributed equally among 50 randomly selected blue collar and 50 randomly selected white collar staff members in higher educational institutions in Punjab, to satisfy minimum requirements of the sample size. The testing configuration in this study minimized the scope for mistakes by equally representing every unit of the populace. Therefore, each foundation and worker had an equal chance of getting chosen. Utilizing an arbitrary specimen of adequate size controlled for testing errors. Estimation errors were avoided through cautious determination, by paying extensive consideration to legitimacy, and by using an instrument of high validity and reliability. Total outline strategy and follow-up techniques for accumulating information were used to overcome non-reaction blunders as subtler elements were displayed in the information gathered (Dillman & Bowker, 2001).

Punjab is the most populated province of Pakistan and is viewed as the capital of higher education institutions since it has 38 colleges, out of which 21 are in the public sector and 17 are in the private sector. Out of these 38 colleges, 25 are situated in Lahore city, the capital city of Punjab. The other 13 colleges are situated in alternate urban communities in the region. Of 21 public colleges, 11 are situated in Lahore and the remaining 10 are in different urban areas. Of the private colleges, just three out of the 17 are situated in urban areas other than Lahore. For this study, the Punjab territory was partitioned into two based on the topographical area –Lahore or other. Table 3.2 summarizes the number of colleges in each group, as samples are taken from each strata and results drawn up. The public and private populaces had a similar likelihood of being chosen and were practically indistinguishable in this respect. From every section, a rundown of higher instruction establishments was created.

Table 3.2: Number of higher educational institutes in each stratum

Location	Public Sector	Private Sector	Total
Lahore	11	14	25
Others	10	03	13
Total	21	17	38

Source: HEC, Statistical Information Unit 2009-2010

According to Pakistan Education Statistics,(2015-16) there are total 163 universities providing their services in both public and private sector of education. Out of these universities 91 (56%) are working under umbrella of public sector, whereas 72 (44%) are working under the supervision of private sector as reflected.

The total enrolment in the universities, i.e., at post graduate stage, is 1.355 million. Out of this enrolment 1.141 million (84%) students are enrolled in public universities, whereas, 0.214 million (16%) students are studying in private universities. Despite the fact that there are more universities in public sector there are less students in these universities as compare of private sector.

The total male enrolment in the universities is 0.753 million (56%), whereas, the female enrolment is 0.602 million (44%). The total teachers in the universities are 83,375 out of which 66,532 (80%) are in public and 16,843 (20%) are in private sector.

Utilizing basic irregular testing, one private sector college situated in a city other than Lahore and three colleges from each of the other three classifications were chosen. We administered surveys among randomly from the individuals (both experienced and new employees) from every college in direct proportion to the number of workers by taking help from the institution's human resource departments. Hence, in every college there were an aggregate number of representatives.

For the accuracy in sample size the public sector university of Punjab with highest number of employees (appr.21000 jobholders) were focused revealing sample size of 392 through Yamane (1967) formula for minimum sample size i.e.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2}$$

Where:

n = sample size

N = population of the study

e = significance level (5%)

In the same way the private sector lowest number of job holders Hajvery University (with 400 jobholders) showing 222 sample size. The average of the both the dimensions supported a sample size of 307 jobholders but to be on safer side the data was collected from 375 white collar workers (WCWs) and 375 blue collar workers (BCWs) representing the total 750 respondents in the higher education sector of a large province of Punjab, Pakistan. The response rate was an 83% representing 323 respondents for white and 323 for blue collar jobholders' total 646 respondents. Different points of interest and information about participants have been condensed in the results of this research. The concerned leaders of these foundations gave consent for data collection. After acquiring authorization, respondents were chosen randomly and informed of expectations at various times and phases of data collection. They were assured that their responses would be kept strictly confidential. All members were informed about interpersonal abuse and conflict, counterproductive work practices, burnout, and the importance of a positive and enthusiastic working environment and a profound sense of belonging before questionnaires were given out. A few researchers

have found that new employees are more likely to face mistreatments at the workplace. To ensure an unbiased approach, these data were collected even from the employees who are working on probation and on an ad hoc basis (Mair, 1995).

3.3. Instrumentation

Questionnaires are appropriate means to collect data from a large population (Sudman & Bradburn, 1982), keeping in mind the aim that information was to be gathered on the variables of interpersonal abuse/clashes, counterproductive work conduct, work burnout, emotional intelligence, and work environment. As such, the survey was separated into three parts. The initial segment comprised of the consent form then the general data, including respondents' demographics—sex, age, capability, division, kind of employment, assignment, pay range, and so on. Reactions of white and blue collar jobholders on the variables of the conceptual model were acquired on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). The next part of the survey is based on following dimensions.

3.3.1. Independent Variables

3.3.1.1. Interpersonal Mistreatments

Interpersonal mistreatments are often common and devastating occurrences in the workplace. The aim was to investigate the various overall perceptions that the individual has about being treated differently. The current study focused on how the four types of mistreatment in workplace – workplace ostracism, incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts.

3.3.1.2. Workplace Ostracism

In this study ten-item scale was used to measure workplace ostracism, which was adapted from the study by Ferris et al (2008). It is a dependable scale with a one-dimensional element structure and both a joined and discriminant validity and measure. The workplace ostracism scale is a solid and substantial measure and has vital ramifications for both people and associations.

3.3.1.3. Workplace Incivility

In this study twelve-item scale was used to measure workplace incivility and the scale was adapted from Taylor(1999). The solution yielded a single factor Eigen value of 7.62, which accounted for 63% of the variance.

3.3.1.4. Workplace Harassment

In order to survey harassment, this study adapted the Harassment scale by Schneider et al.,(2000). This scale allows individuals to demonstrate how every now and again, they encounter verbal harassment on a five-point scale (1 = never and 5 = quite often).

3.3.1.5. Interpersonal Conflict

Participants indicated the extent of their interpersonal conflict at work with the four-item interpersonal conflict at work scale (Spector & Jex, 1998) for this study. Participants were instructed to indicate how often certain things happened to them at work during the past week using a five-point Likert scale (0-5).

3.3.2. Dependent Variable

3.3.2.1. Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)

Counterproductive work can take on many forms such as stealing, sabotage, concealing others' efforts, deceit, refusing to collaborate with others, etc. (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). For this variable, we used a 23-item scale to measure the counterproductive work behavior of WCWs and BCWs in the higher education sector of Lahore. These included actions such as anger, verbal abuse, favoritism, gossip, etc., which affect employees of the organization at interpersonal levels (Bashir et al., 2012; Chang & Smithikrai, 2010; Galperin & Burke, 2006; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Sackett, 2002). Counterproductive work was assessed through checklist (CWB-C) by Spector et al., 2006), which was found to be internally consistent and reliable.

3.3.3. Mediating Variable

3.3.3.1. Job Burnout

The concept of job burnout in this study is based on the work of Jackson, Schwab, and Schuler (1986), who proposed three levels—emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishments. The survey measuring job burnout contains ten items. There are few scales to gauge work burnout, of which the well-known ones incorporate elements of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (2000). This poll was created by Maslach in 1980s and afterward, it was reexamined by other researchers (Halbesleben et al., 2004). A more current scale is Oldenburg Work Burnout Stock (OLBI), intended to reduce predispositions associated with the MBI. However, its reasonable establishment still depends on MBI. By and large, more research is required to decide the legitimacy of the OLBI and it is not yet conceivable to totally replace the MBI (Halbesleben et al., 2004).

3.3.4. Moderating Variable

3.3.4.1. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence was assessed adapting the items from Wong & Law Emotional Intelligence scale (Law et al., 2004). This scale shows good inter-item consistency, reflecting reliability.

3.4. Instrument Validity and Reliability

Validity is concerned with whether the instrument accurately measures a concept or not (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008). Moreover, validity has been defined as the extent to which a scale or set of measures accurately represents the concepts. In social sciences, different types of validity are accepted. The generally accepted trends in the field of social sciences are face, content, and construct validity (Foa et al., 1993; Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008; Tinsley, 1988).

This study ensured the validity of the instrument on all three levels. The instrument used in this study has established content validity (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 2014; Pierce et al., 1983). Construct validity refers to the link between a construct and the operational procedure used to measure the construct (Colquitt, 2001). Construct validity (both discriminant and

convergent) occurs if the Eigen value in case of latent root criterion is equal to or above 1, with a loading of at least 0.04 and no cross loadings above 0.04 (Kubarych et al.,2004; Straub et al., 2004). To examine the single dimension of the construct and to validate the survey instruments, the current study conducted factor analysis using the Principal Component Analysis technique with a Varimax rotation (Straub et al., 2004).

Reliability refers to the extent an instrument is consistent while measuring whatever it is assumed to measure (Cook & Beckman, 2006; Roberts et al., 2006). It assumes a noteworthy part in deciding the nature of estimation and illustrates the consistency and repeatability of the measures. Estimations are considered solid when they yield the same results in application (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Reliability helps in minimizing errors in measures. Reliability centers on key issues, particularly whether or not the scale is predictable. At the end of the day, this type of reliability checks the consistency of respondents' scores against various standards (Lewis-Beck et al.,2003). For the present study, the internal consistency of the instruments was measured to guarantee its dependability.

Keeping in mind the aim of testing reliability, the most regularly utilized measure is Cronbach's alpha. It calculates the normal of all conceivable split-half dependability coefficients. Its values range from 0 (demonstrating no internal reliability) to 1 (indicating immaculate dependability). An estimation of 0.80 is considered as an adequate level of internal reliability (Quinton & Smallbone, 2005). For the present study, Cronbach's alpha was utilized to check the internal dependability of the instruments.

3.4.1. Measures

All measures were included in a self-reported questionnaire. We used questionnaires in two languages (Urdu and English) for maximum comprehension by our respondents, as the white collar job holders can comprehend English, while blue collar job holders were more comfortable with Urdu. At certain intervals, we used structured interviews to grasp the information that blue collar workers provided. The measure of interpersonal mistreatment was adopted from previous studies. Interpersonal mistreatment is divided into four parts—workplace ostracism, workplace incivility, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts. A ten-item self-report scale on ostracism was adapted from Ferris et al., (2008), a twelve-item self-report scale of incivility was adapted from Taylor (1999), and items on harassment were

adapted from Schneider et al. (2000). Participants indicated their interpersonal conflicts at work with the four-item scale (Spector & Jex, 1998).

We assessed CWB with the Counterproductive Work Behavior Checklist i.e. CWB-C; (Spector et al., 2006).

Emotional intelligence was measured utilizing two positive and one negative measure with high reliability ($\alpha = .75$). To the extent that passionate knowledge is concerned, emotional intelligence was surveyed with the sixteen-point Wong and Law Scale (Shi & Wang, 2007). The WLEIS was outlined as a short measure of emotional intelligence for use in hierarchical examination. It gauges four factors—self-feeling examination, feeling evaluation of others, utilization of feeling, and direction of feeling. Wong and Law (2002) report great internal consistency and reliability for their measure. The order of items in the instrument was randomized for every member.

To examine the uni-dimensionality of the theories and to endorse the survey tools, the present study directed element investigation utilizing PCA with a Varimax turn. Estimations of Bartlett's test were observed to be under the critical 1% centrality level (Chi square for WCW = 4295.00; Chi square for BCW = 5167.00). These tests show that all the quantities were valid. In addition, they further solidify the estimations of Cronbach's alpha, which were observed to be less than 0.07, the standard reliability value.

3.5. Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to guarantee the internal reliability and validity of the instrument. Through random sampling, workers were informed about the surveys. We collected data for the pilot study from professional representatives and employees at private colleges. The general response rate for the pilot test was 86%, including 48% from two public sector white collar and blue collar workers. Private sector and industrial representatives made up 54% of the data set. Of the respondents, 69% were male and 35% female. Furthermore, 49% of the respondents were below 30 years old, 37% between 30-39 years, 7% between 40-49 years, 5% between 50-59 years, and the remaining 2% were above 60 years old. Every part that was separated utilizing PCA showed an Eigen value more than 1 and loading of more than 0.40, which demonstrated the legitimacy of the instrument.

According to Connelly (2008), extant literature suggests that a pilot study sample should be 10% of the sample projected for the larger parent study. However, Hertzog (2008) cautions that this is not a simple or straight forward issue to resolve because these types of studies are influenced by many factors. Nevertheless, Isaac and Michael (1995) suggested 10 – 30 participants; Hill (1998) suggested 10 to 30 participants for pilots in survey research; Julious (2005) in the medical field, and van Belle (2002) suggested 12; Treece and Treece (1982) suggested 10% of the project sample size. Moreover Tappin(2014) explained that 10 would be a minimum, and 30 might be considered in your project sample size is expected to be 300. So in this regard in this study the pilot testing is done for sample size of 323 white collar and 323 for blue collar respectively which is considered appropriate. Further the sample size of 100 respondents is considered appropriate for 750 respondents.

I examined the internal reliability and validity of the survey using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. For the present study, estimations of Cronbach's alpha were between 0.71 and 0.81. High Cronbach's alpha values support the idea that all multi-dimensional surveys have high dependability. This demonstrates that the survey always measures the same variables.

3.6. Data Collection Method

The fundamental obligation of each scientist is to get consent from the respondents, protect them from harm, and maintain the confidentiality of their data. Ethical considerations are necessary for furthering research and the moral conduct of analysts is under high scrutiny (Behi & Nolan, 1994; Gay et al., 2011; Jacobsen & Landau, 2003). Primary data were gathered through surveys, which comprised various parts (see appendix). The data gathering strategy was based on previous research, in light of the fact that studies such as the present one require time, money, and human participants (Dillman, 2000; Salan et al., 1994). In this study, stratified cluster random sampling was used for the jobholders of the higher educational institutions were examined. The population is diverse in Lahore region so two stratas were formed i.e. the job holders of public sector and private sector higher institutions. For further working the list of these institutions was prepared and then the jobholders were randomly selected from clusters for data collection. Moreover, the human resource departments of the institutions were contacted for approval for data collection. The administration at chosen establishments provided consent for their employees to participate in the research. In this study, we discussed our work with participants before data collection

began. We utilized a self-report survey that indicated the response rate as a percentage. Surveys were given to the employees on site after we elucidated the targets and ethical considerations of our research. The surveys given to every participant included:

- A cover letter describing the importance and purpose of the study and asking for their consent (see appendix)
- A questionnaire with instructions for completion (see appendix).

The respondents were requested to return the surveys within one week. Understanding the significance of the examination, the vast majority of the representatives returned the completed surveys on the spot. However, some administrators took a day and some took the entire week to return the surveys. I followed up with all participants to get the filled surveys. Data collection took six months and twenty days. I can assure that participants had complete information and comprehension of the reasoning and techniques used in the study. They were additionally given the option of withdrawing from the research at any point – participation was completely voluntary.

3.7. Data Analysis

We did the data analysis for this study on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-20). Principal Component Analysis was used to combine responses to different items on each scale (i.e., interpersonal mistreatments, job burnout, counterproductive work behavior, work spirituality, and emotional intelligence). Theoretically, PCA refers to a combination of optimally observed variables, while a linear combination comprises scores of observed variables. PCA uses optimal weights to develop principal components, which account for a maximum amount of variance in the data set. PCA gives various segments equivalent to the number of observed variables and analysts hold onto just the essential segments out of an aggregate number. PCA helps to avoid redundancy, which means that fewer variables are correlated with each other since they are measuring the same construct. Moreover, this redundancy reduces the observed variables into a smaller number of principal components, which account for most of the variance in observed variables and are considered as dummy variables.

This study utilized the Varimax rotation technique to get uncorrelated segments like an orthogonal variable. Rotation changes the element arrangements to make them simpler and less demanding to translate, even though the Varimax pivot is an orthogonal turn, which reduces the quantity of measurements and creates results in uncorrelated parts.

In this study, the Kaiser Rule, also called the Eigen value rule, was utilized to distinguish which parts should be retained out of aggregate segments. This paradigm demonstrates that those segments with an Eigen value larger than 1.00 should remain (Kaiser, 1991). The support for this standard is that each observed variable contributes one unit of difference to the aggregate fluctuation in the information set.

In this study, we tried to find out the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, we used a Multiple Regression Analysis, for mediation analysis by Baron and Kenny (1985) and for mediation moderation process according to model no 15 by Hayes (2012).

3.8. Bias of Single Source Method

Collecting data on different variables from one participant at a time using a self-report survey can lead to biases in the data set (Spector, 1987). A bias can be identified in case of inflated correlation results between the variables used in this study. Although biases cannot be ignored, they are a real matter of concern for scholars and policymakers (Doty & Glick, 1998). So, in this case, it may not necessarily mean that the findings are biased by virtue of self-reporting. Although a single source seems to be a commonly faced bias, the findings are still a true demonstration of the inferences drawn from single source self-reporting (Doty & Click, 1998).

3.9. Research Design

The research design elaborates that the positivism research paradigm is used in this study. This is a cross sectional study and self administered survey instrument was used to collect data from the employees of the higher educational sector of Pakistan. In this study I investigate the impact of interpersonal mistreatment on counterproductive work behaviors on blue collar and white collar employees. This study addresses the validity and reliability of the questionnaire through PCA and Cronbach alpha. Further, pilot testing of the present study,

was conducted on 100 respondents and data was collected from 646 respondents. The data analysis undertaken through descriptive and inferential statistics for this dissertation,

Chapter Summary

This chapter has displayed the examination procedures for testing the hypothesis. We inspected subtle elements to explain our choices. The discussion presenting the instrument was looked at in the light of legal and quality-based concerns. We collected data and conducted analyses in a pilot study. The data investigated in the sample study highlighted and verified the methods utilized for analyses. The outcomes of the study were also exhibited in this section. We presented our research design, which included the survey instrument, participants, and analytical techniques applied to test the established hypotheses. In this study it was investigated that the impact of interpersonal mistreatment on counterproductive work behaviors in blue collar and white collar employees.

This chapter was structured as follows: The initial part, Research Approach (3.1), provided insight into the existing research that uses the present approach and the method of inquiry constructed around the research problem. In Description of Sampling (3.2), we discussed the population, sampling procedures for this research, and selection of sample size. Instrumentation (3.3) described the levels and development of the survey instrument. In Instrument Validity and Reliability (3.4), we described the issues related to validity and reliability of the survey. Pilot Study (3.5) highlighted the pilot testing conducted for the current research. Data Collection Method (3.6) described the data collection process, Data Analysis (3.7) detailed the statistical methods used in this study, and finally, Bias of Single Source Method (3.8) elaborated on the biases associated with single source data collection. Finally the research design for the dissertation is discussed. The detailed analyses will be described in the next chapter along with the interpretations.

Chapter 4 - Results And Analysis

This chapter details the results and analysis of our research. Initially, we highlight the demographic information of our participants. Next, we summarize selected factors, including the mean, standard deviation, estimated outcomes of reliability, and validity of measures. The subsequent part explains the inferences made from regression and *t*-test analyses in relation to the hypotheses, which help explain the hypothesized associations within the conceptual framework. It includes an in-depth analysis of items on the survey used to gather data. In the analysis, we consider criteria as per the goals of the study and different aspects of the variables used in the research.

There were different assessments used to gather data, which are described accordingly. Demographic questions that we asked participants are reported and supplemented visually with tables. A snapshot of the details can be found in the tables, while more specific information can be found in the supporting text. Descriptive statistics are included for variables in tabular form; we report ranges of responses from participants, measures of central tendency, and measures of deviation. These data are provided in tables, which simplify how the information is conveyed. Additionally, results from tests on the dependent and independent variables along with mediating factors are presented, to determine the relationships between variables. Here, we had planned on using the correlation test, the results of which are provided in tabular format. To fulfill the assumptions of the correlation test, we used scatter plots and histograms that led us to employ Pearson and Spearman correlation analyses instead. Finally, we used a regression analysis on the dependent variable (i.e., counterproductive work behavior) and the independent variables. The purpose of employing a regression analysis – specifically, multiple regression – was to investigate the link between different factors and potentially find predictors.

Everything in this chapter presents an in-depth look at the analyses, which are offered in different ways so as to make the results accessible to the reader. We ensure that while learning more about this research, the reader understands the results of the study and is able to grasp the relationships between factors in a way that is readily available and deliberate.

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

An important consideration during the data analysis is to check the measures of central tendency and the measures of deviation in the collected data. We calculated the average responses of the participants and the minimum and maximum values for each statement in the questionnaire. The deviation in the responses for each statement is important so that researchers have an understanding of the scope of diversity present in the data. Descriptive statistics in various studies quantitatively explain and sum up the features of a data set (Riff et al., 2014). Thus, the aim of descriptive research is to review a sample, rather than use the data to learn about how the participants in the sample represent the population as a whole. This usually means that the results from descriptive research are analyzed using inferential statistics.

Even when a study obtains its main results using inferential statistics, descriptive statistics are usually provided as well. For example, in research on human topics, a table generally provides the overall sample size, dimensions of important subgroups (e.g., for each treatment or visibility group), and demographic features such as the average age, the percentage of each sex, the percentage of subjects with related properties, etc. Some values normally used to explain a data set are measures of central tendency and measures of variance. Measures of central tendency consist of the mean, median, and mode, while measures of deviation consist of the conventional differences (or variance) and the range of possible factor values.

Descriptive statistics provide summaries about the sample and the findings in the form of tables and charts. These summaries may either form the foundation of a more comprehensive research study, or they may be adequate for a particular project. The use of descriptive and inferential statistics has a comprehensive background.

4.1.1. Demographic Profiles of White Collar and Blue Collar Respondents

During data collection, 750 questionnaires were distributed. Around 375 were distributed to white collar and 375 were distributed to blue collar employees in the higher educational sector of Punjab, Pakistan. The response rate was better from blue collar employees, as we received 331 (87%) completed questionnaires from them. We received 323 (83%) finished questionnaires from white collar employees. To maintain a balance, we have considered 323 (83%) questionnaires from both categories of employees. The demographic profiles of the

respondents are presented in Table 4.1.1. The table presents information of all respondents including gender, age, marital status, qualifications, sector (private or public), number of dependents, type of appointment, working hours, experience, and salary range.

The results show that out of 323 respondents, 239 are male (74%) and 82 are female (25%). Evidently, most of the participants are male white collar employees. Of the 323 white collar employees, 158 are under 30 years of age (48.9%), 67 are between 30–39 years (20.7%), 75 are between 40–49 years (23.2%), and 23 are in the 50–59 age group (7.1%). Clearly, most of the respondents are younger than 30 years old. As far as education qualifications are concerned, the data show that 39 hold PhDs (12.1%), 144 are M.Phil qualified (44.6%), 36 have master's degrees (11.1%), 97 have graduation degrees (30.0%), and six have intermediate degrees (1.9%). Therefore, most of the WCW data were collected from people with M.Phil degrees. Data about marital status show that 112 respondents are single (34.7%), 209 are married (64.7%), and one is separated (0.3%). Therefore, most respondents are married. All respondents were employed at the time of data collection. Data about currently employed members of respondents' families indicate that 125 have only one person earning for the whole family (38.7%), 153 people have 2–4 earning members (47.4%), and 45 respondents have more than four people in the family earning (13.9%). Of all the participants, 205 respondents have fewer than five dependents (63.5%), 110 have between 5–10 dependents (34.1%), and five have more than 10 dependents (1.5%). So, a large proportion of data were collected from people with fewer than five dependents. Data were collected from private and public sectors of higher education—124 respondents are from private sector universities (38.4%), while 199 respondents are from public sector universities (61.6 %). There are 186 permanent employees (57.6%), 102 full-time employees (51.6%), and 33 contractual employees (10.2%). So, most data were collected from permanent employees.

White collar employees hold designations as follows: 18 program leaders or heads of departments (5.6%), 39 professors (12.1%), 32 associate professors (9.9%), 29 assistant professors (9.0%), 104 lecturers (32.2%), eight research associates (2.5%), and 93 from other categories (28.8%). Hence, lecturers dominate the sample of WCWs. With regard to working hours per week, 68 work less than 30 hours a week (21.1%), 46 work between 30–40 hours a week (14.2%), 99 work between 41–50 hours (30.7%), 105 work 51–60 hours (32.5%), and two work between 61–70 hours a week (0.6%). Most white collar employees work between 51–60 hours a week. There are 62 employees in the salary range below Rs. 30,000 (19.2%),

65 in the salary range between Rs. 30,000–50,000 (20.1%), 99 earn between Rs. 51,000–70,000 (30.7%), 50 receive a salary in the range between Rs. 71,000–90,000 (15.5%), and 42 employees are paid above Rs. 90,000 (13%). Most of the WCWs fall in the salary range of Rs. 51,000–70,000. Data on years of work experience show that 108 employees have less than five years of experience (33.4%), 161 have worked for 5–10 years (49.8%), 48 for 11–15 years (14.9%), four for 16–20 years (1.2%), and two for more than 20 years (0.6%). Majority of respondents have work experience ranging from 5–10 years.

The table above also highlights the demographic profiles of blue collar workers, of whom 294 are male (91%) and 29 are female (9%). Most of the BCWs who participated in the research are male. As far as age is concerned, 136 are under 30 years (42.1%), 63 are between 30–39 years (19.5%), 83 are between 40–49 years (25.7%), and 38 are in the 50–59 age range (11.8%). Most of the respondents are younger than 30 years. Where educational qualification is concerned, the data indicate that 23 have Master's degrees (7.1%), 53 are graduates (16.4%), 110 have intermediate degrees (34.1%), and 137 have a matriculation or lower qualification (42.4%). Evidently, most of the participants have a matriculation or lower qualification. Data on the marital statuses of BCWs indicate that 143 respondents are single (44.3%), 174 are married (53.9%), and six are separated (1.9%). Most respondents, therefore, are married. Data were collected from respondents who are all currently employed. With regard to the number of people earning in each family, 90 participants have only one person earning for whole family (27.9%), 133 respondents come from families with 2–4 earning members (41.2%), and 100 respondents have more than four earning family members (31.0%). Among the BCWs, 252 respondents have fewer than five dependents (78.0%), 51 have 5–10 dependents (15.8), and one has more than 10 dependents (0.3%). A large proportion of respondents have fewer than five dependents. Data were collected from public and private higher education establishments; 154 respondents are from public sector universities (47.7%), while 169 are from private sector universities (52.3%). Data were collected from current employees, of whom 248 are permanent employees (76.8%), 55 are full-time employees (17.0%), and 20 are contractual employees (6.2%). So, most data were collected from permanent employees.

The blue collar employees from whom we collected data hold these designations: 55 peons (17.0%), 14 lab assistants (4.3%), 57 technicians (17.7%), 28 security guards (8.7%), 50 gardeners (8.7%), 12 cooks (3.7%), 19 café boys (5.9%), and 88 in other categories (27.2%).

Of the BCWs, most data were collected from technicians and peons. Data collected for working hours per week indicate that 49 BCWs work less than 20 hours a week (15.2%), one works 20–40 hours a week (0.3%), 41 work for 41–50 hours (12.7%), 143 for 51–60 (44.3%), 40 for 61–70 hours a week (12.4%), and 48 for 71–80 hours a week (14.9%). The data have a high representation of people who work 51–60 hours a week. Data for salary range show that 40 employees earn between Rs. 9,000–12,000 (12.4%), 174 are in the salary range of Rs. 13,000–20,000 (53.9%), 105 earn between Rs. 21,000–30,000 (32.5%), and three earn above Rs. 30,000 per month (0.9%). Most respondents fall in the salary range of Rs. 13,000–20,000. Work experience data show that 81 participants have been working for less than two years (25.1%), 69 for 3–5 years (21.4%), 97 for 6–10 years (30%), 41 for 10–15 years (12.7%), and 35 for more than 15 years (10.8%). Most respondents had 6–10 years of working experience.

The table 4.2 presents results from a foundation survey of 85 items which all vary on a Five-Point Likert Scale. The minimum value for any item is one and the maximum value is five. The table includes items and statements related to selected variables such as ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, harassment, job burnout, and counterproductive work behaviors. The score of means for different items varies from 1.77–4.38 and the values of standard deviations range from 0.57–5.69 (See Table 4.2). As the reverse coding is not carried on in this study so the mean value of the statements is less than 3 because the statements are negative for which the responses of the items are showing appropriate mean value. The standard deviation is the major component of dispersion and the less value of standard deviation shows less dispersion of data and more reliability.

4.3. Reliability of Measures

Stability in research is founded on the overall reliability of measures. An instrument is said to have a great reliability if it produces similar outcomes under varied conditions. Scores that are highly efficient and precise may be reproduced from one examination to another. That is, if the examining procedure were recurring with different groups of participants, then fundamentally similar outcomes would be obtained. Various kinds of reliability coefficients with values varying between 0.00 (much error) and 1.00 (no error) are used to indicate the level of error in the data and analysis.

Cronbach's alpha demonstrates inner reliability by showing how closely variables are related. A high alpha value does not necessarily suggest that the measure is uni-dimensional, but it

confirms inner reliability. We can conduct additional studies if we wish to prove that the range in question is one-dimensional; exploratory factor research is one method of verifying dimensionality. From a technical perspective, Cronbach's alpha is not a mathematical analysis, but it is a coefficient of reliability (or consistency). Cronbach's alpha can be written as a function that analyzes variables and their average correlation.

Table 4.3: Reliability of measures

Constructs	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Valid N	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Valid N	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Ostracism	245	10	.911	312	10	.719
Incivility	321	12	.912	322	12	.783
Interpersonal conflicts	323	04	.656	323	04	.751
Harassment	323	11	.910	323	11	.890
Job burnout	308	10	.834	322	10	.784
Counterproductive work behavior	323	22	.972	305	22	.843
Emotional intelligence	304	16	.603	323	16	.929

Table 4.3 presents data from the reliability test of constructs used to survey employees. It shows the estimated values of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which demonstrate reliability and internal consistency of measures. The values of Cronbach's alpha vary from 0.603–0.912 for WCWs, which indicates that each multi-item construct shows high reliability except for emotional intelligence, which shows moderate reliability for the current sample of white collar employees. Constructs with very high reliability have an alpha value of 0.90, measures with high reliability range between 0.70–0.90, constructs with moderate reliability have a value between 0.50–0.70, and measures with alpha values below 0.50 show low reliability (Hinton et al., 2004). The reliability values for WCWs are as follows: ostracism at the workplace ($\alpha = .911$), incivility ($\alpha = .912$), interpersonal conflicts ($\alpha = .656$), harassment ($\alpha = .910$), job burnout ($\alpha = .834$), counterproductive work behaviors ($\alpha = .972$), and emotional intelligence ($\alpha = .603$). The alpha values for BCWs are as follows: ostracism at the workplace ($\alpha = .719$), incivility ($\alpha = .783$), interpersonal conflicts ($\alpha = .751$), harassment ($\alpha = .890$), job burnout ($\alpha = .784$), counterproductive work behaviors ($\alpha = .843$), and emotional intelligence ($\alpha = .929$). Constructs with a value of 0.90 and above show very high reliability, those ranging between 0.70–0.90 have a high reliability, constructs in the range of 0.50–0.70 show

moderate reliability, and measures with an alpha value below 0.50 show low reliability (Hinton et al., 2004). A high Cronbach's alpha value exhibits that all items of a construct are internally consistent. Additionally, the constructs items may be used in research across the world. The reliability value of emotional intelligence for white collar jobholders is .603 low as compared to blue collar jobholders i.e. .929 because it may be the difference in their understanding and perception level of the job holders regarding items asked in the instrument. Further, the reliability of a measurement method depends upon the heterogeneity of the population in which the measurements are made (Bartlett and Frost, 2008). In sum, we may say that high construct reliability is directly proportional to the Cronbach's alpha value.

4.4. Principal Component Analysis

Principal component analysis (PCA) is a mathematical process that uses an orthogonal modification to change a set of associated factors into a set of linearly uncorrelated factors known as principal elements. The number of resulting principal elements is less than or equal to the number of unique factors. Each successive element in the conversion has the maximum possible variance under the restriction so that it is orthogonal to the previous elements. PCA is sensitive to the relative increase of unique factor values.

PCA is primarily used in exploratory research and to create predictive designs. The outcomes of a PCA are usually shown in the form of element ratings, sometimes known as aspect ratings (the modified variables corresponding to a particular data point), and loadings (the weight by which each consistent unique variable should be increased to get the element score). PCA is the simplest of the real Eigen vector-based multivariate studies. Often, its function can be looked at as a way to expose the inner framework of the data set in a way that best describes differences in the data. If a multivariate data set is visualized as a set of corresponding variables in a multidimensional matrix (one axis per variable), PCA can provide a lower-dimensional image. Thus, it is most useful as a projector screen or "shadow" of the matrix. PCA is conducted using only the first few principal elements so that the dimensionality of the modified data set decreases.

Table 4.4.1: KMO measure of sampling adequacy test and Bartlett's test of sphericity

Constructs	No. of Items	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
		KMO	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	<i>p</i>	KMO	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	<i>p</i>
OST	10	.776	1790.94	.000	.527	911.33	.000
INCV	12	.733	3446.95	.000	.635	1489.74	.000
INPC	4	.673	314.19	.000	.599	135.441	.000
HAR	11	.749	3427.80	.000	.570	862.966	.000
JB	10	.709	2385.80	.000	.516	1120.22	.000
CWB	22	.844	12696.56	.000	.740	6138.350	.000
EMIT	16	.755	4642.353	.000	.774	4234.64	.000

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy indicates the suitability of employing factor analysis. The value of KMO varies between 0–1. If the KMO value is zero, the application of factor analysis is inappropriate, but if the value of KMO is one, factor analysis is appropriate. A KMO value of 0.50 is poor, 0.60 is acceptable, and a value closer to one is most desirable. The results suggest that the value of KMO for each construct is above the recommended acceptable level of 0.60. For WCWs, the KMO value is 0.776 for ostracism, 0.733 for incivility, 0.673 for interpersonal conflicts, 0.749 for harassment, 0.709 for job burnout, 0.844 for counterproductive work behavior, and 0.755 for emotional intelligence. So PCA is an appropriate test for these data. Bartlett's test of sphericity is used to check that the relationship between the items in a construct is statistically significant. The data in the above table indicate that the *p*-value of Bartlett's test in all constructs of WCWs is significant at less than 0.000, which provides evidence against the null hypothesis of no correlation.

On the other hand, for BCWs, the value of KMO is 0.527 for ostracism, 0.635 for incivility, 0.599 for interpersonal conflicts, 0.570 for harassment, 0.516 for job burnout, 0.740 for counterproductive work behavior, and 0.744 for emotional intelligence. PCA is appropriate for the data on BCWs. The above table reflects that the *p*-value for Bartlett's test in the constructs for BCWs is significant at less than 0.000, which provide evidence against the null hypothesis of no correlation. OST indicates ostracism, INCV represents incivility, INPC represents interpersonal conflicts, HAR is harassment, JB stands for job burnout, CWB represents counterproductive work behaviors, and EMIT stands for emotional intelligence.

Table 4.4.2: Eigen values and total variance

Constructs	Components	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
		Initial Eigen Values			Initial Eigen Values		
		Total	% of Variance	Cumulative % of Variance	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative % of Variance
OST	1	5.636	56.364	56.364	2.996	29.962	29.962
INCV	1	6.181	51.508	51.508	3.714	30.949	30.949
INPC	1	2.183	54.585	54.585	1.739	43.469	43.469
HAR	1	6.087	55.355	55.355	2.429	22.078	22.078
JB	1	4.815	48.152	48.152	2.902	29.017	29.017
CWB	1	14.388	65.401	65.401	8.923	40.558	40.558
EMIT	1	6.480	40.500	40.500	7.918	49.488	49.488

When the principal component has a value greater than 1, it may be used for further analyses. As the results indicate, OST explains 56.364% of variance, INCV accounts for 51.508% of variance, INPC accounts for 54.585%, HAR accounts for 55.355%, JB accounts for 48.152%, CWB accounts for 65.401%, and EMIT is responsible for 40.500% of variance in WCWs.

The factor loadings for all constructs are presented in the table 4.4.3, which shows the load of each item on its respective principle component. The results satisfy the standard conditions of construct validity, that discriminant validity requires loadings to be at least 0.40 and the convergent validity requires that cross loadings do not exceed 0.40. The minimum Eigen value of loadings is 0.40, which is fulfilled, and indicates that the data are reliable. The results clearly show that there is principle component for each construct. It is believed that all items related to one component should have a loading value above 0.40, which is a bare minimum suggested value by Information System (IS) research (Straub et al., 2004). PCA extracts one component for each construct, including ostracism (10 items), incivility (12 items), interpersonal conflict (4 items), harassment (11 items), job burnout (10 items), counterproductive work behavior (20 items), and emotional intelligence (16 items). The extracted loading values of all items of WCWs in the study vary between 0.446–0.961 and in BCWs, they vary between 0.487–0.971. Hence, the overall results of the factor analysis satisfy the criteria of construct validity.

4.5. Correlation Analysis

In research, dependency or organization of any statistical connection (whether causal or not) between two unique factors or two categories of information is important to consider.

Correlation is a type of statistical test typically used in data analyses. Hence, it most often signifies the extent to which two factors have a linear connection with each other. Examples of connected phenomena are the correlation between parents and their children, and the correlation between the need for an item and its cost. Correlations are useful because they can indicate a predictive relationship, which can be utilized in discourse.

Table 4.5: Correlations

Constructs	White Collar Employees						Blue Collar Employees					
	OST	INCV	INPC	HAR	JB	CWB	OST	INCV	INPC	HAR	JB	CWB
OST	1						1					
INCV	.673**	1					.061	1				
INPC	.389**	.477**	1				.064	-.020	1			
HAR	-.020	.442**	.580**	1			.341**	-.195**	.410**	1		
JB	-.160*	.221**	.495**	.766**	1		.342**	.174**	.166**	.151**	1	
CWB	.205**	.220**	.577**	.578**	.550**	1	.399**	-.090	.164**	.358**	.070	1
**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).												
*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).												

Table 4.5 shows the correlation analysis results. The results show the correlation coefficients of each construct. Correlation coefficients always fall between +1 and -1, where +1 shows a perfect positive linear correlation and -1 represents a perfect negative linear correlation. These values are hardly seen, as there are few perfect linear associations. A value of zero or any value close to zero reveals no association between variables.

Majority of the correlations for constructs of WCWs are statistically significant. There is a positive and significant correlation between incivility and ostracism ($r = .673, p < .01$). Interpersonal conflicts and ostracism have a positive and significant correlation ($r = .389, p < .01$). Interpersonal conflicts and incivility show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .477, p < .01$). Harassment and ostracism show no relationship, but harassment and incivility show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .442, p < .01$), and harassment and interpersonal conflicts show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .580, p < .01$). Job burnout and ostracism are negatively and significantly correlated ($r = -.061, p < .01$). Job burnout is positively and significantly correlated with incivility ($r = .221, p < .01$). Job burnout and interpersonal conflicts are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .495, p < .01$). Job burnout and harassment show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .766, p < .01$).

.01). Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .205, p < .01$), incivility and counterproductive work behavior have a positive and significant correlation ($r = .220, p < .01$), and counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .577, p < .01$). Counterproductive work behavior and harassment show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .578, p < .01$) and lastly, counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .550, p < .01$).

In the case of BCWs, the results of the correlation analysis indicate a majority of statistically significant values. Incivility and ostracism have a positive and non-significant correlation ($r = .061, p > .01$), interpersonal conflicts and ostracism are positively correlated but not significant ($r = .064, p > .01$), and interpersonal conflicts and incivility are negatively correlated but not statistically significant ($r = -.020, p > .01$). Harassment and ostracism show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .341, p < .01$), harassment and incivility show a negative and significant correlation value ($r = -.195, p < .01$), and harassment and interpersonal conflicts are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .410, p < .01$). Job burnout and ostracism are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .342, p < .01$), job burnout and incivility have a positive and significant correlation ($r = .174, p < .01$), and job burnout and interpersonal conflicts are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .166, p < .01$). Job burnout and harassment are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .151, p < .01$). Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .399, p < .01$), counterproductive work behavior and incivility are negatively but not significantly correlated ($r = -.090$), and counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts are positively and significantly correlated ($r = .164, p < .01$). Counterproductive work behavior and harassment show a positive and significant correlation ($r = .358, p < .01$) and finally, counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show no significant relationship ($r = .070, p > .01$).

4.6. Regression Analysis (Multiple Regression Analysis for Simple Relationship)

In statistical modeling, regression research is a mathematical process for calculating the connections between factors. Regression analysis contains many techniques for modeling and examining several factors, when the main focus is on the connection between a dependent variable and one or more independent factors or predictors. More specifically, regression

research helps one understand how the dependent variable (or criterion variable) changes when any one of the independent factors is altered. Normally, regression research reports the expectations of the dependent variable given a certain behavior of the independent variable, and the average value of the dependent variable when the independent variable is set.

Regression research is commonly used for forecasting and predicting; its use has significant overlap with the field of machine learning. Regression research is also used to comprehend which of the independent variables is associated with the dependent variable, and reveals the nature of these relationships. In certain research, regression analyses can be used to infer causal connections between the independent and dependent variables. However, this can lead to incorrect assumptions, so it is advisable to proceed with caution.

Table 4.6: Direct effects of interpersonal mistreatments on counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variables	White Collar Workers	Blue Collar Workers
	Dependent Variable (CWB)	
Constant	-.250	-.140
Significance Value	(.000)	(.000)
Ostracism	.114	.194
	(.008)	(.000)
Incivility	-.003	-.014
	(.962)	(.715)
Interpersonal conflict	.056	.114
	(.272)	(.007)
Harassment	.396	.286
	(.000)	(.000)
R ²	.395	.313

Table 4.6 presents the regression results for interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment), job burnout, and counterproductive work behaviors. In WCWs, the results show that counterproductive work behavior has positive and significant relationships with ostracism ($\beta = .114$, $p = .008$) and harassment ($\beta = .396$, $p = .000$). In BCWs, counterproductive work behavior has positive and significant relationships with ostracism ($\beta = .194$, $p = .008$), interpersonal conflicts ($\beta = .114$, $p = .007$), and harassment ($\beta = .286$, $p = .000$). A regression analysis shows that interpersonal mistreatments explain 39% of the variance in counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs ($R^2 = .395$), while interpersonal mistreatments account for 31% of the variance in BCWs ($R^2 = .313$).

4.7. Mediation Analysis

In research, one that identifies and explains the procedure or underlying procedure in an observed relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable via the addition of a third theoretical variable, known as an linking variable (also a mediating variable). Rather than a direct causal connection between the independent and the dependent variables, an mediation design suggests that the independent variable impacts the (non-observable) intermediary variable, which in turn impacts the dependent variable. Thus, the arbitrator variable serves to explain the nature of the link between the independent and dependent variables. Mediation analysis offers a better understanding of the link between the independent and dependent variables when the factors appear to have no definite connection. They are analyzed by means of functional explanations and do not exist in isolation.

4.7.1: Step 1 (Interpersonal mistreatments as the independent variable and counterproductive work behaviors as the dependent variable)

Independent Variables	White Collar Workers	Blue Collar Workers
	Dependent Variable (CWB)	
Constant	-.250	-.140
Significance value	(.000)	(.000)
Ostracism	.114*	.194*
	(.008)	(.000)
Incivility	-.003	-.014
	(.962)	(.715)
Interpersonal conflict	.056	.114
	(.272)	(.007)
Harassment	.396	.286
	(.000)	(.000)
R ²	.395	.313

The table above shows the regression results for interpersonal mistreatment (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment), job burnout, and counterproductive work behavior. Evidently, in WCWs, counterproductive work behavior has positive and significant relationships with ostracism ($\beta = .114$, $p = .008$) and harassment ($\beta = .396$, $p = .000$). In BCWs, counterproductive work behavior has positive and significant relationships with ostracism ($\beta = .194$, $p = .008$), interpersonal conflicts ($\beta = .114$, $p = .007$), and harassment ($\beta = .286$, $p = .000$). The regression analysis shows that interpersonal mistreatments explain 39% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior in WCWs ($R^2 = .395$), while they only account for 31% of the variance in BCWs ($R^2 = .313$).

4.7.2: Step 2 (Interpersonal mistreatments as the independent variable and the dependent variable as the mediating variable of job burnout)

Independent Variables	White Collar Employees	Blue Collar Employees
	Dependent Variable	
	Job Burnout	
Ostracism	-.88** (.049)	.088* (.013)
Incivility	-.183* (.000)	.229* (.000)
Interpersonal Conflicts	.202* (.002)	.121* (.043)
Harassment	.626* (.000)	.188* (.004)
Adjusted R ²	.536	.480
F-Statistics	66.611 (.000)	18.087 (.000)

Next, a regression is performed to determine whether the mediating variable of job burnout (M) can be predicted from the causal variables of ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment. Results show that in case of WCWs, job burnout is directly and significantly affected by interpersonal conflicts ($\beta = .202, p = .000$) and harassment ($\beta = .626, p = .000$); job burnout is negatively but statistically significantly related to ostracism ($\beta = -.88, p = .04$) and incivility ($\beta = -.183, p = .000$). Results from BCWs indicate that job burnout is directly and significantly affected by ostracism ($\beta = .088, p = .013$), incivility ($\beta = .229, p = .000$), interpersonal conflicts ($\beta = .121, p = .043$), and harassment ($\beta = .188, p = .004$).

4.7.3: Step 3 (The mediating variable of job burnout is the independent variable and counterproductive work behavior is the dependent variable)

Independent Variable	White Collar Employees	Blue Collar Employees
	Dependent Variable	
	Counterproductive Work Behaviors	
Job burnout	.548* (.000)	.068* (.000)
Adjusted R ²	.300	.51
F-Statistics	132.830 (.000)	14.466 (.000)

A regression is performed to predict the outcome variable of counterproductive work behaviors from the mediating variable (M) of job burnout, which is taken as the independent variable. Results indicate that job burnout significantly and positively affects counterproductive work behaviors in both types of employees.

4.7.4: Step 4 (Independent variable of interpersonal mistreatments and mediating variable of job burnout are the independent variables and counterproductive work behavior is the dependent variable)

Independent variables	Dependent Variables: Counterproductive Work Behavior							
	White Collar Employees				Blue Collar Employees			
Ostracism	.142** (.000)				.692** (.000)			
Incivility		.097 (0.43)				.676** (.000)		
Interpersonal Conflicts			.395** (.000)				.863** (.000)	
Harassment				.316** (.000)				.467** (.000)
Job burnout	0.336** (.000)	.530** (.000)	.349** (.000)	.307** (.000)	0.090 (.201)	.099 (.173)	.065 (.363)	.251* (.013)
Adjusted R ²	.255	0.305	.426	.339	.594	.582	.643	.495
F-Statistics	40.281	67.954	112.965	79.840	210.835	200.829	263.044	148.670

Finally, multiple regression analyses are performed to test the mediation of job burnout on counterproductive work behaviors and ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment. Results show that in WCWs, in case of WCW job burnout significantly mediates between interpersonal mistreatment and CWB ($\beta = .336, p = .000; \beta = .538, p = .000; \beta = .349, p = .000; \beta = .307, p = .000$) where as In case of BCW job burnout insignificantly mediates between interpersonal mistreatment and CWB ($\beta = .090, p = .201$) ($\beta = .099, p = .173$) ($\beta = .065, p = .363$) except harassment & CWB ($\beta = .251, p = .013$). There exists the full mediation in case of incivility of white collar jobholders and partial mediation in case of all other forms of interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors of both types of jobholders.

4.8. Hierarchical Regression Analysis of White Collar Workers and Blue Collar Job Holders

In research, a regression analysis is used to study the connection between two factors that rely upon a third variable. The third variable is generally known as the mediator variable or the moderator. The moderator is considered as a third variable that affects the strength of independent and dependent variables in a specific setting. In correlation, a moderator is a third variable that affects the correlation of two variables. In ANOVA, the effect of the moderator variable is represented by the interaction effects between the dependent variable and the factor variable.

Table 4.8.1: Moderating the effects of emotional intelligence on ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variable	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS					
	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	-.426 (.000)	-.410* (.000)	-.410* (.000)	-.119 (.007)	-.122 (.005)	-.122 (.005)
OST 1	.112* (.004)	.065 (.077)	.065 (.084)	.333* (.000)	.332* (.000)	.323* (.000)
EMIT 1		-.225* (.000)	-.225* (.000)		.084** (.061)	.082 (.069)
OST_EMIT_CWB			.021 (.990)			-.055 (.289)
R ²	.037	.164	.164	.159	.170	.173

This analysis tries to find the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the interpersonal mistreatment factors of ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In the table above, the dependent variable is counterproductive work behaviors; in Model 1, ostracism is the independent variable, in Model 2, ostracism and emotional intelligence are the independent variables, and in Model 3, the interaction between ostracism and emotional intelligence are treated as independent variables in the hierarchical regression analysis.

The results of the analysis are listed above in Table 4.8.1. Data in Model 1 for WCWs indicate that ostracism significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .112$, $p = .004$). Results from Model 2 show that counterproductive work behaviors are significantly related to ostracism ($\beta = .065$, $p = .077$) and emotional intelligence

($\beta = -.225, p = .000$), and in Model 3, results indicate that ostracism and workplace emotional intelligence do not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = .021, p = .990$). Therefore, emotional intelligence does not play a moderating role between ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .164$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .037$), indicating that emotional intelligence makes a significant contribution to counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs. Therefore, our hypothesis (H14), that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors, is not supported. Hence, we conclude that the presence of emotional intelligence in WCWs of the higher education sector of Pakistan will decrease the intensity of ostracism in the workplace and counterproductive work behaviors.

The results from BCWs in Model 1 indicate that ostracism significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .333, p = .000$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, ostracism is significantly related ($\beta = .332, p = .061$), but emotional intelligence is not a significant influence ($\beta = .084, p = .061$). In Model 3, the interaction of ostracism and workplace emotional intelligence does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = -.055, p = .289$). Therefore, emotional intelligence does not play a moderating role on ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors in BCWs. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .170$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .159$), which indicates that the emotional intelligence has a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviors in BCWs.

Table 4.8.2: Moderating the effects of emotional intelligence on incivility and counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variable	Counterproductive Work Behaviors					
	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	-.022 (.699)	-.023 (.681)	-.023 (.682)	-.118 (.014)	-.120 (.012)	-.087 (.066)
INC	.228* (.000)	.230* (.000)	.217* (.000)	-.056 (.226)	-.038 (.425)	.057 (.274)
EMIT1		-.203* (.000)	-.200* (.000)		.078 (.123)	.023 (.644)
INC_EMIT_CWB			.029 (.632)			.117* (.000)
R^2	.052	.091	.092	.005	.013	.066

This analysis tries to understand the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the interpersonal mistreatment factors of incivility and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In the table above, the dependent variable is counterproductive work behavior; in Model 1, incivility is the independent variable, in Model 2, incivility and emotional intelligence are treated as independent variables, and in Model 3, the interaction of incivility and emotional intelligence is treated as the independent variable in a hierarchical regression analysis.

The results for WCWs are listed above in Table 4.8.2. The results from Model 1 indicate that incivility significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors at the workplace ($\beta = .228, p = .000$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, incivility ($\beta = .230, p = .000$) and emotional intelligence ($\beta = -.203, p = .000$) show significant results. In Model 3, the interaction of incivility and workplace emotional intelligence does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = .029, p = .632$). Therefore, emotional intelligence does not play a moderating role between incivility and counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .091$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .052$). Thus, emotional intelligence makes a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, our hypothesis (H15), that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on incivility and counterproductive work behaviors, is not supported. Hence, we conclude that the presence of emotional intelligence in BCWs will decrease the occurrence of workplace incivility and counterproductive work behaviors.

The results for the BCWs analyses are reported in Table 4.8.2. The results from Model 1 indicate that incivility does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = -.056, p = .226$). From the regression analysis results in Model 2, incivility is not significantly related ($\beta = -.038, p = .425$) and neither is emotional intelligence ($\beta = .078, p = .123$). In Model 3, the interaction of incivility and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = .117, p = .000$). Therefore, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role between incivility and counterproductive work behaviors. The explanatory power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .013$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .005$), which demonstrates that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors in BCWs.

Table 4.8.3: Moderating the effects of emotional intelligence on interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variable	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS					
	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	-.003 (.944)	-.004 (.935)	.021 (.650)	-.131 (.004)	-.137 (.002)	-.154 (.001)
INIPC	.589* (.000)	.573* (.000)	.603* (.000)	.243* (.000)	.267* (.000)	.185* (.000)
EMIT1		-.141* (.003)	-.092* (.054)		.138* (.003)	.175* (.000)
INIPC_EMIT_CWB			.217* (.000)			-.107* (.004)
R ²	.335	.354	.399	.094	.121	.137

This analysis attempts to find the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the interpersonal mistreatment factors of interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In the table above, the dependent variable is counterproductive work behaviors; in Model 1, interpersonal conflicts is the independent variable, in Model 2, interpersonal conflicts and emotional intelligence are treated as independent variables, and in Model 3, the interaction of interpersonal conflicts with emotional intelligence is treated as the independent variable in a hierarchical regression analysis.

The results are listed above in Table 4.8.3. The results of WCWs in Model 1 indicate that interpersonal conflicts significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .589$, $p = .000$). From the regression analysis of Model 2, interpersonal conflicts ($\beta = .573$, $p = .000$) and emotional intelligence ($\beta = -.141$, $p = .003$) show significant results. In Model 3, the interaction of interpersonal conflicts and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = -.217$, $p = .000$). Therefore, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .354$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .335$), which shows that emotional intelligence makes a significant contribution to counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, our hypothesis (H16), stating that there is moderating effect of emotional intelligence between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors, is not supported. Hence, we conclude that presence of emotional intelligence in white collar employees will decrease the intensity of workplace interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors.

The results of BCWs in Model 1 indicate that interpersonal conflicts do not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors at the workplace ($\beta = .243, p = .000$). From the regression analysis results in Model 2, interpersonal conflict is a significant influencer ($\beta = .267, p = .000$), while emotional intelligence is not significant ($\beta = .138, p = .003$). In Model 3, the interaction of interpersonal conflicts and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = -.107, p = .004$). Therefore, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .121$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .094$). Thus, emotional intelligence makes a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors in BCWs.

Table 4.8.4: Moderating the effect of emotional intelligence on harassment and counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variable	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS					
	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	.018 (.704)	.021 (.654)	.036 (.431)	-.144 (.000)	-.143 (.001)	-.072 (.072)
HAR	.599* (.000)	.629* (.000)	.666* (.000)	.414* (.000)	.423* (.000)	.442* (.000)
EMIT1		-.273* (.000)	-.294* (.000)		-.033 (.453)	-.105* (.014)
HAR_EMIT_CWB			-.120* (.014)			-.256* (.000)
R ²	.333	.403	.414	.268	.269	.353

This analysis tries to find the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the interpersonal mistreatment factors of harassment and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In the table above, the dependent variable is counterproductive work behaviors; in Model 1, harassment is the independent variable, in Model 2, harassment and emotional intelligence are independent variables. In Model 3, the interaction of harassment and emotional intelligence is treated as the independent variable in a hierarchical regression analysis.

The results are listed above in Table 4.8.4. Results for WCWs in Model 1 indicate that harassment significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .599, p = .000$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, harassment ($\beta = .629, p = .000$) and emotional intelligence ($\beta = -.273, p = .000$) show significant results. In Model 3,

the interaction of harassment and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = -.120, p = .014$). Therefore, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role between harassment and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .330$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .298$), which shows that emotional intelligence has a significant influence on counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, our hypothesis (H17), that emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on harassment and counterproductive work behaviors, is not supported. Hence, we conclude that the presence of emotional intelligence among WCWs will decrease the intensity of workplace harassment and counterproductive work behaviors.

The BCWs results for Model 1 indicate that harassment does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .414, p = .000$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, harassment is significant ($\beta = .423, p = .000$), while emotional intelligence is not significant ($\beta = -.033, p = .453$). In Model 3, the interaction of harassment and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = -.256, p = .000$). Therefore, emotional intelligence plays a moderating role on the association between harassment and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .269$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .268$), which indicates that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors in BCWs.

Table 4.8.5: Moderating the effects of emotional intelligence on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors

Independent Variable	COUNTERPRODUCTIVE WORK BEHAVIORS					
	White Collar Employees			Blue Collar Employees		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Constant	.048 (.346)	.047 (.345)	.049 (.323)	-.115 (.016)	-.119** (.013)	-.115** (.017)
JB	.545* (.000)	.538* (.000)	.551* (.000)	-.010 (.828)	-.003 (.950)	.025 (.627)
EMIT1		-.179* (.000)	-.174* (.000)		.085 (.002**)	.083 (.091)
JB_EMIT_CWB			.046 (.293)			.040 (.224)
R ²	.298	.330	.333	.000	.011	.016

This analysis tries to find the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In the above

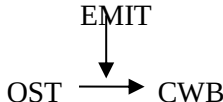
table, the dependent variable is counterproductive work behaviors; in Model 1, job burnout is the independent variable, in Model 2, job burnout and emotional intelligence are treated as independent variables, and in Model 3, the interaction between job burnout and emotional intelligence is treated as an independent variable.

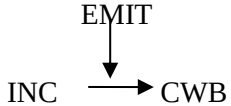
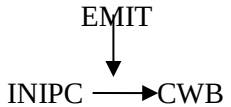
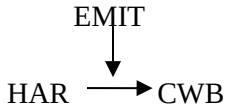
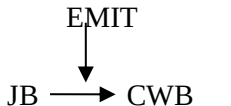
The WCW results in Model 1 indicate that job burnout significantly influences counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = .545, p = .000$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, job burnout and emotional intelligence show significant results ($\beta = .538, p = .000$), and in Model 3, the product of job burnout and workplace emotional intelligence does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = .046, p = .293$). Therefore, emotional intelligence does not play a moderating role on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .330$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .298$), which shows that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors. Therefore, our hypothesis (H13), that emotional intelligence has a moderating effect on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors, is not supported. Hence, we conclude that emotional intelligence in WCWs will decrease the intensity of job burnout and counterproductive work behavior.

The BCW results from Model 1 indicate that job burnout does not significantly influence counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace ($\beta = -.010, p = .828$). From the regression analysis result in Model 2, job burnout is not significant ($\beta = -.003, p = .950$) and emotional intelligence is significant ($\beta = .085, p = .002$). In Model 3, the interaction of job burnout and workplace emotional intelligence is not significantly related to counterproductive work behaviors ($\beta = .040, p = .224$). Therefore, emotional intelligence does not play a moderating role on job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors. However, the descriptive power of Model 2 ($R^2 = .011$) is higher than that of Model 1 ($R^2 = .000$), which demonstrates that emotional intelligence has a significant impact on counterproductive work behaviors.

4.9. Mediated Moderation Analysis

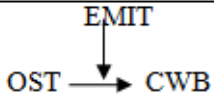
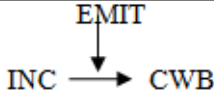
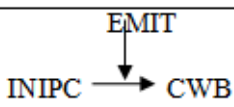
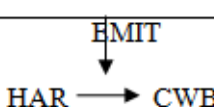
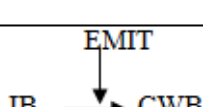
Table 4.9.1: Results of indirect effects (mediated moderation effect for white collar employees)

Hypothesis Tested	Paths	Effect	P-value	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	Remarks
H13		2.131	0.000	-.132	-.0024	Statistically significant mediated moderation

H14		1.769	0.001	-.0452	-.0027	Statistically significant mediated moderation
H15		3.124	0.031	-.0236	-.0198	Statistically significant mediated moderation
H16		0.160	0.621	.0781	-.1562	Not statistically significant mediated moderation
H17		1.321	0.042	-0.2131	-.1321	Statistically significant mediated moderation

To check the mediated moderation effect of emotional intelligence between different dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment, job burnout and counterproductive work behaviour, we used Hayes' (2013) model that is the most important and reliable model to check the mediated moderation effect easily, which is not possible by any simple test. It is basically a plug-in that is used to enable the SPSS to run mediated moderation or moderated mediation. In this test, different dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment are used as independent variables (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment), job burnout is the mediating variable, and counterproductive work behaviour is used as a dependent variable. From the output of Hayes' model, it is clear that all mediated moderation effects of different models have proven statistically significant except harassment, because in case of harassment that might be ethically or sexually emotional intelligence cannot work. The results depict that in case of moderating effect of EI on OST and CWB (effect = 2.131, $p = .000$, boot LCCI = -.132, boot ULCI = -.0024), while in case of INC and CWB (effect = 1.769, $p = .001$, boot LCCI = -.0452, boot ULCI = -.0027), for INPC and CWB (effect = 3.124, $p = .031$, boot LCCI = -.0236, boot ULCI = -.0198), for HAR and CWB (effect = 0.160, $p = .161$, boot LCCI = -.0781, boot ULCI = -.1562), and lastly for JB and CWB (effect = 1.321, $p = .042$, boot LCCI = -0.2131, boot ULCI = -.1321). These all results show that the values of indirect effect are greater than standard value, significance values are less than .05, and boot LCCI & boot ULCI have similar values, except for harassment. So we can conclude that emotional intelligence significantly moderated the relationship between dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment and job burnout with counterproductive work behaviour, except for harassment.

Table 4.9.2: Results of indirect effects (mediated moderation effect for blue collar workers)

Hypothesis Tested	Paths	Effect	P-value	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI	Remarks
H13		3.212	0.56	-.215	.543	No statistically significant mediated moderation
H14		0.769	0.261	-.324	.012	No statistically significant mediated moderation
H15		0.121	0.324	-.021	.035	No statistically significant mediated moderation
H16		0.132	0.216	.052	-.192	No statistically significant mediated moderation
H17		0.432	0.126	0.351	-.543	No statistically significant mediated moderation

To check the mediated moderation effect of emotional intelligence on different dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment, job burnout, and counterproductive work behaviour for blue collar workers, we used Hayes (2013) model. In this test, different dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment are used as independent variables (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, harassment), job burnout is the mediating variable, and counterproductive work behaviour is used as the dependent variable. From the output of Hayes' model, it is clear that all mediated moderation effects of different models had not proved statistically significant. The results depict that in case of moderating effect of EI on OST and CWB (effect = .212, $p = .050$, boot LCCI = -.215, boot ULCI = -.534), while in case of INC and CWB (effect = .769, $p = .261$, boot LCCI = -.324, boot ULCI = -.012), for INPC and CWB (effect = .121, $p = .324$, boot LCCI = -.021, boot ULCI = .035), for HAR and CWB (effect = 0.132, $p = .216$, boot LCCI = .052, boot ULCI = -.192), and lastly for JB and CWB (effect = .432, $p = .120$, boot LCCI = .351, boot ULCI = -.543). These results show that the values of indirect effect are less than standard value, significance values are greater than .05, and boot LCCI & boot ULCI have different signs. So we can conclude that emotional intelligence does not significantly moderate the relationship between dimensions of interpersonal mistreatment and job burnout with counterproductive work behaviour harassment in all models.

4.10. Independent Samples *t*-Test

The independent samples *t*-test assesses and analyses the differences between two individuals or groups. The independent samples *t*-test is known as a between-groups design and can be used to assess a control and experimental group. With an independent samples *t*-test, each situation must have ratings on two factors—the independent variable and the dependent variable. The independent variable separates cases into two unique groups such as girls and boys for the independent variable of sex, while the dependent variable explains each situation using a quantitative measure such as assessment of performance. The independent samples *t*-test is used when two individual groups in a normally distributed sample are acquired and one individual from each of the two groups is considered.

Table 4.10.1: Independent samples *t*-test

Group Statistics								
	Employee	N	Mean	SD	<i>t</i>	df	<i>p</i>	Results
Ostracism	WCW	320	2.4023	1.01784	5.211	463.05	.000	H18 supported
	BCW	323	2.0723	.49911				
Incivility	WCW	318	2.4374	.77203	5.711	547.7378	.000	H19 supported
	BCW	322	2.1418	.50878				
Interpersonal conflicts	WCW	323	2.2810	.64525	2.193	639.18	0.02	H20 supported
	BCW	323	2.1741	.59145				
Harassment	WCW	323	2.0386	.58177	0.69	556.33	0.49	H21 rejected
	BCW	323	2.0118	.38224				
Job burnout	WCW	319	2.2094	.57891	0.75	620.0828	0.45	H22 rejected
	BCW	322	2.1776	.48989				
CWB	WCW	323	2.3194	.72303	2.325	630.9618	0.02	H23 supported
	BCW	310	2.1880	.69937				

To understand the results of differences in the two mean values in a *t*-test, the *p*-value is considered. In the above table, when the *p*-values are less than the threshold significance values, it implies that the difference in means is statistically significant at 0.1, 0.05, and 0.01 levels. This *p*-value is indicated by “sig” in the SPSS output, which stands for significance level. To confirm the correct significance level for independent sample *t*-test, the focus is on the *t*-test for equality of means in a column labeled “sig (2-tailed)”. Finally, the significance value is observed in the second row titled “equal variances not assumed”. Here the focus is on the second row as there is no reason to assume that the amount of variation within each

group is equal to the p -value in both rows. Note that since the p -value given by SPSS is 2-tailed, it has to be divided in half for a 1-tailed test. In the table above, a 1-tailed p -value is 0.001.

There is a difference between the workplace ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, harassment, job burnout, and counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs and BCWs; the mean value of workplace ostracism in WCWs is 2.4023 and the mean value of BCWs is 2.0723. Moreover, the p -value of 0.000 is less than the 0.05, which indicates that the hypothesis stating that there is a difference between ostracism in WCWs and BCWs is supported. So, we conclude that WCWs are more involved in workplace ostracism as compared to BCWs.

In the case of incivility, the p -value of 0.000 is less than 0.05, which indicates that the hypothesis proposing that there is a difference between the incivility of WCWs and BCWs is supported. The mean value of workplace incivility in WCWs is 2.4374 and the mean value in BCWs is 2.1418. As the mean value of workplace incivility in WCWs is greater than in BCWs, we conclude that WCWs are more involved in activities of workplace incivility as compared to BCWs.

In the case of harassment, the p -value of 0.49 is greater than the threshold of 0.05, indicating that the hypothesis is rejected because there is no difference between the harassment in WCWs and BCWs. The mean value of workplace harassment in WCWs is 2.0386 and the mean value in BCWs is 2.0118. As the mean value of workplace harassment of WCWs is greater than BCWs, we conclude that WCWs are more involved in activities of workplace harassment as compared to BCWs.

In the case of interpersonal conflicts, the p -value of 0.029 is less than 0.05, which indicates that the hypothesis stating that there is a difference between the interpersonal conflicts of WCWs and BCWs is supported. The mean value of interpersonal conflicts in WCWs is 2.2810 and the mean value in BCWs is 2.1741. The mean value of interpersonal conflict in WCWs is greater than in BCWs, so we conclude that WCWs are more involved in interpersonal conflict as compared to BCWs.

In the case of job burnout, the p -value of 0.45 is greater than 0.05, which indicates that the hypothesis is rejected and conveys that there is no difference between job burnout in WCWs

and BCWs. The mean value of job burnout in WCWs is 2.2094 and the mean value in BCWs is 2.1776. As the mean value of job burnout in WCWs is greater than BCWs, we conclude that WCWs demonstrate more job burnout than BCWs.

In the case of counterproductive work behaviors the p -value of 0.02 is less than 0.05, indicating that the hypothesis is accepted and there is a difference between counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs and BCWs. As the mean value of counterproductive work behaviors in WCWs is 2.3194 and in BCWs it is 2.1880, the occurrence of counterproductive work behavior in WCWs is greater than in BCWs. So, we conclude that WCWs engage in more counterproductive work behaviors than BCWs.

Table 4.10.2: Result Summary of Hypothesized Framework

Hypotheses		Results (WCW)	Results (BCW)
H1	There is a significant relationship between workplace ostracism and job burnout.	Supported Table 4.7.2	Supported Table 4.7.2
H2	There is a significant relationship between workplace incivility and job burnout.	Supported Table 4.7.2	Supported Table 4.7.2
H3	There is a significant relationship between interpersonal conflicts and job burnout.	Supported Table 4.7.2	Supported Table 4.7.2
H4	There is a significant relationship between workplace harassment and job burnout.	Supported Table 4.7.2	Supported Table 4.7.2
H5	There is a significant relationship between workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behavior.	Supported Table 4.7.1	Supported Table 4.7.1
H6	There is a significant relationship between workplace incivility and counterproductive work behavior.	Not supported Table 4.7.1	Not supported Table 4.7.1
H7	There is a significant relationship between workplace harassment and counterproductive work behavior.	Supported Table 4.7.1	Supported Table 4.7.1
H8	There is a significant relationship between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behavior.	Not supported Table 4.7.1	Supported Table 4.7.1
H9	Job burnout mediates the effects of workplace ostracism on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported	Supported Table

		Table 4.7.4	4.7.4
H10	Job burnout mediates the effects of workplace incivility on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.7.4	Not supported Table 4.7.4
H11	Job burnout mediates the effects of workplace harassment on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.7.4	Supported Table 4.7.4
H12	Job burnout mediates the effects of interpersonal conflicts on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.7.4	Supported Table 4.7.4
H13	Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of workplace ostracism on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.8.1	Not supported Table 4.8.1
H14	Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of workplace incivility on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.8.2	Supported Table 4.8.2
H15	Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of workplace interpersonal conflict on counterproductive work behaviors.	Supported Table 4.8.3	Supported Table 4.8.3
H16	Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of workplace harassment on counterproductive work behaviors.	Supported Table 4.8.4	Supported Table 4.8.4
H17	Emotional intelligence moderates the effects of job burnout on counterproductive work behaviors.	Not supported Table 4.8.5	Not supported Table 4.8.5
H18	There is a difference in workplace ostracism between white collar and blue collar workers.	Supported Table 4.9.1	
H19	There is a difference in workplace incivility between white collar and blue collar workers.	Supported Table 4.9.1	
H20	There is a difference in interpersonal conflicts between white collar and blue collar workers.	Supported Table 4.9.1	
H21	There is a difference in workplace harassment between white collar and blue collar workers.	Not supported Table 4.9.1	
H22	There is a difference in job burnout between white collar and blue collar workers.	Not supported Table 4.9.1	
H23	There is difference in counterproductive work behaviors between white collar and blue collar workers.	Supported Table 4.9.1 .	

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the detailed statistical analysis undertaken was described in different steps. In the first part, the descriptive analysis of the variables was presented, which was separated on the basis of white collar and blue collar workers. In the second part, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was applied along with factor loadings, KMO, and Bartlett's test of sphericity, and Eigen values showing the percentages of variances were analyzed. In the third step, a correlation test was used to determine the nature of association among the variables. Next, a regression analysis was performed to determine the percentage of variance accounted for by the independent variables. Then, a mediation analysis was used, applying the Barron and Kenny method (Hayes, 2009) at different points. In the next step, a moderation analysis was performed on different variables in the model. Finally, white collar and blue collar workers were compared using an independent samples *t*-test and the results were interpreted and analyzed. A detailed discussion will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 - Discussion

This study investigates employees' perceptions of mistreatment in the workplace and how mistreatment is associated with counterproductive work behaviors. Even though a vast amount of literature investigating the occupational and situational factors influencing the outcome of counterproductive work behavior is available (Fox et al., 2001; Sakurai & Jex, 2012), little research has particularly focused on all the forms of interpersonal workplace mistreatments—ostracism, incivility, interpersonal mistreatments, and harassment.

Initially, these views, combined with evidential support, illuminated various types of aggressive and derisive conduct at institutions, especially in the form of teacher-student relationships, leadership acts (Hershcovis, 2011; Meier & Spector, 2013), and laterally, the quality of interpersonal relationships in collaborations and employee retention (Bowling & Beehr, 2006b). A lack of comprehensive literature on conflict and misconduct provides the impetus to focus on the operational and interactive aspects of disagreements, conflicts, bitterness, antagonism, and aggression in the work environment. Certain organizational and workplace characteristics can contribute to the incidence of mistreatments at work (Boddy, 2014). In academic settings, particularly the higher educational sector, there is a dearth of research available in Pakistan, and interpersonal mistreatments have not adequately been attended to. Therefore, this study addressed the need for rigorous research on the workplace in academic settings.

The present study was undertaken to deal with the above mentioned dimensions in work settings. Our initial concern was to deal with the adverse effects of different kinds and occurrences of interpersonal mistreatments amongst employees at universities in Pakistan. The next most important concern of this study was to consider interpersonal mistreatment as the independent variable and the dependent variable as counterproductive work behaviors, both of which are usually obvious in academia. The theoretical and practical concern of the present work was to establish an understanding of the different forms of interpersonal mistreatments, i.e., ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment, and how higher educational employees in divergent occupational domains (blue collar and white collar employees) confront mistreatment. We aimed to utilize these findings to propose concrete solutions and form a solid foundation for future research on higher educational employees.

An important aim of this work was to bridge the gaps in the literature by investigating how ostracism leads to the occurrence of counterproductive work behaviors. The existing research has put forth evidence that coworkers and bosses are the sources of ostracism, and that counterproductive work behaviors are closely associated. Further, if high ranking employees (i.e., top management) face ostracism, then the counterproductive work behavior will consequently be at a higher level, as is also evident from the results of our study.

Much of the literature on the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors concentrates on measuring performance in the manufacturing and corporate sectors (Hawke & Heffernan, 2006; Heffernan et al., 2008). The performance of an individual, which is recognized as the foundation of organizational performance and as closer to workplace interactions, has been largely ignored (Aram et al., 1971; Koopmans et al., 2011; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002; Zaheer et al., 1998). Besides, the higher education sector, which is considered a substantial building block in the human capital of a nation (Kaufman & Baer, 2009; Lee, 2005) is not a widely researched area, especially with respect to blue collar and white collar employees. In the context of higher educational institutions in developing countries, very few studies exist that investigate the impact of interpersonal mistreatments on counterproductive work behaviors in two different categories of employees in higher education institutions (Bahrami, 2010; Carlos & Rodrigues, 2013). Similarly, the few studies that have examined the impact of interpersonal relationships at the higher education level in Pakistan (Bahrami, 2010; Karlsen & Nazroo, 2006; Warda et al., 2015) either lack theoretical reasoning or do not present a holistic view of organizational behaviors and their effects on different aspects of employees' performances. The capability of higher education institutions to respond to the rapidly growing demands of a knowledge-intensive economy and to capitalize on emerging trends is dependent on the effective performance of teachers. Thus in Pakistan, the role of interpersonal interactions in the workplace is critical to provide a boost to the economy by providing employees with supportive workplaces environments.

As far as academia is concerned, no one can deny the importance of workplace behaviors, especially because universities are responsible for developing the perspicacity of the nation. This study is significant to higher education institutes as greater intellect, productivity, and creativity are required at this level of academia. Teachers and professors are considered as assets to the nation if they are treated well and given enough space, so much so that one can

witness the nation's progress and that of upcoming generations through the work of educators (Sulea et al., 2012). If employees are not productive during working hours, it can negatively impact the institute from the point of view of progress.

Counterproductive work behaviors are the combination of different conducts, which are opposed to mandated behaviors, and may be harmful for the organization, employees, and stakeholders (Spector, 2006; Sackett, 2002) and may put the institution at risk (Penney & Spector, 2005). Counterproductive work behaviors are associated with personality traits like narcissism (Paulhus & Williams, 2002), sociability (Nie, 2001), disappointment (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004), jealousy (White & Mullen, 1989), and abusive emotions (Yu & Hu, 2009). Other factors that might contribute to counterproductive work behaviors are job ambiguity, job insecurity, a lack of career prospects, an unsuitable reward set up (Shamsudin et al., 2011), lack of encouragement (Stipek, 2002), obnoxious supervision (Bamberger & Bacharach, 2006), stressful situations, intentions of leaving, hating the organization (Muafi, 2011), injustice (Hammond, 1996), non-acceptance by coworkers (Parker & Griffin, 2002), job stress (Spector et al., 2000), and mistreatment by people in leadership roles (Blase & Blase, 2002). Counterproductive work behavior may take on various forms like sabotage, theft, emotional and verbal abuse, deliberately diminishing efforts, deceit, a lack of cooperation, and harassment (Einarsen & Hoel, 2008).

It seems that workers who have been subjected to harassment have also experienced incivility. In this study, data were collected by focusing only on gender and ethnic harassment due to the respondents' reluctance to rate statements related to the word "harassment" and being afraid of answering embarrassing questions. The association and co-occurrence of all the forms of workplace interpersonal mistreatments seem to be interrelated and interconnected. In fact, it seems as if the perpetrator of the different forms of mistreatments may be the same individual, who acts in an effort to debase others and reinforce or enhance personal social benefit.

The findings from the behavior of such provokers would be the mutual demonstration of social exclusion (ostracism), bad manners, and behaviors in the workplace considered as incivility, as well as interpersonal conflicts related to ethnicity and gender harassment. This is an argument in favor of the notion that harassment is not limited to natural sexual attraction, philandering, or flirting. Indeed, current studies raise questions about the links between

gender, empowerment, and mistreatments in the workplace, which clearly support the necessity of more research.

Various studies have been done on counterproductive work behaviors at the interpersonal level in the workplace, using different variables like envy, narcissism, social stressors, and bad social relations (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006; Cohen-Charash & Mueller, 2007; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Penney & Spector, 2002). At the organizational level, the impact of incivility, deviance, and poor work quality on counterproductive work behaviors has been investigated (Miles et al., 2002; Penney & Spector, 2005). The present study focused on the different behaviors that affect the organization, such as absenteeism, withdrawal of company assets, less output, etc. Counterproductive work behavior was the dependent variable and we looked at four different types of interpersonal mistreatments in the context of higher educational institutions in Pakistan. Although the association between interpersonal conflicts and employees and its impact on interpersonal and organizational outcomes were investigated in the present study, a similar approach has also been presented in the research of Wang, Liao, Zhan, and Shi (2011). Employees who perceive themselves to be ostracized by their coworkers may be concerned about different aspects of workplace while responding to these occurrences. A related study by Bruk-Lee and Spector (2006) investigated interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors and found a strong significant positive relationship between these variables. In comparison to this, a study by Penhaligon, Louis, and Restubog (2009) investigated the association between interpersonal conflicts among coworkers and outcomes such as hopelessness, melancholy, and low self-esteem, which affect organizational outcomes such as turnover, satisfaction, and commitment. Interpersonal conflicts associated with organizational outcomes had a stronger negative relationship than interpersonal conflicts associated with interpersonal outcomes. Thus, further research was needed to understand this inconsistency.

A study investigated employees in academia and their behavioral outcomes and the current study specifically examines interpersonal mistreatment and behavioral outcomes in the form of counterproductive work behaviors (Thau et al., 2009; Bibi et al., 2013). Consistent with past work, Wei and Si (2013) revealed that personality characteristics are associated with the various forms of counterproductive work behaviors. Particularly, adverse experiences with interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace led to interpersonal counterproductive behaviors. Employees with stable personalities typically showed a lower incidence of

counterproductive work behaviors. Similarly, counterproductive work has been negatively correlated with extroversion, sociability, and meticulousness. Individuals with unstable personalities show a higher amount of counterproductive work behaviors.

The current study attempted to assimilate the research on workplace mistreatments and employees' productivity by comparing white collar and blue collar workers. In the quest to investigate the underlying relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors, studies include different frameworks of interpersonal mistreatment, which cover different types and levels of organizations, including mediating or moderating effects (Baumeister et al., 2003; Paolucci et al., 2001; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Tepper et al., 2011). However, still there is little awareness about the link between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors (Çelik et al., 2011; Harlos & Axelrod, 2005; Qiu & Peschek, 2012). Studies present statistically significant associations between interpersonal relationships at work and profitability or organizational performance. However, little attention has been devoted to understanding the mechanisms through which interpersonal interactions influence performance that gratifies employees (Altman & Akdere, 2008; Çelik et al., 2011; Cullen et al., 2014; Yeung & Griffin, 2008). This may be explained by a deficit in comprehension of mediating variables and their influences on the association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behavior (Sliter et al., 2012; Sulea et al., 2012).

This dissertation will aid in enhancing our understanding of interpersonal mistreatments in the workplace. It deals primarily with the effects of interpersonal mistreatments on outcomes related to work. Additionally, it investigates the mediating mechanism of job burnout and the moderating mechanism of emotional intelligence. This study broadens existing research by paying attention to interpersonal interactions in the workplace and conflicts arising in the form of mistreatments, which reflects the quality of communication among the workers. Our work has been supported by theoretical argumentation (Andersson & Pearson, 1999). Further, this study focused on stress-related perspectives (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Lim & Cortina, 2005; Penney & Spector, 2005). This research does not specify the cause of uncivilized behaviors (Cortina et al., 2001). Another aspect of the present research is that it focuses on the comparison of two different classes of workers and their experiences with interpersonal mistreatments. This allows us to understand differential effects in white collar and blue collar employees.

Findings from the present study highlight new dimensions in how these disruptive behaviors integrate with the professional, physical, and psychological health of employees in academic settings. Consistent with the hypothesis of the present study, harassment stemming from gender and ethnicity discrimination was correlated with counterproductive work behaviors. A moderate association emerged between ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors. It seems that interpersonal mistreatments take place in addition to the widespread hostile behaviors in the workplace. These interpersonal mistreatments usually occur when the top-level management neglects to maintain a nurturing culture in the organization.

Workplace culture and environment also explain the relations between different forms of hostile behaviors and mistreatments. Previous studies on harassment show that workplace environment and workplace culture promote or inhibit harassment (Dellinger & Williams, 2002; Gelfand et al., 1995; Timmerman & Bajema, 1999). In lenient work environments, executives are likely to be unconcerned about harassment. Thus, the victims are not given importance and the perpetrators bear no punishment because of the victims' inability to express themselves. Even though the precursors of workplace harassment were not the present study's concern, there is still the issue that organizational and environmental lapses might lead to the occurrence of harassment. Moreover, harassment stemming from issues of gender and ethnicity is hostile behavior that would support other forms of mistreatments such as ostracism, incivility, and interpersonal conflicts. Further, the high rate of occurrence of incivility also needs to be addressed and pointed out in the attempt hinder other forms of mistreatments. The exposure of the victim to interpersonal mistreatments may render the victim prone to other forms of disruptive behaviors, leading to an increase in the occurrences of inappropriate interpersonal behavior. Along with this, previous literature clearly highlights that victims of stereotyping and discrimination are more likely to experience prejudiced and biased behaviors than non-targets (McLaughlin et al., 2012).

5.1. Interpersonal Mistreatment and Job Burnout

The aim of the current study was to investigate the associations between workplace interpersonal mistreatments, particularly ostracism and job burnout (Blau & Andersson, 2005; Sulea et al., 2012), in blue collar and white collar employees in universities in Pakistan. This was a major study that investigated mistreatments in the workplace that contribute to complicated and detrimental workplace relations and their relationship with job burnout. The

results of the correlations show that the coefficient value for incivility and ostracism is 0.673 and is significant at the 0.01 level, interpersonal conflicts and ostracism have a correlation value of 0.389, which is significant at the 0.01 level, and interpersonal conflicts and incivility are positively related with a value of 0.477 that is significant at the 0.01 level. Harassment and ostracism show no relationship, harassment and incivility show a correlational value of 0.442 that is significant, harassment and interpersonal conflicts show a value of 0.580 that is significant, job burnout and ostracism are significant, job burnout and incivility have a correlational value of 0.221 that is significant, job burnout and interpersonal conflicts have a significant correlational value of 0.495, and job burnout and harassment show a significant correlational value of 0.766. Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism have a correlation coefficient value of 0.205 that is significant. Counterproductive work behavior and incivility are significantly correlated at 0.220, counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts have a significant correlational value of 0.577, counterproductive work behavior and harassment have a significant correlation of 0.578, and counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show a significant correlational value of 0.550. Furthermore, it is 0.061 and non-significant. Interpersonal conflicts and ostracism have a correlational value of 0.064, which is not significant and interpersonal conflicts and incivility have a non-significant correlation of -0.020. Harassment and ostracism show a significant value of 0.341, harassment and incivility show a significant correlation value of -0.195, and harassment and interpersonal conflicts show a significant value of 0.410, Job burnout and ostracism are significant at the 0.01 level, job burnout and incivility show a significant correlation at 0.174, job burnout and interpersonal conflicts are significantly correlated with a value of 0.166, and job burnout and harassment show a significant coefficient value of 0.151. Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism have a significant correlation coefficient value of 0.399, counterproductive work behavior and incivility have a non-significant correlation at -0.090, counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts are significantly correlated with a value of 0.16, counterproductive work behavior and harassment present a significant correlation coefficient value of 0.358, and counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show no significant relationship at 0.070.

It may be that those individuals who have the tendency to experience exclusion and be ignored at work tend to feel that their work environment is stressful and are more prone to burnout (Maslach, 2001). We may also argue that ostracism may affect productivity and job performance. Individuals concerned with maintaining good relationships with others tend to

be less involved in ostracizing behaviors, either as perpetrators or victims. Generally, they are considered more efficient at their jobs and may be able to perform well at work. The findings are consistent with our hypothesis that ostracism in the workplace leads to job burnout, which is also consistent with work presented by other researchers that show significant positive relationships between interpersonal mistreatments and burnout (Kahill, 1988; Sliter et al., 2011).

Previous studies have focused on different behaviors in the workplace, using diversified perspectives as independent and dependent variables in different studies (Einarsen & Mikkelsen, 2003; Greenhaus, 1988). Deviant behaviors not only negatively influence coworkers but also spoil employees' surroundings and intentions to perform (Iacovides et al., 2003). The focus of previous studies has been on environments affected by bullying, antagonism, and offense in corporate and health-related sectors (Harvey et al., 2007); research on incivility has been conducted solely on top management or on students. The topic of incivility has been ignored in the university setting, along with other forms of mistreatment such as ostracism, harassment, and interpersonal conflicts. The results of the current study suggest that workplace incivility has a significant effect on job burnout as depicted from the analysis, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.393, and an adjusted R^2 of 0.254, which explains 25% of the variance in job burnout.

As previous studies have focused on harassment related to ethnicity and gender, we considered these factors in this study. There is increasing evidence that existing research is extremely restricted. For the most part, sexual harassment experiences have been illuminated through the lens of gender. Ethnicity is dealt with by conducting research on ethnically and racially diverse samples, which present high rates of ethnic harassment (Krieger et al., 2006; Sulea et al., 2012). Researchers have studied the experiences of workers on the basis of harassment, but the present study focuses on gender and ethnicity harassment in the workplace and the burnout caused by these types of harassment (Krieger et al., 2006). The results of the current study suggest that workplace harassment has a significant influence on job burnout as is evident from the results, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.432, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.423, which explains 42% of the variance in job burnout.

Harassment has been examined in studies under different titles such as workplace bullying (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001), emotional abuse (Lutgen-Sandvik, 2003), incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), workplace aggression (Timms et al., 2006), social

undermining (Deery et al., 2011; Duffy et al., 2002), and workplace harassment (Deery et al., 2011).

If we look at this research through a scientific lens, we can see that it was conducted to fill current methodological gaps and to offer new procedures for advancing knowledge on workplace harassment. Over a 26-year period, a total of 234 samples have been taken from 224 peer-reviewed articles (1987–2012), which were regularly analyzed for methodological content because these articles focused on antecedents, consequences, and processes of diverse forms of workplace harassment (e.g., bullying, abusive supervision, mobbing, and victimization). These analyses have also concentrated on identifying internal, external, and numerical conclusion validity, which covers the issues of the sample characteristics, research design, measurement, methods of data collection, and techniques used to analyze data. Discovering the nature and the terms of existing methodological limitations provides suggestions for directions in which to advance hypothesis development to improve study validity. The following results show that ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment have a positive and significant ($p < .01$) relationship with job burnout and counterproductive work behaviors. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.357 and 0.432 shows that ostracism explains 35% and 43% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior respectively. This can also be confirmed with the coefficient β -values of 0.496 and 0.324, which have SD -values of 0.032 and 0.075, respectively. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.254 and 0.456 show that incivility accounts for 25% and 45% respectively, of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.393 and 0.765, which have SD values of 0.042 and 0.065.

In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.121 and 0.561 show that interpersonal conflict explains 12% and 56% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.543 and 0.653, which have SD -values of 0.021 and 0.045. In the regression analysis, R^2 -values of 0.423 and 0.305 show that harassment explains 42% and 30% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.432 and 0.876, which have SD -values of 0.123 and 0.067. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -value of 0.435 shows that job burnout explains 43% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -value of 0.746, which has an SD -value of 0.074. Both

effects are positive and statistically significant at less than one percent. The F -values for interpersonal mistreatment and job burnout (ostracism: 206.148 and significant, incivility: 136.127 and significant, interpersonal conflict: 234.212 and significant, and harassment: 321.026 and non-significant), for interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behavior (ostracism: 202.232 and significant, incivility: 325.621 and significant, interpersonal conflict: 127.326 and significant, and harassment: 328.098 and non-significant), and for job burnout and counterproductive work behavior a significant F -value of 342.098 shows that the above defined model is a good enough fit for white collar employees in the higher education sector in Pakistan.

Table 4.6 presents the regression results for interpersonal mistreatment (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict and harassment), job burnout, and counterproductive work behavior of blue collar workers in the higher education sector in Pakistan. The following results show that ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment have a positive and significant ($p < .01$) relationship with job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.297 and 0.321 show that ostracism explains 29% and 32% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.392 and 0.624, which have SD -values of 12.402 and 12.021. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.256 and 0.495 show that incivility accounts for 25% and 49% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.292 and 0.621, which have SD -values of 0.010 and .021.

In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.267 and 0.721 shows that interpersonal conflict explains 26% and 72% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by coefficient β -values of 0.215 and 0.321, which have SD -values of 0.012 and 0.062. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.401 and 0.312 show that harassment explains 40% and 31% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.382 and .212 SD -values of 0.015 and .610. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -value of 0.721 shows that job burnout explains 43% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -value of 0.628, which has an SD -value of 0.017. Both effects of ostracism and burnout on counterproductive work behaviour are positive and significant at less than one percent. The F -values for interpersonal mistreatment and job burnout

(ostracism: 203.124 and significant, incivility: 129.231 and significant, interpersonal conflict: 312.001 and significant, harassment: 262.271 and non-significant), for interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behavior (ostracism: 211.201 and significant, incivility: 212.312 and significant, interpersonal conflict: 321.001 and significant, harassment: 301.206 and non-significant), and for job burnout and counterproductive work behavior it is 278.621 and significant, which shows that the above defined model (from literature) is a good enough fit for blue collar employees in the higher education sector of Punjab.

The major purpose of this research was to examine burnout in relation to interpersonal dealings and conflicts in the workplace. A subsequent goal was to examine the mediating role of stress or job burnout on interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors. Results showed that interpersonal conflicts were positively related to job burnout and indicate a moderating relationship among the variables. Another concern was to identify whether job burnout is a psychological strategy designed to safeguard individual resources when one is threatened by conflicts. The role of interpersonal conflicts as a main variable associated with burnout in university settings was also investigated. Moreover, job burnout is linked to interpersonal conflicts in the workplace, which might lead to counterproductive work behaviors. The results of the current study indicate that interpersonal conflict has a significant effect on job burnout, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.543, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.121, which explains 12% of the variance in job burnout. Thus, our hypothesis (H3) was supported.

5.2. Interpersonal Mistreatment and Counterproductive Work Behavior

People who tend to maintain social relations in the company and maintain workplace friendships are able to maintain their jobs and are able to perform efficiently (Amjad, Sabri, Ilyas, & Hameed, 2015). As interpersonal mistreatment involves efforts to deal with it, there are associated psychological costs (Jones, 2009; Tepper & Henle, 2011). Workplace ostracism shows a significant relationship with counterproductive work behaviors (Zhao et al., 2013), which is confirmed by the present study's results, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.324, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.432, which accounts for 43% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior.

There is no doubt that incivility is an intense and hostile behavior that prevails in organizational contexts (Robinson, 2008). Incivility reveals itself in different behaviors like passing comments with dual meanings, insulting others, using offensive language, and overlooking coworkers' needs on tasks (Cortina, 2008; Keashly & Jagatic, 2011). Prolonged incivility in organizations may create an adverse work culture in the organization and among workers, thus predisposing the worker to perform poorly (Motowidlo, 2003). The intent of incivility may not be to place anyone in a hostile situation, but prolonged incivility in the organizational culture can cause such an outcome. The overall productivity of an organization can be predicted through significant relationships between selected variables in the present study.

Deviant behaviors tend to magnify workplace stress since workers tend to be preoccupied with their conflicts, troubles, and isolation in the organizational setting (Griffin, 2010). The results of the current study suggest that workplace incivility has a significant effect on counterproductive work behavior, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.765, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.456, which explains 45% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior. These behaviors create an unpleasant or menacing work environment, though the cause for the abuse may be debatable (Goh, 2006). Widespread workplace harassment may occur for a number of different reasons, which includes the desire to be a leader (or an influencer) and attacking people who have less social power (Bunk et al., 2011; Cortina, 2008).

Consistent with previous research, our study indicates that there are gender differences in harassment, and these differences have been found in the data. Additionally, this research found a positive correlation between harassment and counterproductive work behaviors (Raver, 2004). There is very little evidence on the relationship between experiencing one kind of harassment and also being subjected to other forms of harassment. So, there is a need to further research the relationship between harassment and counterproductive behaviors. Of the different forms of interpersonal mistreatment, sexual harassment gains the most attention in the media, in law, and in academia. In recent years, milder forms of workplace mistreatment have begun to generate interest. Mistreatments are also known as incivility (Burton & Hoobler, 2011), bullying (Einarsen & Hoel, 2008), generalized workplace abuse (Aquino & Thau, 2009), and emotional abuse (Follingstad et al., 1990). Such mistreatments include different behaviors such as isolating workers from important work activities,

disrespect in the form of interruptions and public humiliation, and verbal aggression that manifests in swearing. The larger rubric of interpersonal mistreatment is considered an antisocial act, whether it is sexual or more general in nature. Many researchers have concentrated on each class of conduct in isolation. The present study makes progress by connecting these broken pieces and examining general incivility and sexual harassment. With regard to antecedents and the importance of these variables, workplace harassment is a well-researched topic. The results of the current study indicate that workplace harassment has a significant effect on counterproductive work behavior, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.876, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.305 that accounts for 30% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior.

Based on our results, job burnout is not fully associated with counterproductive work behaviors but is connected through troubling and negative relations with coworkers. So the present study corroborates the hypothesis that people perform favorably in workplace situations when there are no negative relations. Cohen-Charash and Mueller (2007) described similar results, in which job burnout did not mediate the association between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behavior. The results of the current study suggest that interpersonal conflict has a significant effect on counterproductive work behavior, with a p -value of 0.000, a coefficient value of 0.653, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.561, which explains 56% of the variance in job burnout. Thus, these values confirm our hypotheses. All in all, based on the inferences drawn from the analysis, it is clear that adopting disconnected and conflicting behaviors towards people at work is likely to reduce the chances of workers performing at their best. Thus, interpersonal conflicts may be considered a jumping off point for further study, with a particular focus on the combination with job stress or burnout, to understand and nurture the wellbeing of employees in the higher educational context.

5.3. Interpersonal Mistreatment, Job Burnout, and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Correlation coefficients of each construct in white collar employees show positive and significant correlations between incivility and ostracism, with a value of 0.673 that is significant at the 0.01 level. Interpersonal conflicts and ostracism have a correlation value of 0.389 that is significant at the 0.01 level, and interpersonal conflicts and incivility are correlated at 0.477 and significant at the 0.01 level. Harassment and ostracism show no

relation, harassment and incivility shows a correlation value of 0.442 that is significant at the 0.01 level, harassment and interpersonal conflicts show a correlation value of 0.580 that is significant at the 0.01 level, and job burnout and ostracism have a significant correlation at the 0.05 level. Job burnout and incivility have a correlation value of 0.221 that is significant at the 0.01 level, job burnout and interpersonal conflicts are correlated at 0.495, which is significant at the 0.01 level, and job burnout and harassment shows correlational value of 0.766 that is significant at the 0.01 level. Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism have a correlation coefficient value of 0.205 that is significant at the 0.01 level, counterproductive work behavior and incivility are correlated at 0.220 and significant at the 0.01 level, and counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts have a correlation value of 0.577, which is significant at the 0.01 level. Counterproductive work behavior and harassment present a correlational value of 0.578 that is significant at the 0.01 level, and counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show a correlation coefficient value of 0.550, which is significant at the 0.01 level.

Table 4.5 reflects the results of the correlation analyses for BCWs. Incivility and ostracism are positively correlated at 0.061 but are not significant, interpersonal conflicts and ostracism have a correlational value of 0.024 that is statistically significant, and interpersonal conflicts and incivility are correlated at 0.020 and significant. Harassment and ostracism show a significant correlation of 0.341, harassment and incivility show a significant correlation value of -0.195, harassment and interpersonal conflicts have a significant correlational value of 0.410, and job burnout and ostracism are significantly correlated at the 0.01 level. Job burnout and incivility have a significant correlation coefficient value of 0.174, job burnout and interpersonal conflicts are significantly correlated at 0.166, and job burnout and harassment show a significant correlational value of 0.151. Counterproductive work behavior and ostracism have a significant correlation coefficient value of 0.399, counterproductive work behavior and incivility are non-significantly correlated at -0.090, and counterproductive work behavior and interpersonal conflicts are significantly correlated at 0.164. Counterproductive work behavior and harassment have a significant correlation coefficient of 0.358 and counterproductive work behavior and job burnout show a correlational value of 0.030, which is significant.

Table 4.6 represents the regression results for interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment), job burnout, and counterproductive work

behavior. The following results show that ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflict, and harassment have a positive and significant ($p < .01$) relationship with job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.357 and 0.432 show that ostracism explains 35% and 43% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior respectively. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.496 and 0.324, which have SD -values of 0.032 and 0.075. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.254 and 0.456 show that incivility accounts for 25% and 45% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior respectively. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.393 and 0.765, which have SD -values of 0.042 and 0.065.

In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.121 and 0.561 show that interpersonal conflict explains 12% and 56% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.543 and 0.653, which have SD -values of 0.021 and 0.045. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -values of 0.423 and 0.305 show that harassment accounts for 42% and 30% of the variance in job burnout and counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -values of 0.432 and 0.876, which have SD -values of 0.123 and 0.067. In the regression analysis, the R^2 -value of 0.435 shows that job burnout explains 43% of the variance in counterproductive work behavior. This can also be confirmed by the coefficient β -value of 0.746, which has an SD -value of 0.074. Both effects of interpersonal conflict, burnout and counterproductive work behaviour are positive and significant at less than one percent. The F -values for interpersonal mistreatment and job burnout (ostracism: 206.148 and significant; incivility: 136.127 and significant; interpersonal conflict: 234.212 and significant; harassment: 321.026 and non-significant), for interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behavior (ostracism: 202.232 and significant; incivility: 325.621 and significant; interpersonal conflict: 127.326 and significant; harassment: 328.098 and non-significant), and for job burnout and counterproductive work behavior is 342.098 and significant, which shows that the defined model from the literature is a good fit.

5.4. Job Burnout Mediates between Interpersonal Mistreatment and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Job burnout fully mediates the relationship between interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behaviors. As interpersonal mistreatments are particularly linked to psychological costs, they have been widely elaborated in previous studies on the various dimensions of job burnout (Hauge et al., 2010). In order to analyze the role of ostracism in the university settings, this form of mistreatment has been emphasized in research on academic settings. Consistent with the Social Exchange Theory, individuals tend to experience burnout when they threaten others or felt threatened by others. Social Exchange Theory proposes that social exchange and negotiations between different parties influence individuals in one way or another. It mutually involves interactions and simple exchanges which foster human relations that are formed using subjective details regarding cost benefit analysis and by comparing available alternatives.

Our findings have considerable implications for schools and colleges. Findings reveal that when employees do not treat their coworkers at the interpersonal level properly, all the patrons and stakeholders experience a backlash (van Jaarsveld et al., 2010). The potential effects speak of a requirement for institutional interventions in order to hinder mistreatments in the workplace. In any organizational set up, if the top management takes the initiative to observe themselves and how they interact with others, such awareness will influence dealings with the organization's employees (Yang et al., 2013). Another study explains that the training that influences and guides workers at any level of an organization will help them to deal with stress and conflicting situations and hone their interpersonal skills (Ladebo et al., 2008). Moreover, researchers suggest that organizations check the association between career progression and expectations of coworkers behaviour. The results of the current study suggest that job burnout mediates workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behavior, with a p -value of 0.008, a coefficient value of 0.114, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.402 that accounts for 40% of the mediation of job burnout.

The results of the current study indicate that job burnout mediates the association between workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors, with a p -value of 0.003, a coefficient value of 0.123, and an adjusted R^2 -value of 0.321 that explains 32% of the meditation of job burnout in the relationship between interpersonal conflicts and

counterproductive work behavior. This finding is consistent with the literature, and is likely related to differences in the processing of visceral and somatic sensations (Taylor & Kluemper, 2012). Hence, this model seems to apply to the university setting independently of sex, age, tenure, and profession.

Results of the current study provide some support for predictions derived from the stress/emotion/counterproductive work behavior model (Sakurai & Jex, 2012). Specifically, we found that job stressors included perceived injustice related to both negative emotions and counterproductive work behaviors (H1), that negative emotions are related to counterproductive work behaviors (H2), and that in most cases there was at least partial mediation of emotions in the relationship between job stressors and counterproductive work behaviors (H3). This last test is critical to the model and suggests that emotions play a central role in the process from stressors to counterproductive work behaviors and to strain in general.

A regression was performed to predict the outcome variable counterproductive work behaviors (Y) from ostracism (X1), incivility (X2), interpersonal conflicts (X3) harassment (X4), and job burnout (M). Path $b = 0.086$, $t(240) = 1.823$, $p = 0.07$; path $c = 0.034$, $t(240) = .456$, $p = 0.649$ insignificant; path $d = 0.059$, $t(240) = 1.101$, $p = 0.272$ statistically insignificant; path $e = 0.303$, $t(240) = 5.071$, $p = 0.000$ statistically significant; path $f = -0.089$, $t(240) = 1.640$, $p = 0.102$ statistically insignificant; $p < .001$.

In addition to examining the path coefficients from these regressions, we tested how well the X1, X2, X3, and X4 variables predict Y. $R^2 = 0.373$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.359$, and this is statistically significant, $F(5, 240) = 26.412$, $p < .001$. From the results, we concluded that job burnout plays a partial mediating role on interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment) and counterproductive work behavior in white collar employees.

A regression was performed to predict the outcome variable of counterproductive work behaviors (Y) from ostracism (X1), incivility (X2), interpersonal conflicts (X3), and harassment (X4). This regression provides estimates of the unstandardized coefficients for path b and path c (the direct or remaining effect of X on M when the mediating variable of job burnout has been included in the analysis). Path $b = 0.191$, $t(286) = 4.227$, $p = 0.000$; path $c = 0.003$, $t(286) = 0.073$, $p = 0.942$ insignificant; path $d = 0.123$, $t(286) = 2.946$, $p =$

0.003 statistically significant; path $e = 0.298$, $p = 0.000$ statistically significant; path $f = 0.079$, $p = 0.048$ statistically significant; $p < 0.001$.

In addition to examining the path coefficients from these regressions, we tested how well the X1, X2, X3, and X4 variables predict Y. $R^2 = 0.333$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.321$, and it is statistically significant, $F(5, 286) = 28.499$, $p < .001$. From the results, we concluded that job burnout plays a partial mediating role on interpersonal mistreatments (ostracism, incivility, interpersonal conflicts, and harassment) and counterproductive work behavior in blue collar employees.

In general, our results for two hypotheses (H1 and H2) were consistent with prior research in showing a positive relationship between justice, negative emotions (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012), and counterproductive work behaviors (Leiter et al., 2011). These findings lend further support to the idea that perceptions of injustice can be regarded as a form of job stress. Although workplace incivility exerted indirect effects on job burnout and employee performance, the pattern of results was somewhat different for these two outcomes. In particular, unlike supervisor incivility, coworker incivility was not significantly or directly related to performance. Such a pattern of results is unsurprising given that job burnout is primarily predicted by job demands (such as workplace incivility). Employee engagement is primarily predicted by the availability of resources such as trust and justice (Bouckennooghe, De Clercq, & Deprez, 2014; Robinson et al., 2014). Situations perceived by people as unfair are stressors that may lead to negative emotions and presumably to strains beyond counterproductive work behaviors.

5.5. Emotional Intelligence Moderates between Interpersonal Mistreatment and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Emotional intelligence (EI) and emotional quotient (EQ) are important guides for people to recognize the abilities of individuals, others' feelings, to label various feelings of discrimination, thinking, and behavior, and to use emotional information in social interactions. These terms first appeared in a 1964 paper by Michael Beldoch and gained popularity in a 1995 book written by science journalist Daneil Goleman (Alias et al., 2013). Since then, theories related to emotional intelligence and emotional quotient have been criticized in the scientific community (Goleman, 1995). That emotional intelligence can matter more than IQ is a concept given by Mayer (1990) and popularized by Goleman, 2012.

This topic has received much attention in the field of leadership. Emotional intelligence came from social intelligence work, which is an oral abstract concept that is related to distributed intelligence. Although related to emotional intelligence, social intelligence is not a new concrete type of intelligence (Cherniss et al., 1998).

Emotionally intelligent individuals adjust to their inner signals and are able to recognize how their feelings affect them and their job performance (Goleman et al., 2002). They can be candid and authentic and are able to speak openly about the quantity, quality, and accuracy of their work; they strive for efficiency and a high standard of work (Lam & Kirby, 2002). Senior managers high in emotional intelligence have been found to perform their jobs better (Sy et al., 2006). Emotionally intelligent people are also adaptable, transparent, trustworthy, innovative, and conscientious about adapting to new challenges and performing well in their jobs (Cherniss et al., 2006). There is a claim that engineers with high levels of emotional intelligence are better performers than their peers with lower levels of emotional intelligence (Rozell et al., 2002). In addition, employees with high emotional intelligence have high personal standards that drive them to constantly seek improvements in performance, to set measurable and challenging work goals, and to create better possibilities for the future (Schutte et al., 2002). Furthermore, empathetic managers are able to get along with people of diverse backgrounds and to tune in to a wide range of emotional signals, letting them sense the emotions in individuals or groups in order to maintain the quantity, quality, and accuracy of assignments (Derksen et al., 2002). Finally, socially skilled people find practical ways to overcome barriers to carry out tasks (Smith et al., 2009).

Honesty, sensitivity, compassion, humor, integrity, commitment, enthusiasm, courage, conscience, purpose, vision, energy, confidence, and intuition are expected attributes in leaders and executive officers. Studies have shown no causal relationship between characteristics of specific personalities and emotional intelligence. Such are the results of the general notion of emotional intelligence. However, people with high levels of emotional intelligence with similar levels of mental health, work performance, and leadership skills have shown that they can be good leaders with potential for high performance (Goleman). Therefore, high technical skills and emotional intelligence should be assessed during interviews. The results of this study showed that there was a positive relationship between incivility and the different facets of counterproductive work behaviors. Many scholars have treated workplace incivility as a workplace stressor or deviant behavior and

counterproductive work behaviors as an emotional response to deal with incivility (Bibi et al., 2013).

This study tried to find the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors by using a hierarchical regression analysis. In Step 1, counterproductive work behavior was treated as a dependent variable and ostracism and emotional intelligence as independent variables for the analysis. In Step 2, the product of workplace ostracism and emotional intelligence was treated as an independent variable for the analysis (see Table 4.8).

According to the regression analysis result of Step 1, workplace ostracism and emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. From the regression analytical result of Step 2, the product of workplace ostracism and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors, with a β -value of -0.312 and a p -value of 0.019, while the explained variance increased by 16%. Therefore, H13, that there is a significant moderating effect of emotional intelligence on workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors, was supported. Hence, we concluded that the presence of emotional intelligence in white collar employees of the higher education sector of Punjab, Pakistan will decrease the intensity of workplace ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors.

From the regression analysis result of Step 2, the product of workplace incivility and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors with a β -value of -0.290 and a p -value of 0.036, which explained 9% of the variance. Therefore, H14, that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on workplace incivility and counterproductive work behaviors, was supported. Hence, we concluded that presence of emotional intelligence in white collar employees will decrease the intensity of incivility and counterproductive work behaviors.

According to the regression analysis results, workplace interpersonal conflicts and emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. From the regression analysis result of Step 2, the product of workplace interpersonal conflicts and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors with a β -value of -0.217, and a p -value of 0.000, while explained variance increased by 40%. Therefore, H15, that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence

on interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behavior, was supported. Hence, we concluded that presence of emotional intelligence in white collar employees will decrease the intensity of interpersonal conflicts and counterproductive work behavior.

According to the regression analysis result, workplace harassment and emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. From the result of Step 2, the product of workplace harassment and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors, with a β -value of -0.120 and a p -value of 0.01, while explained variance increased by 41%. Therefore, H16, that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on workplace harassment and counterproductive work behavior, was supported. Hence, we concluded that presence of emotional intelligence in white collar employees decreases the intensity of workplace harassment and counterproductive work behavior.

According to the regression analysis result, workplace harassment and emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. From the regression analysis result of Step 2, the product of workplace harassment and workplace emotional intelligence significantly influenced counterproductive work behaviors, with a β -value of -0.256 and a p -value of 0.004, while explained variance increased by 35%. Therefore, H16, that there is a moderating effect of emotional intelligence on workplace harassment and counterproductive work behavior, was supported. Hence, we concluded that presence of emotional intelligence in blue collar workers will decrease the intensity of workplace harassment and counterproductive work behavior. In the Pakistani context people are being nurtured in such a way that the emotional intelligence has never been of real concern to cope up with extreme stress i.e burnout resulting in the under performance of the individuals.

Findings of the present study also revealed that production deviance (intentionally working slowly, doing work incorrectly, or neglecting to follow procedures) was the second most prevalent behavior of the teaching faculty in response to interpersonal mistreatment. These results confirm previous research, which asserts that employees use production deviance behavior as a strategy to gain control over stressors and the accompanying negative emotional reactions (Le Roy et al.,2012). It has also been found that sabotage and theft (which are high on the counterproductive work behaviors continuum) were the least preferred counterproductive responses of the teaching faculty to incivility. This finding suggests that

the nature of the job is also an important factor in the selection of counterproductive work behavior responses, ranging from very severe to less severe.

From the results of this study, it is clear that emotional intelligence played an important role in moderating the relationship between incivility and counterproductive work behaviors. We found that emotional intelligence was negatively correlated with counterproductive work behaviors. This, in turn, suggests that people high in emotional intelligence are low on the different dimensions of counterproductive work behaviors including abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal, as compared to their counterparts who are lower in emotional intelligence. People high in emotional intelligence tend to understand their emotions and control their behavior much more effectively (Mayer et al., 2000). Our study also revealed that people with low emotional intelligence engage in counterproductive work behaviors more frequently than their counterparts.

The occupational classification is done on the basis of the nature of work, i.e., manual or skilled work, variations in remuneration in the form of wages or salaries, and variations in the right to use resources. Previous studies on occupational classification in the form of different collars have looked at white collar (Locke, 1973), blue (Toppinen et al., 2002), pink (Williams, 1988), green (Pearce & Stilwell, 2008), grey (Hutchings et al., 2009), and gold collar workers (Roe, 2001). However, the differences between the white collar and blue collar workforce are the most pronounced compared to all other types of workers. This study reviewed only these two major categories because of the scarce examination of other collar workers in existing research.

5.6. Comparative Analysis of White Collar and Blue Collar Employees

The term white collar is applied to people who usually carry out their work in administrative, managerial, or professional capacities in offices. The term collar specifically refers to the white dress shirts worn by the male workforce in offices, which is different from blue shirts or uniforms worn by service workers or those who perform their work manually (Hanebuth et al., 2006). White collar employees may further be defined as employees who are paid more and perform less physically arduous work as compared to blue collar employees, who perform manual work instead (Geller et al., 1983, Huang & Vliert, 2004). Upton Sinclair, an American author whose major works are related to professional, managerial, or

administrative work, initiated the term “white collar” in his work titled “Easy Work and a White Collar”, published in 1911 (Iverson & Roy, 1994).

Contrarily, blue collar employees belong to the working class and are involved in physically laborious work. The work might be skill-related or work of a physical nature like construction, gardening, technical work, maintenance, mining, etc. Most of the time, blue collar employees are involved in physical activities while white collar employees do their work in offices or cubicles (Campbell et al., 2002). Blue collar employees are usually paid hourly wages, but a few get monthly salaries. The remuneration criteria vary depending upon the sector, experience, and expertise of the worker (Osterman, 1994). Few elements of blue collar employees have been listed by Dr. Renee J. Fontenot, which include less formal educational requirements, on the job training, hourly reporting, and daily or weekly wages. After performing required tasks, the blue collar worker is free to leave and not required to perform further duties. Thus, the pay of blue collar workers is usually less than that of white collar employees (Jowell & Prescott-Clarke, 1970; Marandi & Moghaddas). The term “blue collar” originated from the uniforms worn by working class employees in factories in the United States (Locke, 1973; Shirom et al., 1999).

By observing the mean level of ostracism in each of the two groups in the group statistics, we found that the average weight for ostracism in white collar employees is 2.4023 as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.0723, which is lower than that of white collar employees. The significance (2-tailed) value is 0.000, which is less than 0.01 and 0.05. Therefore, the difference between the mean value for white collar workers and the mean for blue collar workers is statistically significant. The mean level of ostracism in each of the two groups in the group statistics reflects that the average weight for in white collar employees is 2.437, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.141, which is less than that of white collar employees. From this, we may say that white collar workers engage in more acts of incivility compared to blue collar workers.

By observing the mean level of interpersonal conflicts in each of the two groups in the group statistics, we found that that the average weight for interpersonal conflicts in white collar employees is 2.2810, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.1741, which is less than white collar employees. To observe the inferences regarding differences in the two mean values for *t*-test, the *p*-value is considered. There is no reason to think that the amount of variance within each group is same even if the *p*-value for both is the same. In

Table 4.6, the p -value is 0, which implies that the difference in means is statistically significant at the 0.1, 0.05, and 0.01 levels.

By observing the mean level of harassment in each of the two groups in the group statistics, we found that the average weight for harassment of white collar employees is 2.0386, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.0118, which is less than white collar employees. In Table 4.6, the p -value is 0.049, which implies that the difference in means is statistically significant at the 0.1, 0.05, and 0.01 levels.

By observing the mean level of job burnout in each of the two groups in the group statistics, we found that the average weight for job burnout in white collar employees is 2.209, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.1776, which is less than that of white collar employees. To observe the inferences regarding differences between the two mean values for t -test, the p -value is considered. This p -value is indicated by “sig” in SPSS output view, which stands for significance level. In order to confirm the correct significance level for the independent samples t -test focus on the t -test for equality of means in a column titled “sig (2-tailed)”. Finally, observe the significance value in the second row titled equal variances not assumed. Here, the focus is on the second row as there is no reason to think that the amount of variance within each group is same even though the p -value in both the rows is same. In Table 4.6, the p -value is 0, which implies that the difference in means is statistically significant at the 0.1, 0.05 and 0.01 levels.

By observing the mean levels of counterproductive work behaviors for each of the two groups in the group statistics, we found that the average weight for counterproductive work behaviors in white collar workers is 2.1394, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 2.1880, which is less than that of white collar employees. The mean level of emotional intelligence in each of the two groups in the group statistics reflects that the average weight for emotional intelligence in white collar employees is 3.3367, as compared to blue collar workers who have a mean value of 3.5129, which is greater than that of white collar employees.

In keeping with past research, we found that each of the considered personality measurements was related to some type of counterproductive work behavior. Particularly, inverse relations were found between openness to experience (and pleasantness) and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. Workers reporting lower levels of these attributes were

more likely to report taking part in interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors. Comparable negative relations rose between counterproductive work behaviors and extraversion, pleasantness, and honesty. Representatives scoring lower on these measures reported more hierarchical counterproductive work behaviors in contrast to those scoring higher on each of these measurements. Finally, neuroticism was decidedly correlated with hierarchical counterproductive work behaviors.

In light of these findings, it appears that the particular attributes connected with extraversion (e.g., warmth, gregariousness, self-assuredness, and action) are more imperative for understanding responses and cooperating with different colleagues (rather than bosses). One clarification for this finding is reflected in the amount of time that workers interface with each other. By and large, workers spend a critical amount of time interfacing with collaborators. Along these lines, one may expect that: 1) those scoring lower in extraversion would not be as inclined (as those scoring higher) to cooperate with others and in trying to fulfill those personality attributes of warmth and gregariousness, and 2) as a consequence of this lower need to fulfill oneself by means of associating with others.

For hierarchical counterproductive work behaviors, each of the anticipated associations between administrator rejection and personality arose, with the exception of collaboration and extraversion. At the point when worker conduct was driven by personality, little contrast was revealed on hierarchical counterproductive work behaviors crosswise over levels of boss rejection. Interestingly, considerably more affirmed changes in counterproductive work behaviors arose for those workers whose personalities applied less control over their conduct (high neuroticism, high openness to experience, low uprightness, and low appropriateness). By and large, these discoveries propose that the probability of workers taking part in counterproductive work behaviors relies on upon both personalities and circumstantial variables, particularly when attempting to anticipate hierarchical types of counterproductive work behaviors.

By virtue of the number and quality of results in longitudinal research, it appears that personality measurements are all nearly connected with counterproductive work behaviors found in the workplace. It may be the case that exclusionary conduct is thought to release one from associating with those being excluded. Similarly, with boss exclusion, a worker might feel that such conduct opens up doors for quick social success. The effects of different structures and types of abuse and the impact of encountering incivility cannot necessarily be

considered together because representatives occasionally experienced lewd behavior without the corresponding incivility. Results from previous studies revealed that the increase in every sort of abuse in one's work environment was associated with an incremental decline in performance, even when recurring abuse was controlled for. In particular, women who experienced continued incivility, sexual harassment, and sexualized badgering reported the most noticeably awful results. Besides, individuals who had confronted both incivility and sex badgering (without sexualized harassment) portrayed lower prosperity than workers who had just experienced incivility. Furthermore, encounters of incivility alone were enough to trigger a decline in work, mental, and physical wellbeing. This last discovery highlights the way that types of abuse that do not disregard the law can be hurtful to workers.

More generally, these findings were consistent with the literature on multiple victimization and trauma (Anjum & Parvez, 2013), suggesting that having leads on interpersonally oppressive circumstances increases the chances that issues will be revealed. Such results bolster our speculation that work, mental, and physical wellbeing decrease as representatives' encounters of abuse become progressively more gendered and sexualized. We have suggested that this could be clarified by the seriousness of the abuse as characterized by different criteria: the potential for physical damage on the employee, the apparent aim of the culprit, and the degree to which the objective is distinct. This is consistent with the research on anxiety and adapting (Wisker, 2011). Other imperative markers of the seriousness of abuse might be its length, consistency, and controllability. Without a doubt, operationalizing seriousness with regards to interpersonal abuse is a basic course for future exploration. From our cross-sectional information, we cannot make the fleeting presumption that abuse advances from general to more sexualized. However, it is conceivable that a few circumstances take after such a progression, particularly if a threatening vibe and predominance are key inspirations for the culprits. Undoubtedly, this would be consistent with Andersson and Pearson (1999), who contended that unchecked incivility can progress into exceptionally forceful practices.

A goal of this study was to identify gender differences in both social and informational ostracism experiences among women in academia. Based on previous research (Sarwar, 2015), we predicted that female faculty would experience more workplace ostracism and information exclusion than male faculty. Our hypothesis was partially supported across two studies, women had more perceived incidences of workplace ostracism as compared to men.

This finding supports existing research on the “chilly” climate in academia that creates an exclusionary environment for women, both in the workplace and at work-related events (Deshpande & Gopal, 2012).

The proportion of women within the department did not have a significant effect on the amount of workplace or informational ostracism experienced, so women were equally likely to be ostracized in male dominant departments as were women in departments with more equal proportions. The discrepancy between our findings and the results of Botman’s 2001 study may be due to methodological differences. Botman used a subjective measure of the proportion of women in the department (i.e., self-reported perceptions of departmental composition), whereas the present study used an objective measure of the proportion of women in the department from organizational records. If the differences in findings are due to the employed measure, it suggests that it is not so much the actual number of women in the department that matters as much as the number of women recalled or salient to the employee, which may be based on physical presence and/or amount of interaction with the employee.

Another potential explanation is in the differences of measuring exclusion and ostracism. The effect of gender may reflect perceived exclusion in a more general definition than that of ostracism, which specifically examines occurrences of being ignored or excluded by others.

The lack of a gender differences in information exclusion is surprising, given that the more blatant form of exclusion, workplace ostracism, was more frequently experienced by female faculty. However, previous research by Zimmerman et al. (2016) has shown that feelings of social and institutional isolation differ based on gender. They found that female faculty had greater perceptions of exclusion from supportive networks. However, male and female faculty members were similar in their perceptions of access to organizational resources. The present study mirrors findings that women report greater ostracism in social rather than informational interactions.

The motivation behind this paper was to augment the research on work environment hostility by proposing and testing a more exhaustive model of behavioral results connected with interpersonal mistreatments; i.e., counterproductive work behaviors. We analyzed two intellectual and emotional points of the relationship between encountering interpersonal mistreatment and behavioral results (i.e., interpersonal abuse and its adverse effect at work). In addition, we studied a few mediators including work quality (work independence and work

versatility), target attributes (dispositional antagonistic vibe and neuroticism), and culprit qualities (culprit status).

Work independence and occupation versatility were both connected with increases in the levels of counterproductive work behaviors (contrasted with low levels of self-sufficiency and versatility), especially among those individuals who saw their interpersonal mistreatment as uncalled for or for those who experienced adversity at work. Dispositional threatening vibes and neuroticism had impacts on OCBs, such that those with low levels of neuroticism engaged in low levels of OCBs when they had abnormal amounts of adversity at work. However, individuals with high levels of neuroticism engaged in low levels of OCBs. Unfriendly individuals were similarly more inclined to report counterproductive work behaviors and work-family struggles, paying little heed to interpersonal equity recognitions. However for individuals with low levels of neuroticism, interpersonal equity assumed a bigger part in deciding counterproductive work behaviors and the work environment.

With respect to culprit qualities, the consequences of control suggest that there were no differential connections in the model based upon whether the culprit of the hostility was one's director or colleague. These outcomes further the research on the working environment hostility by moving past the common arrangement of mental, physiological, attitudinal factors that have been analyzed several times over. Additionally, it has exhibited that encounters of interpersonal hostility (a work environment stressor) were also associated with a behavioral strain. The incorporation of mental drive and three mediators (employment, target, and culprit attributes) likewise amplifies the present research, particularly since a lot of work has been dedicated to surveying frequency rates, a modest set of results, or an arbiter (Sebrant, 2008).

The results of this study substantiate these discoveries and expand them with the incorporation of a more extensive scope to examine interpersonal mistreatments and mediators and arbitrators. One key question that emerges while looking at this hostility and counter-hostility is causality. This is a troublesome issue as noted by Andersson and Pearson (1999). In their paper on incivility spirals, there is a regular and repetitive relationship between being an object and being an assailant once a dispute has started. In this way, it is hard to figure out what started the contention and whether one is an object or a culprit at any given point in time. As an illustration, a contention is made by researchers who argue that tireless interpersonal abuse is ordinarily unidirectional, such that there is a culprit who causes

the hostility and an object who responds to it (Thoroughgood, Tate, Sawyer, & Jacobs, 2012). On account of tormenting, there is potentially an unmistakable causal connection between encountering interpersonal abuse and antagonistic results. One of the restrictions of the cross-sectional study procedure utilized was that it was not able to investigate this issue comprehensively.

Future longitudinal investigation should analyze representatives' interpersonal mistreatments and their related states of mind and practices. Another study showed that representatives' interpersonal mistreatment encounters were fundamentally related to their general impressions of interpersonal decency at work. Prior work by Tepper (2000) confirmed a relationship between supervisory abuse and the impression of interactional equity (both interpersonal and instructive). Researchers broadened this work by showing that when individuals experience interpersonal hostility, they pay little mind to whether the source is a boss or a colleague. Hence, they consider it unjustifiable treatment at work regardless of the source.

The relationship between interpersonal abuses and behavioral results may not be clarified by subjective and comprehensive procedures. This research embraced the intellectual evaluation hypothesis to investigate the intervening discrete feelings (resentment and bitterness) in the connections between distributive and procedural mistreatments with regard to incremental pay, various counterproductive work behaviors, abuse against others, established abnormalities, and avoidance. By and large, our discoveries give great support to previous models. Therefore, we attract researchers to various findings of our study. While these results contradict suggestions and discoveries from former explorations of equity and unstable administration, the noticeable part of interpersonal mistreatments is for the most part reinforced in a significant portion of the prior research on equity and reactions to disparities.

Our findings give necessary field-based rigorous testing of these connections and specifically highlight the differential impacts of interpersonal mistreatments and procedures of both high excitement (outrage) and low excitement (trouble) feelings. Secondly, we discovered incomplete supporting evidence for the differential impacts of resentment and trouble on our forceful (abuse against others and deviance) and latent (avoidance) counterproductive work behaviors. As anticipated, displeasure (a high excitement feeling) was observed to be associated with counterproductive work behaviors (Berman et al., 2002); there was no relationship with pity (a low excitement feeling). Consistent with psychological examination

hypotheses, we observed that anger mediated the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and forceful counterproductive work behaviors (abuse against others and deviance). These practices might be seen as valuable in rebuilding the vigilante model of equity. Deviance for instance, includes pulling back effort in order to accomplish equality.

Past studies have tended to be dominated by composite measures of both feelings and counterproductive work behaviors, which constrain our insight and understanding of these connections. Our study advances earlier research by displaying genuinely necessary discoveries of the reactions to interpersonal mistreatments and the ramifications of these distinctive feelings for various counterproductive work behaviors. Our study provides a foundation for experimental testing of these connections in other non-Western, Pakistani settings. Upon undertaking this research, we felt that Pakistan was a superb setting in which to investigate the generalizability of these impacts. Emotions indicate standards (for example, indicating outrage) and are especially tied up with existing societal/social qualities and standards. In Pakistan, one may expect collective agreement and respect for authority to be overwhelmed by hierarchical standards. As such, articulations of strong feelings (annoyance) and practices (abuse against others and deviance) might not meet the expectations set by society. In addition, the poor financial situation in Pakistan (of high unemployment and low professional stability) may be relied upon to stifle open articulations of discontent and deviance, inspired by a paranoid fear of losing one's job and not being able to secure another one again. In any case, there are solid and noteworthy associations between interpersonal mistreatment, emotions, and counterproductive work behavior. Our study highlights the critical segment of felt treachery even in this setting. Key observations highlight the generalizability of psychological evaluation hypotheses and the connections between mistreatment, emotions, and counterproductive work behavior.

Chapter 6 - Concluding Remarks

The dissertation looks at the association between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors. The focus was on the moderating influence of emotional intelligence on the interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors that have been investigated in this study. As seen in the inferences of this study, it is evident that there is a significant positive association between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors. Further, the results suggest that emotional intelligence plays a moderating role and that the effect is more effective in the case of BCWs as compared to WCWs. The inferences drawn from the current study provide empirical evidence of the concepts of ostracism, incivility, harassment, interpersonal conflicts, job burnout, emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behaviors. Further, this study incorporates social exchange theory that influences the jobholders relations and their perceptions about their coworkers conducts. This study has examined the impact of SET on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors among the jobholders with the mediating role of job burnout. Further, the affect theory of social exchange presented its impact on emotional intelligence for this study. Moreover, the present study focuses on interpersonal mistreatment and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors, instead of organizational counterproductive work behaviors. Studies examining mistreatments often focuses on these in isolation. The findings of the study suggest that orthodox research approaches are narrow in their scope when studying interpersonal mistreatments. In addition, it can be concluded that these behaviors are linked to gender as well. If these actions are linked to workers' behaviors, then this can have a negative impact on workers. So, harassment need to be studied in tandem with these behaviors to understand workplace mistreatments (Chi & Liang, 2013).

In spite of there being multiple ways to reduce mistreatment, rigorous struggle is required to eradicate all aspects of the hostile environment. It has been shown that white collar workers are more prone to workplace mistreatments than blue collar workers.

Moreover, we observed that almost all the forms of mistreatment are more common among WCWs, and they are usually engaged in more counterproductive work behaviors as compared to BCWs. The findings of the study also support the assertion that interpersonal

mistreatment happens on the basis of subtle reactions to different behaviors (Schilpzand et al., 2014).

While workplace policies may help stop mistreatments such as bullying, ostracism, incivility, harassment, other forms of mistreatment may be subtle or may not even be considered critical enough for executing policies. The effect of these mistreatments may be considerable in the manner in which they affect the personal interactions of the workers with their coworkers. However, these interpersonal mistreatments may lead to physical harm, and the management of any organization should be apprehensive about these behaviors. Moreover, the management should make an effort to retain workers from minority groups through additional support and should work toward building their confidence. Previous studies have highlighted that underrepresented workers are more likely to find themselves in hostile situations. In such a situation, emotionally intelligent workers are more likely to survive while those with low levels of emotional intelligence may have a high level of counterproductive work behaviors.

Though the stated results were statistically significant, the correlation was not so high that it warranted further examination of the relation between emotional intelligence and antagonistic behaviors considering the mediating variable of job burnout. The gender differences in samples should also be tracked due to the differences which have been observed in the two different groups. Moreover, we suggest that further analysis should depict the differences between the different hierarchical levels such as subordinates or managers. The number of studies that have described the correlation between increases in age and experience and the level of emotional intelligence in workers is increasing (Alias et al., 2013). There was a need to consider such factors in this study. Another suggestion when examining the questionnaires on these studies is to deal with the instruments separately and not as a general construct.

Finally, we arrive at a model based on interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors in the university context by comparing the model implications for the white and blue collar workers. The results describe the factors that influence the interpersonal contexts in which workers and peers are embedded. By focusing on the influences on counterproductive work behaviors we build our awareness and help provide solutions to poor interactions at the workplace.

The ample scholarly findings have been presented with the support of social exchange theory and affect theory of social exchange offer the framework to address this issue. Social exchange theory theoretical perspective. Particularly, it offers appropriateness peculiarities in

all constructs of interpersonal treatments, reflects emotions of happiness or sadness, and uses negative constructs and gives less importance to predictions about behaviors.

In the study, we utilized the previous literature to support this criticism. However, the social exchange theory has its own inconsistencies as well. Considering these concerns, this study was an attempt to improve this framework and understand the path ahead. The abovementioned problems are inherent to social exchange theory's single dimension structure. On the other hand, multidimensional concepts will support a more vivid framework to examine the constructs based on social exchange and offers increased specificity of hypothesized behavioral reactions.

Additionally, it is shown that conceptualizing social exchange with multiple dimensions will create innovative prospects for further research and allows researchers to support the needs of policymakers as well. Considered broadly, social exchange theory offers the possibility of focusing on a theory that is more practical and beneficial for researchers compared to past approaches.

Developing and retaining positive social relations is essential for the welfare of individuals in both social and emotional aspects. Social contexts influence individuals and their values (Edwards et al., 2009). These social interactions influence individuals, help them understand their environment, and achieve their needs of belongingness (Kisamore et al., 2010). Additionally, when these social relations turn negative, the individual also gets affected. Previous studies suggest that the deteriorating effects of mistreatments may overshadow the benefits gained from the positive social interactions (Rook, 1984).

This study presents insights into how mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors at an interpersonal level are mutually correlated. The results are vital as they may aid the administration and coworkers in devising productive relationship patterns. In this regard, the blue collar and white collar workers are equipped to deal with occurrences of interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors

The major contribution of this research is to focus on interpersonal relationship patterns both in academia and in other institutions. In the university context, all workers, either white collar or blue collar, seems to experience troubles in the form of interpersonal mistreatments. This puts them in stressful situations or causes them to burnout at work. In turn, they become involved in counterproductive acts at work.

In general, workers in such contexts demonstrate that job burnout or extreme stress affects their workplace performance. Additionally, workers experience extreme stress in fulfilling workplace tasks and requirements in the context of universities. Moreover, it creates problems for the organizations in which the employees experience the mistreatments or stress. So, as the present study suggests that the workers who often feel stressed tend to engage in more counterproductive behaviors. Moreover the present study evidenced the mediating role of job burnout decreases the relation between emotional intelligence and antagonistic behaviors. On the other hand, moderating role of emotional intelligence has a more positive effect between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors via social exchange theory.

The aim of the current study was to determine the effects of these interpersonal mistreatments and their outcomes in the form of counterproductive behaviors. This study stipulates that these behaviors can be dealt with properly if the workers have high emotional intelligence. The major concern behind choosing such a framework for this study was that these variables have been researched either in isolation or with other variables (Boddy, 2014; Zhao et al., 2013). But specifically, a single study that examines the association between these variables in the higher educational sector in Pakistan is being conducted for the first time. So, this is a useful addition to the literature on interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors and to the literature on job burnout and emotional intelligence. Further, comparative research on white collar and blue collar workers, in particular in the area of interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors, is very limited. Thus, this study focuses upon it to understand the multi-faceted relations among variables. The current study also highlights a few adverse effects, particularly in the case of the sample selected from the higher educational institutions of Punjab, Pakistan. Although Punjab is the most populated province in Pakistan, in reality, the work culture in all the other provinces of Pakistan differs according to its own contexts and backgrounds. Consistently, the intense competition that employees in these institutions face is exerting more and more pressure on them to compete and survive in the educational context. The results of this study reveal the significance of good management for generating healthy work environments which may discourage mistreatments at work which may lead to job burnout and which in turn influences workers to engage in counterproductive acts. The findings of the study show that efforts are needed to develop and execute emotionally intelligent environments to reduce mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors in the workplace. Such supportive work environments

may facilitate change and help foster positive social relations at work, thereby inducing the workforce to deal emotionally intelligently.

6.1. Practical Implications

This study on workplace interpersonal mistreatments moves the culpability from the victims or instigators and presents some other actors such as coworkers, bosses, and administrators who enable maltreatments in different ways. Considering formal workplace requirements, organizations opt to design their workplace interactions on the basis of job description and specifications.

Emotional intelligence may be practiced irrespective of gender, age, maturity, experience, and designation etc. (Leiter, 2013). Additionally, to enhance employees' productivity, it is essential to enhance the emotional intelligence of employees through training sessions to teach them to deal with emotions (Hochwarter & Thompson, 2012). Improvements in the emotional intelligence of workers influences the workplace as it helps improve the work environment and it helps the company achieve its vision and mission.

A single type of harassment is sufficient to form attitudes and behaviors at a workplace; therefore, organizations should opt for practical strategies to eradicate harassment. Harassment occurs in organizations that are characterized by competitiveness and self-centeredness and which influence others to look the other way when this happens (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). So, harassment may be wiped out by cultivating a good organizational culture and by reinforcing the employees' sense of belongingness in the organization (O'Reilly & Banki, 2016). Hence, harassment may be reduced by eliminating status discrimination. Moreover, employees should take the interests of others into consideration while formulating their strategies (Sharma et al., 2016). Organizations should convince executives to create an environment which employees feel comfortable to shape and to speak up in. Certainly, as far as gender harassment is concerned, it is usually lower in cooperative work environments (Ng et al., 2016), and misbehaviors may be overcome by encouraging workers to consider themselves as responsible stakeholders of the organization. Certainly, by inculcating a culture of respect and honor among employees, and by sharing that culture across the organization, it is possible to mitigate these behaviors (Hunter, 2014).

No doubt anti-harassment activities are essential for an organization and may not be executed without genuine efforts to induce employee behaviors (Goussinsky, 2015). Even if the environment features all the above-mentioned details, harassment may not be eradicated

completely. In such situations, executives should enforce the idea that such mistreatments are not acceptable in any situation (Ogunbamila, 2013). In our study, it has been shown that the reaction of the management strongly affects how employees perceive acts of harassment.

In case executives or top management fail to implement harassment-related policies, employees may state that the organizational environment has no measures to check harassment-related behaviors and the organization will be criticized for such occurrences (Chi & Liang, 2013). Though implementing measures to stop mistreatments at work may be time or resource consuming, it will create a more vigorous and productive work environment for the employees.

Studies on workplaces may focus on the unplanned consequences of work plan designs. However, focus should be on specifically the prevalence of mistreatments at workplace. In further studies, the factors that have been ignored may also be considered. This study reveals the work flows that instigate mistreatment so that the management may opt for measures to mitigate similar work patterns. Despite this, individuals at the workplace have limited control over the work patterns which may benefit the development of favorable relations and reduces interpersonal mistreatments. Developing such favorable workplace friendships can make organizations a better place to work in (Reynolds et al., 2015). It will enhance workplace outcomes and reduces counterproductive work behaviors. When workers with different behaviors are induced to work together, this enhances connectivity, social ties, and social support. As far as practical implications are concerned, the management may train and educate workers to cope with negative emotions by developing emotional intelligence. The present study aims to examine mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors in detail.

This study highlights the importance of studying daily workplace stressors and cognitive processes. Through this, various critical ramifications for businesses have been identified. Previous studies have highlighted the negative effect of representative CWBs on organizational hierarchies and efficiency (Dick & Rayner, 2013). Our outcomes recommend that businesses may dodge these impacts by actualizing reasonable HR approaches and systems. Reasonable human resource management (HRM) distributes resources and assets evenhandedly using moral, straightforward, reliable, and transparent leadership techniques. It is through such reasonable HRM that businesses can boost productivity and mitigate the negative emotions that are precursors to CWB. Given the fact that certain feelings foreshadow representative CWBs, businesses may likewise enhance the morale of the

workplace by giving all workers training and counseling on emotional intelligence (Leiter, 2013). Emotional intelligence can be described as set of capacities that determine how successfully one manages one's own feelings as well as those of others (Shamsudin et al., 2014). By giving workers the freedom to innovate, bosses might be able to manage 'feeling related' issues/difficulties before they grow into harmful CWBs (Itzkovich, 2016). Our discoveries are especially pertinent to national and multinational organizations situated in Pakistan, where earlier research into these issues have been non-existent. Social models propose that statements of forceful feelings and subsequent actions may be less tolerated in societies with inequalities in power, for example, Pakistan. An emphasis on keeping up appearances and giving respect to authority figures, which are commonly found in such societies, may stifle forceful feelings and practices, restricting their impact (O'Boyle Jr et al., 2012). Our discoveries recommend something else. In this regard, bosses working in Pakistani organizations should be mindful of the emotional repercussions of work and the potential ramifications of representatives' negative feelings that could lead to harmful retaliatory practices.

The size of this research is fairly small and covers only 323 respondents. Furthermore, these findings cannot be extrapolated to the public at large. To ensure accuracy, further research should augment the sample size. Besides, the outcomes got from the self-assessment cannot be considered exact on account of self-predisposition (Kish-Gephart et al., 2009). People tend to rate themselves much higher compared to how others are likely to rate them. This is because respondents tend to have a tendency to have a higher supposition of themselves than others on these measures; so they may not give precise answers in the poll. To enhance the accuracy of the research, it is recommended to welcome responses from workers, their immediate bosses, and their peers. By correlating data from numerous sources, the outcomes acquired will be more objective than respondents' subjective assessment. To maintain confidentiality, it is likewise suggested that they ought to return the polls by private mail. Respondents may answer falsely as a result of long-standing social practices. This argument is particularly valid in this study because the CWB is viewed as dishonest and inappropriate, and individuals occasionally remark about these behaviors openly. Keeping in mind the end goal of looking brilliant and faithful to their organization, members may fudge facts in these inquiries. Since they may not believe in the confidentiality of the survey, they may not uncover their genuine practices in the polls. To build the confidence of respondents and the confidentiality of their data, it is recommended to give them the surveys. In addition, they

should be given the opportunity to fill-in the surveys themselves and send it back through stamped pre-addressed envelopes. They can send the surveys via mail once they complete it, to reduce the chances of the information getting leaked.

Another problem is that there is no consensus regarding the meaning of emotional intelligence as of not long ago. There are two models of emotional intelligence as the mediator in the relationship between negative feelings and counterproductive work practices – the capacity model and the characteristic, or the blend model. The previous model characterizes EI as a set of various capacities while the other characterizes EI as a set of non-psychological individual characteristics which influence how an individual reacts to a situation (Mulki 2015). In this way, there is no consensus on the definition of this broad capacity (Lindebaum, 2009). This can bring about inconsistencies in different assessment criteria.

6.2. Limitations of the Present Research

It is worth considering the limitations of the present study as well. The two limitations of this study is that the data is self-reported and the deep nature of the data being gathered. The findings would have been swayed due to social influences and requirements (Jones, 2009). Moreover, previous studies have established that such types of information tend to be usually exaggerated (Fox et al., 2001). Therefore, the present study elaborates on the effect which may inflate relations among the variables; it has been shown there seems to be a harmony in the extent on such influences. Consistent with the previous studies, of the responses which we have gathered from the respondents, we ignored extreme inferences on the basis of cause and effect. However, considering the previous empirical research studies, it is considered that the present study is an essential aid to understanding the influence of interpersonal mistreatments, particularly ostracism, on counterproductive work behaviors.

Previous studies elaborate on ostracism and counterproductive work behaviors, across comprehensive dimensions and various parts (Sakurai & Jex, 2012), most of which are not considered in this dissertation. Moreover, the present study reveals that few forms of interpersonal mistreatments occur more frequently than others, just as specific forms of counterproductive work behaviors are more common, either in interpersonal or organizational form (Meier & Spector, 2013).

When workers are ostracized at their workplace, one needs to understand whether they are excluded somatically. It is a visceral exclusion and certainly the duration of that ostracizing behavior should be considered, which was somewhat ignored in the current study.

Notwithstanding, these counterproductive work behaviors are detrimental for the executives of an entity as these behaviors are not only non-productive, but they also affect the organization's efficiency and returns. The findings of this study shows that these counterproductive work behaviors affect the organization adversely.

In order to consider emotional intelligence as a moderator to interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors, the administration should consider ways to reduce the adverse emotions to alleviate the counterproductive work behaviors (Tepper & Henle, 2011). Few organizations would form strict policies to observe the employees who are involved in counterproductive work behaviors. This will have effective tactics. Generally, counterproductive work behaviors encompass slight behaviors like petty stealing. Such minor counterproductive acts cannot be identified easily as a problem and cannot be so easily dealt with. This study has been undertaken by only considering and focusing upon the social exchange theory. Keeping in view the results of this study, we may say interpersonal mistreatments at work influence employees to engage in counterproductive work behaviors. However, there are ways to cope with these counterproductive work behaviors by reducing the interpersonal mistreatments at the workplace, and certainly by making efforts to reduce the engagement of employees in these counterproductive work behaviors.

The management should describe and share the culture of the organization with all types of workers. The administration should make an effort to clarify the organizational structure, job description, and job specification, etc. Certainly, employees of any level should not be exposed to any kind of mistreatment at the hands of other employees, either in the form of stress or counterproductive work behaviors (Jones, 2004). Further, this study has not given attention to the organizational culture and employees routine feedback and employee evaluation (Wang et al., 2011). However, the findings of this study are in line with others that show that WCWs are more involved in counterproductive work behaviors as compared to BCW. Administrators should strengthen their workplace relations with employees and may utilize informal communication channels to settle conflicting situations. Moreover, the management should create a team-based environment in the organization to improve mutual understanding among employees and to encourage constructive and positive communication

among employees. Additionally, inculcating such behaviors may help improve morale and encourage employees to support each other and work toward a shared vision.

As for this study, the focus was on emotional intelligence as a moderator to interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors. It is necessary to promote a team-based culture in organizations to mitigate interpersonal mistreatments (Penhaligon et al., 2009). The association between interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors is the crux of the whole study.

Previous studies present that despite the presence of emotional intelligence, the employees still encounter interpersonal mistreatment leading to counterproductive work behaviors (Mulki et al., 2015). In order to stop interpersonal mistreatments, employees should undertake some workshops and trainings to better deal with emotions. Moreover, the environment of the organization is also important in influencing the employees' behaviors (Skogstad et al., 2007). The executives of an organization may motivate and may even add these elements in the vision and mission of the organization to induce better behavior and increase performance. The study considers emotional intelligence as a moderating factor to interpersonal mistreatment and counterproductive work behaviors.

Emotional intelligence may be practiced irrespective of gender, age, maturity, experience, designation, etc. (Lindebaum, 2009). So, a higher emotional intelligence may lead to a more successful and secure career. Organizations should include emotional intelligence in their training objectives, and certainly, emotional intelligence tests may also be considered for new comers (Kluemper et al., 2013). Further studies are needed to understand what kinds of training and workshops need to be devised to mitigate mistreatments or counterproductive work behaviors among workers.

The findings of the present study are also limited by the fact that it uses a cross-sectional research approach that hinders its eligibility to claim causations (Kim & Glomb, 2010). Moreover, further research needs to adopt a longitudinal research design to trace the variations in trajectories overtime to understand the process of variations and causalities. Mutual variances methods may be used when the respondents fill the whole instrument containing the multiple constructs and even the well-structured scales may reduce the probability of this. Low response rates may affect the generalizability of the findings in a survey-based research study where not a single response is considered as a standard (Greco et al., 2015). The demographics of the sample used in the present study were consistent with

demographics of population being studied – employees from the university sector in Pakistan. Moreover, one must acknowledge the limitations of the present study – the cross-sectional information does not reflect true causations. Further, the hypotheses were supported by relevant theories and empirical researches. In order to present accurate causalities, experimental or longitudinal studies are required to verify the present findings. In terms of generalizability, the study consists of data from one sample in a work environment and shows that women in particular are excluded, especially in case of BCWs (Grandey et al., 2012). Such organizations that do not have traditionally inclusive cultures or where females are not in power may pose more risks in terms of social exclusion.

Future studies may investigate ethnicity as a possible influencer of ostracism at workplaces. Employees' ethnic and cultural values may also influence the effects of workplace incivility (Feys et al., 2013). In the same way, studies reveal that employees who are from underrepresented ethnic groups may be at risk of facing exclusionary behaviors (Munyon et al., 2015). Future research may consider the influence of ethnic, gender, and race-based stereotypes, specifically among occupational classes, in supporting the status quo of workplace ostracizing behaviors.

The reduced number of women workers in university settings, especially BCWs, suggests that it is not the true representation. Studies on the presence of men and women in positions of power describe the influence of gender-based stereotypes on negative outcomes. Gender imbalances in work environments are likely to lead to sticky floors or glass ceilings; further studies are needed to research positive outcomes such as the glass escalator effect, etc.

Another factor that influences gender representation is the company's organizational culture, which may also reinforce ostracism. The way gender and other disputes are settled may also influence ostracism as well (Itzkovich, 2016). Further research is needed to understand these cultural aspects and their effects on ostracizing behaviors and those who experience these behaviors in academic contexts.

Summing up, the model presented explains various variables linked to counterproductive work behaviors. In this study, we admit that there are many other aspects that lead to counterproductive work behaviors that have not been studied. Future research may be conducted to consider these limitations.

6.3. Delimitations of the Study

The limitations of present research are as follows:

1. We conducted the current study in the context of higher educational institutions in Punjab, Pakistan. As the inferences are based on a survey of certain public and private university employees, the results may be generalized only to those employees who are working in contexts similar to the ones being covered in the present study.
2. To study interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors, the study analyzed personal responses from department heads, administrators, teachers, peons, and guards. Even freshly hired employees were considered to present the true picture of the deviant behavior. We did not consider the responses of vice-chancellors, chairmen, and sweepers, etc.
3. Information on interpersonal mistreatments was gathered through a self-reported form. This was used to examine the different categories of interpersonal mistreatment.
4. This study aims to explore the effect of interpersonal mistreatments on counterproductive work behaviors.
5. This research focuses only on job burnout as a mediator.
6. In the present study, we have examined emotional intelligence as the moderating mechanism that influences the interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.

6.4. Future Research Directions

On the basis of these findings, we present a few suggestions here for further research in this context. Primarily, the association between the causes of mistreatment at work and the different forms of counterproductive work behaviors are to be considered. It is recommended to examine the association between the sources and causes of interpersonal mistreatments at work and different types of counterproductive work behaviors. Using social exchange theory, it has been shown that workers respond to their workplace environment and the stress it poses. It is probable that the causes of negative emotions subsequently cause the different forms of counterproductive work behaviors. If workers experience interpersonal mistreatment within the organization, they may take the revenge in the form of counterproductive work behaviors. Broadly, counterproductive work behaviors stem from interpersonal mistreatments, and several studies have shown the hypothesized associations between mistreatments, organizational culture, and counterproductive work behaviors at the workplace. A broad study was undertaken to determine the different factors that universally contribute to different forms of counterproductive work behaviors at the interpersonal and organizational level (Skogstad et al., 2007) but the other studies only confirm specific

associations (Ogunbamila, 2013). Therefore, additional studies on the association between negative emotions and different types of counterproductive work behaviors are recommended. Most studies have emphasized the internal aspects that lead workers to engage in counterproductive work behaviors. So, there is a need to work on both internal and external causes of counterproductive work behaviors. Most studies have failed to explain the different levels of counterproductive work by employees in the workplace. Our study has successfully shown that emotional intelligence serves as a moderator in the relationship between interpersonal mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors (Mackey et al., 2013). Moreover, other aspects may be considered to overcome mistreatments and counterproductive work behaviors.

Further research may be undertaken to create different levels of theories which incorporate routine discrepancies Interpersonal Mistreatments, cognitive processes and outcomes at workplace.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Survey Questionnaire

I invite you to participate in my research project on a ‘**Interpersonal Mistreatments and Counterproductive Work Behavior in Job Holders (White and Blue Collar): Testing a Mediation and Moderation Model in the Context of Higher Educational Institutions in Pakistan**’. I have attached a short survey about my study. I hope you will cooperate with me and complete the survey. If you choose to participate, it would only take 10–15 minutes of your time to fill out the questionnaire. For each of the statements, please select the option that best reflects your answer.

All the information provided by you will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous. The overall results of this study will be shared with you on request.

Name of participant (Optional): _____

Gender Male Female	Age Under 30 years 30–39 years 40–49 years 50–59 years Above 60 years	Qualification PhD M Phil Master’s degree Graduation Intermediate Matriculation Secondary Primary or less
Marital Status Single Married Separated Divorced Widower/widowed	Current employment status Employed Unemployed	Number of Earning Persons in the Family Less than 2 2–4 More than 4
Number of dependents Less than 5 5–10 More than 10	Sector Public Private Semi-government	Type of appointment Permanent employee Full-time Contractual appointment
6. Designation ☐ Peon ☐ Lab assistant ☐ Technician ☐ Security guard ☐ Gardner ☐ Cook ☐ Café boy ☐ Bookseller ☐ Other _____	Name of institution (Optional) _____	10. Working hours per week ☐ Less than 20 hours ☐ 20–30 hours ☐ 31–40 hours ☐ 41–50 hours ☐ 51–60 hours ☐ 61–70 hours ☐ 71–80 hours
Salary range Less than Rs. 8,000 Rs. 8,000–Rs. 12,000 Rs. 13,000–Rs. 20,000 Rs. 21,000–Rs. 30,000 Rs. 31,000–Rs. 50,000 Rs. 51,000–Rs. 70,000 Rs. 71,000–Rs. 90,000 Above Rs. 90,000	Work experience Less than 5 years 5–10 years 11–15 years 16–20 years Above 20 years	

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale provided. Check (✓) the corresponding number beside each statement.

1 = Strongly disagree (SDA)

2 = Disagree (DA)

3 = Neutral (N)
 4 = Agree (A)
 5 = Strongly agree (SA)

S. No.	Statements	Scale					
		1 SDA	2 DA	3 N	4 A	5 SA	
1. Interpersonal Mistreatment							
a. Workplace Ostracism							
I felt that:							
1.	I am disconnected from my peers.						
2.	I am rejected by the supervisor for projects.						
3.	I am like an outsider.						
4.	I am invisible at my workplace.						
5.	I am meaningless to my management.						
6.	I am excluded from my peers.						
7.	I am non-existent in the organization.						
8.	I am insecure about my job.						
9.	I am unable to influence the actions of others.						
10.	Other players decided everything at the workplace.						
b. Incivility							
I feel that my supervisor(s) and co-workers have:							
1.	Spoken to me in a demeaning way.						
2.	Addressed me in an unprofessional manner.						
3.	Been rude toward me.						
4.	Stared at me critically.						
5.	Used harsh language that hurt me.						
6.	Been unfriendly toward me.						

7.	Been bad-tempered or short-tempered toward me.					
8.	Been unapologetic for making a mistake.					
9.	Ignored my attempts to resolve any disagreements at the workplace.					
10.	Been arrogant towards me.					
11.	Been insensitive to my feelings.					
12.	Used an unpleasant tone of voice while speaking to me.					
c. Interpersonal Conflicts						
4.	I often get into arguments with others at work.					
5.	Others mostly yell (shout) at me at the workplace.					
6.	People are rude to me at work.					
7.	Mostly, people do nasty things to me at work.					
d. Harassment						
1.	Someone at work made critical comments about my ethnicity.					
2.	Someone at work used ethnic slurs to describe me.					
3.	Someone at work failed to give me the information I need to do my job because of my ethnicity.					
4.	Someone at work tells jokes about my ethnic group.					
5.	Someone at work excludes me from social interactions during or after work because of my ethnicity.					
6.	Someone at work makes derogatory comments about my gender.					
7.	Someone at work tells jokes about my gender.					
8.	Someone at work uses sexist slurs to describe me.					
9.	Someone at work makes sexist comments (for example, says people of my gender aren't very smart or can't do the job).					
10.	Someone at work excludes me from social interactions					

	during or after work because of my gender.					
11.	Someone at work fails to give me the information I need to do my job because of my gender.					
2. Job Burnout						
1.	I see enjoyable work activities as drudgery.					
2.	I have become more cynical or bitter about my job, my boss, or the company.					
3.	I have become more cynical or bitter about my boss.					
4.	My non-work relationships (marital, family, friendships) have been affected by my feelings about work.					
5.	I dread going to work in the morning.					
6.	I am easily annoyed or irritated by my co-workers.					
7.	I don't care about doing a 'good job' at work.					
8.	I regularly experience fatigue and low energy levels at my job.					
9.	I am easily bored with my job.					
10.	I get depressed on Sunday afternoons thinking about Monday and the coming week.					
3. Counterproductive Work Behavior (Bundle)						
1.	I purposely wasted my employer's materials/supplies.					
2.	I purposely did work incorrectly.					
3.	I came to work late without permission.					
4.	I took leave saying that I was sick when I wasn't.					
5.	I purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property.					
6.	I purposely dirtied or littered my place of work.					
7.	I purposely did my work incorrectly.					
8.	I purposely worked slowly when things needed to get					

	done.					
9.	I purposely failed to follow instructions.					
10.	I daydreamed rather than doing my work.					
11.	I refused to take on an assignment when asked.					
12.	I tried to look busy while doing nothing.					
13.	I purposely damaged my employer's materials/supplies.					
14.	I purposely spoiled my workplace.					
15.	I came to work late without permission.					
16.	I took a longer break than I was allowed to take.					
17.	I left work earlier than I was allowed to.					
18.	I deferred responsibilities that were assigned to me by the supervisor.					
19.	I purposely put less effort into the assigned job.					
20.	I don't want to do my share of work.					
21.	I spend less effort on my assigned tasks.					
22.	I visit different social websites during working hours.					
4. Emotional Intelligence						
1.	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.					
2.	I have a good understanding of my own emotions.					
3.	I really understand what I feel.					
4.	I always know whether or not I am happy.					
5.	I always know my team members' emotions from their behavior.					
6.	I am a good observer of other's emotions.					
7.	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.					
8.	I have a good understanding of the emotions of the people around me.					
9.	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to					

	achieve them.					
10.	I always tell myself that I am a competent person.					
11.	I am motivated to do a task without encouragement from others.					
12.	I always encourage myself to try my best.					
13.	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties wisely.					
14.	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.					
15.	I have good control of my own emotions.					
16.	I can always calm down quickly when I am angry.					

Thank you for your participation.
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Appendix 2

تحقیقی سروے

میں آپ کو اپنے تحقیقی منصوبے میں حصہ لینے کی درخواست کرتی ہوں تاکہ ہم جان سکیں کہ کام کرنے والی جگہ پر باہمی ناروا سلوک اور اس کے نتیجے میں رویوں پر کیا اثرات پڑتے ہیں۔ ایک فرضی خاکہ کے طور پر مثلاً نوکری چھوٹ جانا، جذبات میں بے اعتدالی، کام کرنے والے اور انتظامیہ کے درمیان آجانے والا خلاء ہمارے ذیلی موضوعات ہیں۔ میں نے اپنے تحقیقی منصوبے سے متعلق ایک مختصر سروے ساتھ لگا دیا ہے اور میں اس سروے کی تکمیل کے لیے آپ کا تعاون چاہتی ہوں۔ اگر آپ اس میں رضاکارانہ طور پر شامل ہوتے ہیں تو آپ کو بمشکل 10 سے 15 منٹ کا وقت لگے گا۔ ہر سوال سے متعلق اس جگہ نشان لگائیں جو آپ کا جواب ہو سکتا ہے۔ آپ سے حاصل ہونے والی معلومات کو خفیہ رکھا جائے گا۔ سروے کی تکمیل کے بعد اگر آپ چاہیں تو معلومات واپس حاصل کر سکتے ہیں۔

شکریہ

شریک کار کا نام: (اختیاری)		
جنس	عمر کی حد	تعلیمی قابلیت
مرد	30 سال سے کم	ایم فل سے زیادہ
عورت	30-39 سال	ماسٹر ڈگری
	40-49 سال	گریجویشن
	50-59 سال	انٹر میڈیٹ
	60 سال سے زیادہ	میٹرک یا اس سے کم
ازدواجی حیثیت	کیا آپ اس وقت ملازمت کر رہے ہیں؟	گھر میں کتنے افراد کھاتے ہیں؟
غیر شادی شدہ	ہاں	2 سے کم
شادی شدہ	نہیں	2-4
علیحدگی		4 سے زیادہ
طلاق یافتہ		
بیوہ/رنڈوا		
کتنے لوگ آپ پر انحصار کرتے ہیں؟	شعبہ	تقرری کی حیثیت
5 سے کم	سرکاری	مستقل ملازمت
5-10	پرائیویٹ	مکمل وقت کی ملازمت
10 سے زیادہ		جزوقتی ملازمت
عہدہ 7.	ادارے کا نام 11.	ہفتے میں کتنے گھنٹے کام کرتے 12.

☐ آفس بوائے ☐ لیبل اسسٹنٹ ☐ ٹیکنیشن ☐ سیکورٹی گارڈ ☐ مالی ☐ خاتساماں ☐ ویٹر ☐ اس کے علاوہ _____	(اختیاری)	ہیں؟ ☐ 20 گھنٹے سے کم ☐ 21-40 گھنٹے ☐ 41-50 گھنٹے ☐ 51-60 گھنٹے ☐ 61-70 گھنٹے ☐ 71-80 گھنٹے
تنخواہ کی حد 8,000 سے کم 9000 سے 12000 تک 13000 سے 20000 تک 21000 سے 30000 تک 0,000 سے زیادہ 3	کام کا تجربہ 2 سال سے کم 3-5 سال 6-10 سال 10-15 سال 15 سال سے زیادہ	

Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement using the scale provided. Check (✓) the corresponding number beside each statement.

- 1 مخالفت کرتا ہوں شدید = 1
 2 مخالفت کرتا ہوں = 2
 3 کوئی رائے نہیں = 3
 4 تائید کرتا ہوں = 4
 5 کرتا ہوں مکمل تائی = 5

Sr. No.	Statements	Scale				
		1 SDA	2 DA	3 N	4 A	5 SA
5. زیادتی باہمی						
e. بائیکاٹ جگہ کا کیا کام						
ہے کہ کیا محسوس نے میں						
11.	میں اپنے ساتھیوں سے الگ ہو گیا ہوں					
12.	میرا نگران میرے ساتھ منفی رویہ رکھتا ہے۔					
13.	میرے ساتھ اجنبیوں جیسا سلوک کیا جاتا ہے۔					
14.	میں ان کو کام کرتا ہوا نظر نہیں آتا۔					
15.	میں اپنی انتظامیہ کے لیے غیر اہم ہوں۔					

16.	میرا شمار میرے ساتھیوں کے ساتھ نہیں کیا جاتا۔				
17.	میرے ادارے میں ہونے یا نہ ہونے سے ادارے کو فرق نہیں پڑتا				
18.	میں اپنی نوکری کے حوالے سے غیر محفوظ ہوں				
19.	میں دوسروں پر اثر انداز ہونے کے قابل نہیں تھا				
20.	کام کی جگہ پر دوسرے لوگ ہی ہر چیز کا فیصلہ کرتے ہیں				

f. تمیزید

	میں نے محسوس کیا میرا نگران اور میرے ساتھی				
13.	مجھ سے توہین آمیز انداز میں گفتگو کرتے ہیں				
14.	مجھ سے غیروں جیسا رویہ رکھتے ہیں۔				
15.	مینانداز متکبرانہ سے مجھ کرتے ہیں بات				
16.	تنقیدی نگاہ سے مجھے دیکھا جاتا ہے۔				
17.	کیا جاتا ہے غصہ پر مجھ				
18.	مجھ سے غیر دوستانہ رویہ رکھا جاتا ہے۔				
19.	بلا وجہ غصہ کیا جاتا ہے پر مجھ				
20.	معافی نہیں مانگی جاتی۔ غلطی کرنے کے بعد				
21.	کام کی جگہ پر کسی بھی معاملے کو حل پر تعریف نہیں کی جاتی۔				
22.	میرے لیے دل میں غصہ رکھا جاتا ہے۔				
23.	میرے جذبات اور احساسات کا خیال نہیں رکھا جاتا۔				
24.	مجھ سے ناگوار لہجے میں بات کی جاتی ہے۔				

g. تنازعہ عتابی

8.	میں کام کے دوران اکثر بحث مباحثہ کرتا ہوں۔				
9.	کام کی جگہ پر اکثر لوگ مجھے ڈانٹتے ہیں۔				
10.	کام کی جگہ پر اکثر میرے ساتھ گستاخانہ رویہ رکھا جاتا ہے۔				
11.	لوگ اکثر مجھ سے برا رویہ رکھتے ہیں				

h. براساں کرنا

1.	کچھ لوگ نسلی منافرت کی وجہ سے مجھ پر جملے کستے ہیں۔				
2.	کچھ لوگ مجھ پر نسلی محاورات کا استعمال کرتے ہیں۔				

3	کچھ لوگ نسلی بنیاد پر میرے کام سے متعلق معلومات مجھے فراہم نہیں کرتے۔					
4	کچھ لوگ میری قوم کے حوالے سے لطیفے سناتے ہیں۔					
5.	کچھ لوگ میری ذات کی وجہ سے کام کے دوران یا کام کے بعد میرا سماجی بےکڑ کرتے ہیں۔					
6.	کچھ لوگ مجھ پر جنسی جملے کستے ہیں۔					
7.	کچھ لوگ میری صنف سے متعلق جملے کستے ہیں۔					
8.	کچھ لوگ مجھ سے صنفی امتیاز برتتے ہیں۔					
9.	کچھ لوگ میری صنف سے متعلق کمنٹس کرتے ہیں مثلاً یہ بہت زیادہ ہوشیار نہیں یا یہ کام نہیں کر سکتے۔					
10	بعض لوگ میری صنف کی وجہ سے کام کے دوران اور کام کے بعد مجھ سے سماجی رابطہ نہیں رکھتے۔					
11	کچھ لوگ صنف کی وجہ سے میرے کام سے متعلق معلومات مجھے فراہم نہیں کرتے۔					

شدید ذہنی دباؤ 6.

11.	میں مشکل کاموں کو بھی بہت انجوائے کرتا ہوں					
12.	میں اپنے ادارے کے حوالے سے برے خیالات رکھتا ہوں۔					
13.	میں اپنے پاس کے حوالے سے برے خیالات رکھتا ہوں۔					
14.	میرے ذاتی رشتے مثلاً شادی، دوستی اور خاندان میرے کام پر اثر انداز ہوتے ہیں۔					
15.	میں صبح کام پر جانے سے گھبراتا ہوں۔					
16.	میرے ساتھی مجھے ذہنی اذیت دیتے ہیں۔					
17.	میں زیادہ اچھا کام کرنے کو پسند نہیں کرتا۔					
18.	مجھے روٹین میں کام کے دوران تھکاوٹ کا احساس ہوتا ہے۔					
19.	میں اپنے کام سے تنگ آ جاتا ہوں۔					
20.	میں آنے والے پیر اور آئندہ آنے والے پورے ہفتے کا سوچ کراتوار کی دوپہر کو گھبرانے لگتا ہوں۔					

کام کے لئے منفی رویہ 7.

23.	میں جان بوجھ کر اپنے ادارے کے وسائل کو ضائع کرتا ہوں۔					
24.	میں جان بوجھ کر کام کو خراب کرتا ہوں۔					

25.	میں بنا اجازت کام پر لیٹ آتا ہوں۔					
26.	جب میں کام پر نہیں آتا تو میں گھر ہونے کے باوجود کہتا ہوں کہ میں بیمار ہوں۔					
27.	میں جان بوجھ کر ادارے کی چیزوں کو توڑتا ہوں۔					
28.	میں جان بوجھ کر کام کی جگہ پر گندگی پھیلاتا ہوں۔					
29.	میں جان بوجھ کر اپنا کوم غلط کرتا ہوں۔					
30.	جب کام جلدی مکمل کرنے کی ضرورت ہوتی ہے تو میں جان بوجھ کر کام آہستہ کرتا ہوں۔					
31.	میں جان بوجھ کر ہدایات پر عمل نہیں کرتا۔					
32.	میں کام کرنے کی بجائے خیالی پلاؤ پکاتا ہوں۔					
33.	میں کوئی بھی چیلنج لینے سے انکار کر دیتا ہوں					
34.	میں کچھ بھی نہ کرتے ہوئے مصروف نظر آنے کی کوشش کرتا ہوں۔					
35.	میں جان بوجھ کر اپنے ادارے کے وسائل کو نقصان پہنچاتا ہوں۔					
36.	میں جان بوجھ کر اپنے کام کی جگہ کو خراب کرتا ہوں۔					
37.	میں بغیر اجازت لیٹ آتا ہوں۔					
38.	جب میں کام پر نہیں آتا تو میں گھر ہونے کے باوجود کہتا ہوں کہ میں بیمار ہوں۔					
39.	مجھے جتنی دیر کاوقفہ دیا جاتا ہے میں اس سے زیادہ وقت لگاتا ہوں					
40.	میں وقت سے پہلے چلا جاتا ہوں۔					
41.	جھے جو کام دیے جاتے ہیں میں ان کو ٹالنا رہتا ہوں۔					
42.	مجھے جو کام دیا جاتا ہے میں جان بوجھ کر اس کو کم توجہ دیتا ہوں۔					
43.	میں اپنے حصے کا کام نہیں کرتا۔					
44.	میں اپنے حصے کے کاموں کو کرنے میں پوری کوشش نہیں کرتا۔					
45.	میں کام کے دوران سماجی رابطے کی ویب سائٹس دیکھتا ہوں۔					
8. جذباتی وابستگی						
17.	میں مختلف اوقات میں اپنے ہونے والے جذبات کے بارے میں اچھی طرح جانتا ہوں۔					
18.	میں اپنے جذبات کو اچھی طرح سمجھتا ہوں۔					
19.	میں جو محسوس کرتا ہوں اسے اچھی طرح سمجھتا بھی ہوں۔					
20.	میں اس بات کو جانتا ہوں کہ میں کب خوش اور کب ناخوش ہوں۔					

21.	میں اپنے ساتھیوں کے رویوں سے ان کے احساسات کا اندازہ لگا لیتا ہوں۔					
22.	میں دوسروں کے جذبات کو اچھی طرح سمجھتا ہوں۔					
23.	میں دوسروں کے جذبات اور احساسات کے بارے میں بہت حساس ہوں۔					
24.	جولوگ میرے ارد گرد ہیں میں ان کے جذبات کو بہت اچھی طرح سے جانتا ہوں۔					
25.	میں اپنے لیے مقصد کا تعین خود کرتا ہوں اور پھر اس کو حوصلہ کرنے کے لئے پوری کوشش کرتا ہوں۔					
26.	میں ہمیشہ اپنے آپ سے اپنے بارے میں کہتا ہوں کہ میں ایک قابل انسان ہوں۔					
27.	میں دوسروں کی تعریف کے بنا بھی اپنا کام لگن کے ساتھ کرتا ہوں۔					
28.	میں نے ہمیشہ بہتر کام کرنے کے لیے اپنی ہمت بندھائی ہے۔					
29.	میں اپنے غصے کو کنٹرول کرنے اور سمجھداری کے ساتھ مشکلات کو ہینڈل کرنے کی صلاحیت رکھتا ہوں۔					
30.	میں اپنے جذبات کو کنٹرول کرنے کی پوری صلاحیت رکھتا ہوں۔					
31.	مجھے اپنے جذبات پر مکمل اختیار ہے۔					
32.	میں جب غصے میں ہوتا ہوں تو اپنے جذبات کو فوراً کنٹرول کر لیتا ہوں۔					

آپکے تعاون کا بہت شکریہ
نادیہ ناصر

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Appendix 3

Table 4.1.1: Demographic profile of the respondents

Respondents' Demographic Information (N = 323)	White Collar Employees		Blue Collar Employees	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Gender				
Male	239	74	294	91
Female	82	25	29	9
Age				
Under 30 years	158	48.9	136	42.1
30–39 years	67	20.7	63	19.5
40–49 years	75	23.2	83	25.7
50–59 years	23	7.1	38	11.8
Qualification				
PhD	39	12.1	23	----
M.Phil	144	44.6	53	----
Masters	36	11.1	110	7.1
Graduation	97	30.0	137	16.4
Intermediate	6	1.9		34.1
Matriculation or less	----	----		42.4
Marital Status				
Single	112	34.7	143	44.3
Married	209	64.7	174	53.9
Separated	1	00.3	6	1.9
Currently Employed Family Members				
Fewer than 2	125	38.7	90	27.9
2–4	153	47.4	133	41.2
More than 4	45	13.9	100	31.0
Dependents				
Fewer than 5	205	63.5	252	78.0
5–10	110	34.1	51	15.8
More than 10	5	1.5	1	.3
Sector				
Private	124	38.4	154	47.7
Public	199	61.6	169	52.3
Type of Appointment				
Permanent	186	57.6	248	76.8
Full-time	102	31.6	55	17.0
Contractual	33	10.2	20	6.2

Designation				
Program leader/HOD	18	5.6		
Professor	39	12.1		
Associate professor	32	9.9		
Assistant professor	29	9.0		
Lecturer	104	32.2		
Research associate	8	2.5		
Other	93	28.8		
Designation				
Peon			55	17.0
Lab assistant			14	4.3
Technician			57	17.6
Security guards			28	8.7
Gardner			50	8.7
Cook			12	3.7
Café boy			19	5.9
Other			88	27.2
Working Hours per Week				
Less than 30 hours	68	21.1		
30–40 hours	46	14.2		
41–50 hours	99	30.7		
51–60 hours	105	32.5		
61–70 hours	2	00.6		
Working Hours per Week				
Less than 20 hours			49	15.2
20–40 hours			1	00.3
41–50 hours			41	12.7
51–60 hours			143	44.3
61–70 hours			40	12.4
71–80 hours			48	14.9
Salary Range				
Below Rs. 30,000	62	19.2		
Rs. 30,000–50,000	65	20.1		
Rs. 51,000–70,000	99	30.7		
Rs. 71,000–90,000	50	15.5		
Above Rs. 90,000	42	13		
Salary Range				
Rs. 9,000–12,000			40	12.4
Rs.13,000–20,000			174	53.9
Rs. 21,000–30,000			105	32.5
Above Rs. 30,000			3	00.9
Work Experience				
Fewerthan 5 years	108	33.4		
5–10 years	161	49.8		
11–15 years	48	14.9		
16–20 years	4	1.2		
Above 20 years	2	6		

Work Experience				
Fewer than 2 years			81	25.1
3–5 years			69	21.4
6–10 years			97	30.0
10–15 years			41	12.7
Above 15 years			35	10.8

4.2. Descriptive Summary

Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics of measure items

Items	White Collar Employees					Blue Collar Employees				
	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
I am disconnected from my peers.	309	1.77	1.01	1	5	323	1.71	0.97	1	5
My supervisor rejects me for new projects.	323	2.41	1.05	1	5	323	2.14	0.85	1	5
I am like an outsider.	307	2.32	1.16	1	4	323	2.21	0.94	1	5
I am invisible at my workplace.	304	1.97	0.85	1	5	323	1.88	0.83	1	5
I am meaningless to my management.	311	3.30	6.68	1	4	323	2.05	0.75	1	5
I am excluded from my peers.	311	2.46	1.04	1	5	323	2.16	0.86	1	5
I am non-existent in the organization.	315	2.24	1.21	1	5	323	1.92	0.88	1	5
I am insecure about my job.	323	2.53	1.08	1	5	312	2.05	0.86	1	5
I am unable to influence the actions of others.	306	2.38	0.97	1	5	323	2.19	0.94	1	5
Other people decide everything at the workplace.	323	2.37	1.12	1	5	323	2.37	1.00	1	5
I am spoken to in a demeaning way.	323	2.01	0.94	1	5	322	2.21	1.08	1	5
I am addressed in an unprofessional	323	2.44	1.04	1	5	323	2.36	0.98	1	5

manner.										
People are rude to me.	323	2.14	1.13	1	5	323	2.24	0.97	1	5
People stare at me critically.	323	2.17	0.87	1	5	323	1.98	0.76	1	5
People use harsh language that hurts me.	323	2.65	0.91	1	5	323	2.01	0.85	1	5
People are unfriendly towards me.	323	2.36	1.30	1	5	323	2.05	0.83	1	5
People are bad-tempered or short-tempered with me.	323	2.57	1.19	1	5	323	2.10	0.81	1	5
People are unapologetic about making mistakes.	323	2.51	0.99	1	5	323	2.20	0.95	1	5
My attempts to resolve any disagreement at work are ignored.	323	2.41	1.23	1	5	323	1.98	0.82	1	5
People are arrogant towards me.	323	2.65	1.12	1	5	323	2.32	1.08	1	5
People are insensitive to my feelings.	321	2.65	1.08	1	5	323	1.98	0.89672	1	5
People use an unpleasant tone of voice while speaking to me.	323	2.60	1.17	1	5	323	2.27	1.13	1	5
I often get into arguments with others at work.	323	2.03	1.01	1	5	323	2.50	1.16	1	5
People yell at me at work.	323	2.30	0.57	1	4	323	2.16	0.98	1	5
People are rude to me at work.	323	2.42	1.07	1	5	323	1.84	0.85	1	5
People do nasty things to me at work.	323	2.35	0.95	1	4	323	2.20	0.82	1	5
Someone at work makes critical comments about my ethnicity.	323	2.05	1.15	1	5	323	2.04	0.84	1	5
Someone at work uses ethnic slurs to describe me.	323	2.38	1.10	1	5	323	2.09	0.89	1	5
Someone at work fails to give me the	323	2.46	1.11	1	5	323	2.11	0.80	1	5

information I need to do my job because of my ethnicity.										
Someone at work tells jokes about my ethnic group.	323	2.33	1.28	1	5	323	2.34	0.98	1	5
Someone at work excludes me from social interactions during or after work because of my ethnicity.	323	2.49	1.15	1	5	323	2.06	0.78	1	5
Someone at work makes derogatory comments about my gender.	323	2.36	1.34	1	5	323	2.43	1.00	1	5
Someone at work tells jokes about my gender.	323	2.46	1.05	1	5	323	2.24	0.93	1	5
Someone at work uses sexist slurs to describe me.	323	2.18	0.89	1	4	323	2.28	0.97	1	5
Someone at work makes sexist comments.	323	2.22	1.14	1	5	323	2.43	0.97	1	5
Someone at work excludes me from social interactions during or after work because of my gender.	323	2.71	1.17	1	5	323	2.31	0.96	1	5
Someone at work fails to give me the information I need to do my job because of my gender.	323	2.30	1.12	1	5	323	2.05	0.93	1	5
I consider enjoyable work activities as drudgery.	323	2.46	1.43	1	5	323	2.21	1.22	1	5
I have become more cynical or bitter about my job, boss, or the company.	323	2.19	0.73	1	4	323	1.91	0.74	1	5
I have become more cynical or bitter about my	323	2.43	0.89	1	4	323	2.08	0.88	1	5

boss.										
My non-work relationships (marital, family, and friendships) are affected by my feelings about work.	323	2.33	1.20	1	5	323	2.06	0.98	1	5
I dread going to work in the morning.	323	2.74	1.24	1	5	322	2.08	0.82	1	5
I am easily annoyed or irritated by my coworkers.	323	2.47	0.89	1	5	323	2.14	0.85	1	5
I care less about doing a “good job” at work.	323	1.85	0.96	1	4	323	2.24	1.01	1	5
I regularly experience fatigue and low energy levels at my job.	323	2.34	0.84	1	4	323	2.49	1.09	1	5
I am easily bored by my job.	308	2.48	0.91	1	4	323	2.14	0.87	1	5
I am depressed on Sunday afternoons thinking about Monday and the coming week.	323	2.41	0.92	1	5	323	2.40	1.04	1	5
I purposely wasted my employer’s materials/supplies.	323	2.04	1.16	1	5	323	2.56	4.43	1	5
I purposely did work incorrectly.	323	2.33	1.05	1	5	323	1.93	0.91	1	5
I came to work late without permission.	323	2.47	1.26	1	5	323	2.30	1.17	1	5
I stayed home from work and said I was sick when I was not.	323	2.11	1.40	1	5	323	2.18	1.22	1	5
I purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property at work.	323	2.39	1.11	1	5	323	2.17	1.16	1	5
I purposely dirtied or littered my place of work.	323	2.39	0.80	1	5	323	2.21	1.16	1	5
I purposely did my	323	2.12	1.21	1	5	323	1.90	1.15	1	5

work incorrectly.										
I purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done.	323	2.31	0.91	1	5	323	1.91	0.87	1	5
I purposely failed to follow instructions.	323	2.51	0.84	1	5	323	2.38	1.05	1	5
I daydreamed rather than did my work.	323	2.15	1.11	1	5	323	2.02	1.11	1	5
I refused to take on an assignment when asked.	323	2.45	0.97	1	5	323	2.24	1.04	1	5
I tried to look busy while doing nothing.	323	2.82	1.03	1	5	313	2.33	1.07	1	5
I purposely damaged my employer's materials/supplies	323	2.28	1.41	1	5	323	2.20	1.21	1	5
I purposely spoiled my workplace.	323	2.37	0.99	1	5	323	2.31	1.13	1	5
I stayed home from work and said I was sick when I was not.	323	2.62	1.14	1	5	323	1.92	0.96	1	5
I took a longer break than I was allowed.	323	2.20	1.35	1	5	322	2.08	0.95	1	5
I left work earlier than I was allowed to.	323	2.12	0.84	1	5	323	2.05	0.99	1	5
I deferred responsibilities that were assigned to me by my supervisor.	323	2.52	1.00	1	5	323	2.26	1.12	1	5
I purposefully put in less effort on the assigned job.	323	2.20	1.11	1	5	316	2.28	1.15	1	5
I do not want to do my share of work.	323	2.54	1.10	1	5	323	2.16	1.22	1	5
I spend less effort on my assigned tasks.	323	2.37	0.99	1	5	323	2.36	1.10	1	5
I visit different social websites during working	323	2.41	1.10	1	5	323	2.26	1.38	1	5

hours.										
I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	323	3.05	1.45	1	5	323	3.28	1.66	1	5
I have a good understanding of my own emotions.	323	3.31	0.98	1	5	323	3.53	1.51	1	5
I really understand what I feel.	304	3.19	0.92	1	5	323	3.42	1.38	1	5
I always know whether or not I am happy.	323	3.30	1.36	1	5	323	3.37	1.42	1	5
I always know my team members' emotions from their behavior.	323	3.11	1.20	1	5	323	3.44	1.18	1	5
I am a good observer of other people's emotions.	323	4.39	5.69	1	3	323	3.48	1.28	1	5
I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	323	3.74	1.26	1	5	323	3.54	1.46	1	5
I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	323	3.80	0.92	1	5	312	3.53	1.08	1	5
I always set goals for myself and try my best to achieve them.	323	3.65	0.86	1	5	323	3.29	1.23	1	5
I always tell myself that I am a competent person.	323	3.90	1.19	1	5	323	3.60	1.20	1	5
I am motivated to perform a task without encouragement from others.	323	3.64	0.95	1	5	323	3.63	1.12	1	5
I always encourage myself to try my best.	323	3.64	1.32	1	1	323	3.43	1.21	1	5
I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties wisely.	323	4.02	0.96	1	5	322	3.69	1.20	1	5
I am quite capable of controlling my	323	3.95	0.91	1	5	323	3.70	1.05	1	5

own emotions.										
I have good control over my own emotions.	323	3.52	0.89	1	5	323	3.54	1.07	1	5
I can always calm down quickly when I am angry.	323	3.79	1.04	1	5	323	3.37	1.23	1	5

Table 4.4.3: Factor loadings

Cross Loadings of Employees		White Collar Employees	Blue Collar Employees
Items		Components	
1. Interpersonal Mistreatment			
a. Workplace Ostracism			
I feel that:			
21.	I am disconnected from my peers.	.877	.535
22.	Supervisors reject me for projects.	.831	.782
23.	I am an outsider.	.799	.844
24.	I am invisible at my workplace.	.856	.879
25.	I am meaningless to my management.	.667	.543
26.	I am excluded from my peers.	.860	.798
27.	I am non-existent in the organization.	.572	.733
28.	I am insecure about my job.	.618	.907
29.	I am unable to influence the actions of others.	.797	.604
30.	Other people decide everything at work.	.756	.858
b. Incivility			

I feel that my supervisor(s) and coworkers have:			
25.	Spoken to me in a demeaning way.	.725	.602
26.	Addressed me in an unprofessional manner.	.568	.883
27.	Been rude to me.	.808	.698
28.	Stared at me critically.	.532	.560
29.	Used harsh language that hurt me.	.815	.948
30.	Been unfriendly towards me.	.847	.832
31.	Been bad-tempered or short-tempered with me.	.558	.874
32.	Been unapologetic for making mistakes.	.831	.803
33.	Ignored my attempts to resolve disagreements in the workplace.	.820	.791
34.	Been arrogant towards me.	.864	.652
35.	Been insensitive to my feelings.	.801	.747
36.	Used an unpleasant tone of voice while speaking to me.	.726	.829
c. Interpersonal Conflicts			
1.	I often get into arguments with others at work.	.816	.971
2.	People yell at me at work.	.885	.785
3.	People are rude to me at work.	.731	.737
4.	People do nasty things to me at work.	.446	.792
d. Harassment			
1.	Someone at work makes critical comments about my ethnicity.	.697	.737
2.	Someone at work uses ethnic slurs to describe me.	.822	.545
3	Someone at work fails to give me the information I need to do my job because of my ethnicity.	.824	.761
4	Someone at work tells jokes about my ethnic group.	.837	.792
5.	Someone at work excludes me from social interactions during or after work because of my ethnicity.	.920	.807
6.	Someone at work makes derogatory comments about my gender.	.934	.800

7.	Someone at work tells jokes about my gender.	.866	.777
8.	Someone at work uses sexist slurs to describe me.	.460	.789
9.	Someone at work makes sexist comments (for example, by saying that people of my gender are not very smart or cannot do the job).	.860	.718
10.	Someone at work excludes me from social interactions during or after work because of my gender.	.691	.841
11.	Someone at work fails to give me information I need to do my job because of my gender.	.858	.873
2. Job Burnout			
21.	I consider enjoyable work activities as drudgery.	.927	.781
22.	I have become more cynical or bitter about my job, my boss, or the company.	.819	.763
23.	I have become more cynical or bitter about my boss.	.832	.616
24.	My non-work relationships (marital, family, and friendships) have been affected by my feelings about work.	.709	.728
25.	I dread going to work in the morning.	.849	.846
26.	I am easily annoyed or irritated by my coworkers.	.784	.834
27.	I care less about doing a “good job” at work.	.744	.856
28.	I regularly experience fatigue and low energy levels at my job.	.737	.764
29.	I am easily bored by my job.	.764	.567
30.	I am depressed on Sunday afternoons thinking about Monday and the coming week.	.717	.720
3. Counterproductive Work Behavior (Bundle)			
46.	I purposely wasted my employer’s materials/supplies.	.839	.851
47.	I purposely did work incorrectly.	.530	.555
48.	I came late to work without permission.	.725	.654
49.	I stayed home from work and said I was sick when I was not.	.744	.792
50.	I purposely damaged a piece of equipment or property.	.679	.671
51.	I purposely dirtied or littered my place of work.	.780	.782

52.	I purposely worked slowly when things needed to get done.	.577	.551
53.	I purposely failed to follow instructions.	.876	.487
54.	I daydreamed rather than did my work.	.757	.775
55.	I refused to take on an assignment when asked.	.730	.675
56.	I tried to look busy while doing nothing.	.715	.801
57.	I purposely damaged my employer's materials/supplies.	.799	.701
58.	I purposely spoiled my workplace.	.725	.723
59.	I took a longer break than I was allowed.	.776	.618
60.	I left work earlier than I was allowed to.	.590	.730
61.	I deferred responsibilities that were assigned by supervisor.	.776	.782
62.	I purposefully invested less effort in the assigned job.	.875	.681
63.	I do not want to do my share of the work.	.842	.719
64.	I spend less effort on my assigned tasks.	.855	.760
65.	I visit different social websites during working hours.	.890	.709
4. Emotional Intelligence			
33.	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	.905	.704
34.	I have a good understanding of my own emotions.	.880	.649
35.	I really understand what I feel.	.614	.590
36.	I always know whether or not I am happy.	.911	.656
37.	I always know my team members' emotions from their behavior.	.896	.645
38.	I am a good observer of the emotions of others.	.974	.565
39.	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	.904	.523
40.	I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	.775	.655
41.	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	.866	.674

42.	I always tell myself that I am a competent person.	.927	.770
43.	I am motivated to perform a task without encouragement from others.	.718	.798
44.	I always encourage myself to try my best.	.961	.909
45.	I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties wisely.	.896	.792
46.	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	.449	.709
47.	I have good control over my own emotions.	.866	.665
48.	I can always calm down quickly when I am angry.	.744	.776