

**ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONSTRUCTIVE
DEVIANCE BEHAVIOURS: A MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL**

By

Kamil Hussain



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

ISLAMABAD

Jan, 2021

**ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONSTRUCTIVE
DEVIANCE BEHAVIOURS: A MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL**

By

Kamil Hussain

MS (MS), Shaheed Zulfiqar Ali Bhutto Institute of Science and Technology (SZABIST),
2013

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

In **MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

To

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES, ISLAMABAD

Jan, 2021

© Kamil Hussain, 2021



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

THESIS/DISSERTATION AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read the following thesis, examined the defense, are satisfied with the overall exam performance, and recommend the thesis to the Faculty of Advanced Integrated Studies & Research for acceptance:

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF CONSTRUCTIVE DEVIANCE BEHAVIOURS: A MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL

Thesis/ Dissertation Title: Antecedents and Consequences of Constructive Deviance Behaviours: A
Moderated Mediation Model

Submitted By: Kamil Hussain
Name of Student

Registration #: 508-PhD/MS/S14

Doctor of Philosophy
Degree Name in Full

Management Sciences
Name of Discipline

Dr. Hina Rehman
Name of Research Supervisor

Signature

Prof. Dr. Naveed Akhtar
Name of Dean (FMS)

Signature

Major General (R). Muhammad Jaffar HI (M)
Name of Rector

Signature

Date

CANDIDATE DECLARATION FORM

I Kamil Hussain

Son of Fazal Hussain

Registration # 508-PhD/MS/S14

Discipline: Management Sciences

Candidate of Doctor of Philosophy at the National University of Modern Languages do hereby declare that the dissertation **Antecedents and Consequences of Constructive Deviance Behaviours: A Moderated Mediation Model**

Submitted by me in partial fulfilment of PhD degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.

I also understand that if evidence of plagiarism is found in my dissertation at any stage, even after the award of the degree, the work may be cancelled and the degree revoked.

Jan, 2021

Signature of Candidate

Kamil Hussain

Name of Candidate

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents;

To whom I owe my whole life.

To my beloved wife

With millions of thanks and gratitude

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT.....	xvi
List of Tables	xviii
List of Figures	xix
List of Abbreviations/Acronyms.....	xx
Chapter 1	1
Introduction.....	1
1.1 Background of the study	1
1.2 Gap identification.....	5
1.3 Problem statement.....	8
1.4 Research Questions	8
1.5 Objectives of the study.....	9
1.6 Significance of the study.....	10
1.7 Contextual Analysis of the study	10
1.8 Delimitations of the study.....	12
1.9 Organization of Thesis.....	12
1.9.1 Chapter 1. Introduction.	12
1.9.2 Chapter 2. Literature Review.	13
1.9.3 Chapter 3. Research Methodology.....	14
1.9.4 Chapter 4. Data Analysis and Results.....	14
1.9.5 Chapter 5. Conclusion and Discussion.	14
1.9.6 Chapter 6. References.	15

Chapter 2.....	16
Literature Review.....	16
2.1 Supporting Theories.....	16
2.1.1 Social Exchange theory (Blau, 1964).	16
2.2.1.1 Social Exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and Model 1 of the current study.	17
2.2.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985).....	17
2.2.3 Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB) and Deviance behaviours.	22
2.2.4 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Model 2 of the current Study.	22
2.2 Other Theories of Workplace Deviance Behaviour.....	22
2.2.1 Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX).	23
2.2.2 Theory of Organization Support.	23
2.2.3 Social Information Processing Theory (SIP).	24
2.2.4 The social learning theory (SLT) (Bandura, 1977b).....	24
2.2.5 Theory of Social Bonding.....	25
2.2.5 Equity theory.....	26
2.2.6 Social Identity Approach.	27
2.2.7 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT).	28
2.3 Theories related to Individual response towards deviance	28
2.3.1 Theory of Problem Proneness.....	28
2.3.2 Theory of Differential Association.	29
2.3.3 Theory of social control.	29
2.3.4 The evolution of positive deviance from theory to practice.	30
2.4 Workplace deviance.....	31
2.5 Destructive deviance.....	32

2.6 Constructive Deviance.....	32
2.7 What differentiates Constructive deviance from Destructive Deviance?	35
Obstacles to constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).....	36
2.8 Employee Characteristics.....	37
2.8.1 Self-esteem.....	37
2.8.2 Generalized self-efficacy (GSE).	37
2.8.3 Extraversion.	38
2.8.4 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP).....	39
2.8.5 Proactive Personality.	40
2.9 Psychological Ownership.....	43
2.10 Psychological Empowerment.....	45
2.11 Person-Organization Fit (P-O FIT)	49
2.12 Employee Creative Performance (ECP)	50
2.13 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP)	52
2.14 Collectivistic Orientation	52
2.15 Predictors/antecedents of Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).....	55
2.16 Literature on Relationship between Variables	57
2.16.1 Extraversion and Psychological Empowerment.	57
2.16.2 Self-esteem and Psychological Empowerment.	57
2.16.3 Generalized self-efficacy (GSE) and Psychological Empowerment.	58
2.16.4 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP) and Psychological Empowerment. ...	58
2.16.5 Proactive Personality and Psychological Empowerment.....	58
2.16.6 Extraversion and Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	59

2.16.7 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP) and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	60
2.16.8 Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) and Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).	61
2.16.9 Proactive Personality and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	61
2.16.10 Self-esteem and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	62
2.16.11 Psychological Empowerment and Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).	63
2.16.12 Psychological empowerment as mediating variable.	64
2.16.13 P-O fit and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	64
2.16.14 P-O fit and Psychological ownership.	65
2.16.15 Psychological ownership and constructive deviance behaviours.	66
2.17 Mediating roles of Psychological Ownership	72
2.17.1 Mediating effect of Psychological ownership on the relationship between P-O fit and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)	72
2.18 Consequences of Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)	73
2.18.1 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and employee creative performance (ECP).	74
2.18.2 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and employee innovative performance (EIP).	77
2.19 Employee creative performance and organizational performance.	78
2.20 Employee innovative performance (EIP) and perceived organizational performance (POP).	81
2.21 Moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological empowerment and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	82
2.22 Moderating role of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological ownership and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	83

2.23 Theoretical Framework.....	84
2.24 Hypotheses.....	86
Chapter 3.....	88
Research Methodology	88
3.1 Introduction.....	88
3.2 Research Philosophy.....	88
3.3 Research Design.....	89
3.3.1 Quantitative method.....	89
3.4 Population and sample size.....	89
3.5 Population and Sample of the Study.....	90
3.6 Unit of analysis	90
3.7 Sampling technique.....	90
3.8 Research Questionnaire/Instruments of variables.....	91
3.8.1 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).	91
3.8.2 Person-Organization Fit (P-O FIT).....	91
3.8.3 Self-esteem.....	91
3.8.4 Extraversion.	91
3.8.5 Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE).....	91
3.8.6 Proactive Personality.	91
3.8.7 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP).....	92
3.8.8 Psychological Empowerment.....	92
3.8.9 Psychological Ownership.....	92
3.8.10 Collectivist Orientation.....	92
3.8.11 Employee Creative Performance (ECP).	92

3.8.12 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP).....	92
3.8.13 Perceived Organizational Performance.....	92
3.9 Operational definition of variables	93
3.9.1 Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).....	93
3.9.2 Person-Organization fit (P-O FIT).....	93
3.9.3 Psychological Ownership.....	93
3.9.4 Self-Esteem.....	93
3.9.5 Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE).....	93
3.9.6 Risk-taking Propensity.....	94
3.9.7 Proactive Personality.....	94
3.9.8 Extraversion.....	94
3.9.9 Psychological Empowerment.....	94
3.9.10 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP).....	94
3.9.11 Employee Creative Performance (ECP).....	94
3.9.12 Collectivist Orientation.....	95
3.9.13 Perceived Organization Performance.....	95
3.10 Pilot testing results.....	95
3.11 Self-report data.....	96
3.12 Software used for analysis of data	96
3.13 Statistical techniques.....	96
3.14 Demographic statistics.....	97
3.15 Descriptive statistics	97
3.16 Structural Equation Modelling.....	97
3.16.1 Assumptions of “Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)”.....	98

3.16.2 Benefits of “Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)”	98
3.16.3 Approaches to Structure Equation Modelling (SEM)	100
3.16.4 Specifying the Measurement and Path Model	100
i. Size of Path model	100
ii. Specifying the measurement model (Determination of the number of indicators).	101
3.16.5 Technical Analysis before SEM	101
3.16.5.1 Sample size	101
3.16.5.2 Statistical assumptions and outliers	102
3.16.5.3 Missing Data	102
3.16.5.4 Reliability	103
3.16.5.5 Unidimensionality	103
3.16.5.5 Estimation of the Measurement Model	103
3.16.5.7 Determination of Offending Estimates	104
3.16.5.8 High correlation among the constructs (Convergent Validity)	104
3.16.5.9 Standardized Factor Loading	104
3.16.6 Model Fitness of the Measurement Model	104
3.16.6.1 Composite reliability	105
3.16.6.2 Variance Extracted	105
3.16.7 Item Parcelling in Structure Equation Modelling	105
3.16.8 Difficulties of Reporting SEM Results	106
3.16.9 Computer Softwares/Programs for SEM	107
3.17 Interference of researcher	108
3.18 Research Ethics	108
Chapter 4	109

Data Analysis and Results	109
4.1 Introduction.....	109
4.2 Demographic Analysis.....	109
4.2.1 Gender.....	109
4.2.2 Age.....	110
4.2.3 Qualification.	110
4.2.4 Occupational Level.....	110
4.3 Descriptive Statistics.....	111
4.3.1 Descriptive statistics of Constructs.....	111
4.4 Normality of Data.	111
4.5 Linearity of Relationships.....	114
4.6 Descriptive analysis of items.	116
4.7 Data Analysis through Structure Equation Modeling (SEM).....	118
4.8 Unidimensionality and Reliability of Measurement Instrument	119
4.9 Principle Component Factor Analysis	119
4.10 Reliability.....	121
4.11 Measurement Models.....	122
4.12 Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	123
4.13 Measurement Model (Model 1)	123
4.13.1 Standardized Regression Weights or Factor Loadings	123
4.14 Correlation among constructs (Model 1)	124
4.15 Overall Model Fitness (Model 1).....	125

4.13 Measurement Model of Model 2.....	125
4.14 Factor Loadings (Model 2)	126
4.15 Model Fitness (Model 2).....	128
4.15 Model 3 Measurement Model.....	128
4.16 Factor Loadings or Standardized Regression Weights (Model 3).....	129
4.17 Model Fitness (Model 3).....	130
4.18 Measurement Models/Factor Loadings of all constructs	131
4.19 Correlations among constructs.....	133
4.20 Structural Model	134
4.21 Measures of Structural Model Fitness	134
4.21.1 Absolute fit measures.....	135
4.21.2 Incremental fit measures.	135
4.21.3 Non-centrality Based Measures.	135
4.21.4 Parsimonious Fit Measures.	135
4.22 Structural model for mediation of Model 1:	135
4.23 Structural Model for Model-1 after Modification indices	136
4.24 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)	137
4.25 Path model for mediation of Model 2:	138
4.26 Path Model Fitness of Model 2 (Fit Indices)	139
4.27 Structural Model for Model-1 after Modification indices	139
4.28 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)	141
4.29 Path Model for Model 3 (Mediation).....	142

4.30 Model fitness of Path Model of Model 3:	143
4.31 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)	143
4.32 Moderated Mediation results	144
4.32.1 Moderated Mediation for Model 1.....	144
4.32.2 Moderated Mediation for Model 2 (1).	146
4.32.3 Moderated Mediation for Model 2(2).	147
4.33 Summary of hypothesis.....	148
Chapter 5.....	150
Discussions and Conclusions.....	150
5.1 Introduction.....	150
5.2 Hypothesis 1.....	150
5.2.1 Result summary.	150
5.2.2 Discussion.	150
5.3 Hypothesis 2.....	151
5.3.1 Result Summary.....	151
5.3.2 Discussion.	151
5.4 Hypothesis 3 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)	152
5.4.1 Result Summary.....	152
5.4.2 Discussion.	152
5.5 Hypothesis 4.....	152
5.5.1 Result Summary.....	153
5.5.2 Discussion.	153
5.6 Hypothesis 5.....	153
5.6.1 Result Summary.....	153

5.6.2 Discussion.....	153
5.7 Hypothesis 6.....	154
5.7.1 Result Summary.....	154
5.7.2 Discussion.....	154
5.8 Hypothesis 7.....	154
5.8.1 Result Summary.....	154
5.8.2 Discussion.....	155
5.9 Hypothesis 8.....	155
5.9.1 Result Summary.....	155
5.9.2 Discussion.....	155
5.10 Hypothesis 9.....	156
5.10.1 Result Summary.....	156
5.10.2 Discussion.....	156
5.11 Hypothesis 10 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis).....	157
5.11.1 Result Summary.....	157
5.11.2 Discussion.....	157
5.12 Hypothesis 11 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis).....	157
5.12.1 Result Summary.....	157
5.12.2 Discussion.....	158
5.13 Hypothesis 12 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis).....	158
5.13.1 Result Summary.....	158
5.13.2 Discussion.....	159
5.14 Hypothesis 13 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis).....	159
5.14.1 Result Summary.....	159

5.14.2 Discussion.....	159
5.15 Hypothesis 14 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)	160
5.15.1 Result Summary.....	160
5.15.2 Discussion.....	160
5.16 Hypothesis 15.....	161
5.16.1 Result Summary.....	161
5.16.2 Discussion.....	161
5.17 Hypothesis 16.....	161
5.17.1 Result Summary.....	161
5.17.2 Discussion.....	162
5.18 Discussion on the concept of moderated mediation or conditional indirect effect.....	162
5.19 Discussion on moderated mediation results of the current study.	163
5.20 Practical Implications of the study.....	163
5.21 Theoretical Implications	166
5.22 Contribution of the Study.....	166
5.23 Limitations of the study	168
5.24 Recommendations.....	168
5.25 Conclusion of the study	170
REFERENCES	173
Appendix.....	208
Questionnaire	208

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the current study was to examine the antecedents and consequences of constructive deviance behaviours. Person-Organization fit, self-esteem, extraversion, generalized self-efficacy, proactive personality and risk-taking propensity were tested as antecedents of constructive deviance behaviours while psychological ownership and psychological empowerment has been used as mediating variables between these antecedents and constructive deviance behaviours. Moreover, perceptions of organization performance has been examined as a consequence of constructive deviance through the mediating roles of employee creative performance and employee innovative performance. Collectivist orientation has been used as a moderating variable on the relationships of psychological empowerment and psychological ownership with constructive deviance behaviours. Data was collected using questionnaire adopted from previous studies to measure the relationships between the variables. Data was collected from 561 managerial and non-managerial employees of organizations related to informatics sector. Results of the study showed that all the antecedents, mediating variables and consequences were significantly related with constructive deviance behaviours. Psychological empowerment mediated between the relationships of self-esteem and extraversion with constructive deviance behaviours while psychological empowerment mediated between the relationship of person-organization fit and constructive deviance behaviours. Similarly employee creative performance mediated between the relationship of constructive deviance behaviours and perceptions of organizational performance while collectivist orientation moderated the relationships of psychological empowerment and psychological ownership with constructive deviance behaviours. Conditional indirect effects of person-organization fit on constructive deviance behaviours through psychological ownership (mediator) were significant at the low, average and high values of collectivist orientation (moderator). Result also showed that conditional indirect effects of self-esteem and extraversion on constructive deviance behaviours through psychological empowerment (mediator) were significant at the low, average and high values of collectivist orientation (moderator). The current study proved that the importance of decreasing destructive deviance and its potential harms and costs cannot be denied but at the same times it is equally important for especially Pakistani organizations to focus their time and energies on the identification of constructively deviant employees and getting the most out of their unorthodox thinking and actions, because these are the people who can bring innovation and creativity in the organizations and play a major role for organizations in the present competitive times.

Key words: Constructive Deviance Behaviours, Psychological Empowerment, Psychological Ownership, Collectivistic Orientation, Perceptions of Organizational Performance, Person-Organization Fit.

List of Tables

TABLE 1. GAP ANALYSIS	6
TABLE 2. RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS FROM PAST RESEARCH PAPERS.....	7
TABLE 3. GENDER	109
TABLE 4. AGE.....	110
TABLE 5. QUALIFICATION	110
TABLE 6. OCCUPATIONAL LEVEL.....	110
TABLE 7. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONSTRUCTS.....	111
TABLE 8. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INDICATORS	116
TABLE 9. EIGEN VALUES OF MEASURES.....	119
TABLE 10. CRONBACH’S ALPHA VALUES FOR CONSTRUCTS	122
TABLE 11. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS	124
TABLE 12. CORRELATION	125
TABLE 13. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	125
TABLE 14. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS	127
TABLE 15. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	128
TABLE 16. CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS	130
TABLE 17. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	131
TABLE 18. CORRELATIONS.....	134
TABLE 19. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	136
TABLE 20. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	137
TABLE 21. STANDARDIZED DIRECT/INDIRECT EFFECT.....	138
TABLE 22. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	139
TABLE 23. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	140
TABLE 24. STANDARD REGRESSION, DIRECT/INDIRECT EFFECT.....	141
TABLE 25. GOODNESS OF FIT INDICES.....	143
TABLE 26. STANDARD REGRESSION, DIRECT/INDIRECT EFFECT	143
TABLE 27. MODERATED MEDIATION (MODEL 1)	145
TABLE 28. MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL 2(1).....	146
TABLE 29. MODERATED MEDIATION RESULTS FOR MODEL 2 (2).....	148
TABLE 30. SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES	148

List of Figures

FIGURE 1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	85
FIGURE 2. HISTOGRAMS SHOWING NORMALITY OF DATA FOR ECP, EXT, PO, SE, PE AND CO	112
FIGURE 3. HISTOGRAMS SHOWING DATA NORMALITY FOR POF, RTP, GSE, PP, POP, EIP AND CDB	113
FIGURE 4. LINEARITY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN VARIABLES	115
FIGURE 5. MEASUREMENT MODEL OF MODEL 1	123
FIGURE 6. MEASUREMENT MODEL OF MODEL 2.....	126
FIGURE 7. MEASUREMENT MODEL OF MODEL 4.....	129
FIGURE 8. MEASUREMENT MODEL SHOWING FACTOR LOADS OF CDB, CO, PE, EX, EIP, GSE AND PO.....	132
FIGURE 9. MEASUREMENT MODELS SHOWING FACTOR LOADINGS OF POF, SE, PP, ECP, POP AND RTP.....	133
FIGURE 10. MEDIATION MODEL 1	136
FIGURE 11. STRUCTURAL MODEL OF MODEL 1	137
FIGURE 12. MEDIATION MODEL FOR MODEL 2	139
FIGURE 13. MODEL FITNESS OF STRUCTURAL MODEL OF MODEL 2 AFTER MODIFICATION INDICES	140
FIGURE 14. PATH MODEL FOR MODEL 3 (MEDIATION).....	142
FIGURE 15. MODERATED MEDIATION (MODEL 1).....	145
FIGURE 16. MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL 2(1).....	146
FIGURE 17. MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL 2 (2)	147

List of Abbreviations/Acronyms

CDB	Constructive Deviance Behaviours
P-O Fit	Person to Organization Fit
PO	Psychological Ownership
PE	Psychological Empowerment
CO	Collectivist Orientation
EIP	Employee Innovative Performance
ECP	Employee Creative Performance
SE	Self-Esteem
EXT	Extraversion
RTP	Risk-taking Propensity
PP	Proactive Personality
GSE	Generalized Self-Efficacy
POP	Perceived Organizational Performance
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

Organizations have faced more loss and destruction due to denial of reality than they have faced due to incompetence. One should not avoid the already established rules and principles but when new realities emerge, they need new response plan, new strategies and new planning and modification in the already established rules to cope with them successfully. This is a reality that the world has changed and is changing very rapidly, especially the “corporate world”. Because of this, the corporate man (employee) is also changing as he knows that nothing is permanent and is continuously changing. The employee needs to understand the new emerging corporate realities and should be visionary and creative enough to redesign and reconstruct his future endeavours accordingly. In today’s corporate world, employees need space, freedom and open hand to handle things their selves and take decisions and steps according to their own will because the corporate world has become so competitive that working according to the usual job description is not enough. Employees need to work beyond their usual job descriptions for the benefit of the organization. Consequently employees sometimes violate organizational norms, rules or policies which can have serious consequences for the employees and for the organization. But the behaviours due to which the norms of the organization are violated are not all destructive (Yıldız & Alpkan, 2014). Some of these deviant behaviours are “constructive” which can have positive effects on the employee’s performance and on the overall organizational performance. The current study is an endeavour towards more exploration of the positive sides of destructive behaviours and exploration of the factors that lead an individual to behave in a way that violates the established norms and values of the organization but for the benefit of the organization. The study explored the variables that lead the individuals towards Constructive Deviance Behaviours and then eventually enhances the overall performance of the organization. The study also look at different mediating roles of variables such as psychological empowerment and psychological ownership between the antecedents and CDB. For making the study richer, a moderating variable of collectivist orientation has been tested upon the relationships of mediating variables and CDB.

Workplace deviance is a very vast and broad area and includes deviance on interpersonal and organizational level (Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007) and counterproductive work behaviours (Au & Ho, 2003; Dalal, 2005; Lau,). Research on deviance behaviour

suggests that deviance is the result of both differences between individuals and situational factors that lead to an unsatisfying and uncomfortable state (Martinko, Gundlach & Douglas, 2002). So the best place to start with is to focus on these two factors i.e. situational factors and interpersonal differences, because these two are the reasons which result in deviance behaviours. But these factors do not necessarily lead towards the destructive deviance behaviours. For example according to Martinko et al. (2002), one may say about the situations factors that Constructive Deviance Behaviour emerge because the organizational policies and practices are insufficient. So the logic here is that deviance behaviours whether positive or negative arise due to the insufficiency of existing conditions or policies, but this does not mean that there is injustice in the organization, rather CDB may be due to inefficiency or due to excessively narrow rules or roles.

CDB is a relatively an underexplored area in the field of organizational behaviour. The definition of CDB given by Vadera, Pratt & Mishra (2013) consists three characteristics i.e. i. Violation of significant organizational norms, ii. Intended to benefit the organization and iii. Conforming to hyper norms. However, some scholars (Warren, 2003; Galperin, 2003; Yildiz & Alpan, 2014) defined CDB as an opposite form of destructive deviance behaviours and defined it as “Voluntary behaviours which violates the norms of the organization and in doing so threatens the wellbeing of both the members and its organization” (p. 333). However, the similar or common thing between the CDB and destructive deviance behaviours is the intentions of the individual who exhibit such behaviours and the voluntariness (Yıldız, Alpan, Ates & Sezen (2015). Moreover, another dimension of CDB i.e. innovative CDB which is defined as “a voluntary behaviour in which individual put forward deviant but creative solutions for the wellbeing of the organization”. Galperin (2003) defined innovative CDB as “beneficial, innovative and creative acts which are directed towards the organization” (p. 158). The constructive side of deviance behaviours is relatively underexplored and very little empirical work has been done in this area and most of the studies have focused on the destructive or dark side of deviance behaviours. Deviant behaviours in organizations have enormous sociological, economic and psychological implications. For instance, theft by employees in organizations results in financial cost of about 50 billion dollar per year for US (Coffin, 2003). Employees who have been targeted by deviant behaviours have the propensity to develop stress, low morale or even to resign from the job (O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew, 1996). According to these scholars, employees who have been targeted by deviance behaviours also have propensity to experience increased fear, psychological as well as physical pain, lack

of confidence and low self-esteem. However, deviant behaviours can also be constructive, positive or functional. For instance, deviant behaviours in which individuals violate organizational norms can be a source of creativity and innovation in order to contribute to the social wellbeing as well as the organization's competitive advantage (Howell & Higgins, 1990; Krau, 2008).

CDB has been defined in many ways. For example, according to Spreitzer and Sonanshein (2003) defined it as "the intentional behaviours of individuals that depart from the norms of a referent group in honourable ways" (p. 209). The definition given by another scholar Galperin (2003) is "the voluntary behaviour of an individual that violates significant organizational norms for the purpose of the wellbeing of the organization, its members or both" (p. 158). The belief that CDB violates the norms of the organization is common in both the definitions and the difference between the two conceptualizations is the definition given by Spreitzer and Sonanshein (2003) discusses the honourable ways that improves the human conditions and society at large while the definition given by Galperin (2003) did not discuss the impact of CDB on the society at large and only implicitly states the impact of CDB on the organization or/and on its members. Moreover, Spreitzer and Sonanshein (2003) raise the issue of "human condition" that discusses the broader social norms (i.e. what is considered as respectable and virtuous) whereas the definition of Galperin (2003) focus on the wellbeing specific to an organization or a group. For more clarification, Warren (2003) is as "individual behaviours that violates the norms of the reference group but conforms to hyper norms" (p. 628). Hyper norms according to Donaldson and Dunfee (1999) are globally held values and beliefs. Warren also discussed that CDB also benefits the reference group. Vadera et al (2013) slightly modified the definition of Warren (2003) and defined CDB as "behaviours that violates the norms of the reference group and in doing so benefit the reference group and conform to hyper norms" (p. 3). The definition of Vadera et al. (2013) includes both the productive and unproductive norms. Since the mostly deliberated situation is that employee deviate from comparatively productive or beneficial norms of the group, it is also possible that an individual deviates from comparatively unproductive, harmful or toxic norms such as lack of productivity.

Warren (2003) views CDB as very comprehensive term which includes a wide array of deviance behaviours such as counter-role behaviours (Staw & Boettger, 1990), principled organizational dissent (Graham, 1986), tempered radicalism (Meyerson & Scully, 1995), exercising voice (Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998), whistle-blowing (Near & Miceli, 1985),

difference types of pro-social behaviours (Puffer, 1987; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), creative or functional disobedience (Breif, Buttram & Dukerich, 2001) and some types of OCB (Van Dyne et al., 1994). Other than these, extra-role behaviours (Van Dyne, Cummings & McLean Parks, 1995), creative performance (Amabile, 1996), issue selling (Dutton & Ashford, 1993) and pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006) have been discussed in literature. Vadera et al. (2013) also include extra-role behaviours, pro-social rule breaking, issue selling and creative performance under the rubric of CDB. Vadera et al. (2013) argued that these variables can fulfil the criteria of constructive deviance discussed above. For instance, creative performance is defined as “generation of useful and novel ideas or solutions for the organizational problems” (Amabile, 1996; Oldham & Cummings, 1996). The emphasis on helpfulness in this definition proposes the advantage for the reference group. Creativity due to its specific nature entails the violation of organizational norms or departure from the status quo (Zhou & George, 2001).

Another CDB i.e. issue selling refers to “voluntary behaviours in which individuals use to affect the agenda of the organization by raising an issue so that employees above them pay attention to it” (Dutton & Ashford, 1993). According to Warren (2003) issue selling is considered a part of voice which is a type of CDB, particularly focused on information about opportunities present in the organization or organizational strategic issues (Morrison, 2011). Moreover, extra-role behaviour is another discretionary behaviour which goes beyond normal job description and is defined as “the behaviour which is intended to benefit the organization and in doing so goes what is expected from the individual” (Van Dyne et al., 1995: 218) and pro-social rule breaking is defined as “a behaviour which is exhibited with the purpose of welfare of the stakeholders or the organization in which the individual violates the formal regulations or policies of the organization” (Morrison, 2006). The definition of these behaviours clearly states that these behaviours contains deviation from the formal and informal norms of the organization and also benefit the organization. Researchers on these behaviours believe that they conform to hyper-norms. Morrison (2006) argues that individuals perform these behaviours with the intention to do “good” for the organization.

Proactive behaviours are defined as “taking initiative for creating circumstance or improving the current circumstance by challenging the status quo rather than adapting to present situation” (Crant, 2000). So proactive behaviours are actions that employee take in advance to impact and protect themselves and their environment (Grant & Ashford, 2008) However they may or may not deviate from organizational norms or conform to hypernorms.

In the same way Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) has also been defined in various ways (Organ, 1988) and in all definitions the common notion is that OCB of employee benefit the organization and makes the organizational functioning more “easy” although these behaviours are not critical to the task that the employee performs. For example, helping co-workers is OCB (Organ, 1988). Just like proactive behaviours, OCB may or may not deviate from organizational norms or may or may not conform to hypernorms, but these behaviours benefit the organization.

1.2 Gap identification

The theoretical framework of the study shows the antecedents and consequences of CDB as shown in Figure 1. Much work has been done on destructive deviance behaviour (Yıldız & Yıldız, 2014; Örucü & Yıldız, 2014; Yıldız & Alpkan, 2014), but compared to destructive deviance behaviour, research work on CDB is almost non-existent. Galperin (2012) noted that despite the importance of constructive deviance in the workplace, there is lack of empirical research in this area. So the study was intended to make a substantial contribution in literature of CDB through empirically testing the relationships of the variables.

The relationship of variables in the study either: i) have empirical support in the existing literature. ii) have explicit theoretical support but no empirical support. iii) have neither explicit theoretical support nor empirical support but have implicit theoretical support to support the logic of the relationship. Please refer to Table1.

Table 1. GAP Analysis

Antecedents	Mediators	Moderators	Dependent variables	Empirical support	Explicit theoretical support	Implicit theoretical support
Extraversion	Psychological empowerment		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Taggar (2002); LePine & Van Dyne (2001); Crant, Kim, & Wang (2011)
Self-worth	Psychological empowerment		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Liao, Liu, & Loi (2010); LePine & Van Dyne (1998); Chiu (2003); Morrison & Phelps (1999)
Risk-taking propensity (RTP)	Psychological empowerment		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Morrison (2006); Madjar, Greenberg, & Chen (2011)
Proactive Personality	Psychological empowerment		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Miceli, Vanscotter, Near, & Rehg (2001); Crant et al. (2011)
Generalized self-efficacy (GSE)	Psychological empowerment		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Withey & Cooper (1989); Park & Blenkinsopp (2009);
Psychological empowerment		Collectivist orientation	Constructive deviance Behaviours	Cho & Faerman, (2010)	-	
Psychological ownership		Collectivist orientation	Constructive deviance Behaviours	Chung & Moon (2011)	-	
P-O Fit	Psychological Ownership		Constructive deviance Behaviours		-	Jawad et al. (2013); Cable & Judge (1996); Liu et al. (2010); Suárez-Mendoza & Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara (2008); Sharkavi et al. (2013)

So from the above references Table 1, it is clear that all the linkages or relationships between variables had just been implicitly mentioned and had no empirical or explicit literature support, except the relationship of “psychological empowerment, collectivist orientation, and CDB” and “psychological ownership, collectivist orientation and CDB”; but, in this study the psychological ownership and psychological empowerment have been used as mediating variables while collectivist orientation has been used as a moderating variable.

Research recommendations of various studies about these relationships have been presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Research recommendations from Past Research Papers

Relationships	Author(s)
Mediating effect of Psychological ownership between the relationship of P-O fit and Constructive deviance behaviours	Yıldız, Alpkan, Ates & Sezen (2015)
Mediating effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of employee characteristics and constructive deviance behaviours	Vadera, Pratt & Mishra (2013)
Moderating effect of collectivist orientation in the relationship of psychological ownership and constructive deviance behaviours	Chung & Moon (2011)
Moderating effect of collectivist orientation in the relationship of psychological empowerment and constructive deviance behaviours	Cho & Faerman, (2010)
Constructive deviance Behaviours (CDB)-Employee creative Performance (ECP)	Yıldız, Alpkan, Ates & Sezen (2015), Vadera, Pratt & Mishra (2013) AND Morrison, 2011
Constructive deviance Behaviours-Employee innovative Performance	Yıldız, Alpkan, Ates & Sezen (2015) Vadera, Pratt & Mishra (2013) AND Morrison, 2011

So all the relationships in the above theoretical model are new and had not been tested before and were recommended in other studies. Therefore, this study was intended to fill this gap and make a significant contribution in the body of knowledge on the topic of constructive deviance behaviours as a whole and particularly in the relationships between antecedent variables and constructive deviance behaviours, mediating roles of mediating variables and the moderating role of the moderating variable and then eventually the study make significant contribution in finding the consequences of constructive deviance behaviours and the desirable outcome i.e. enhanced performance of the organization.

1.3 Problem statement

According to World Economic Forum Report (2015), the ranking of Pakistan on creativity is 111th out of total 139 countries according to Global Creativity Index, (2015) published by Martin Prosperity Institute and 105th out of 129 countries according to Global Innovation Index (2019) published by World Intellectual Property Organization (WIPO), which shows that there are problems in Pakistani organizations which does not allow or give independence to the employees to be creative and innovative. We are living in such interesting times that sincere, wise and honest management of the organizations have to be brave enough to take different brave decisions and steps which can violate the organizational norms and policies. The management has to re-construct and review their approach towards management and has to sometimes take painful decisions. Constructive deviance behaviours is one of those brave and painful decisions which can prove to be beneficial to the organization. Secondly very few studies have been conducted on the topic of constructive deviance behaviours in Pakistan. So the rational of the study was to create an awareness in Pakistan about deviance behaviours that not all deviance behaviours are destructive, some are constructive and can prove to be useful in bringing creativity and innovation in the Pakistani organizations, and to close the gap in the area of constructive deviance behaviours and their relationship with the mentioned independent variables, mediators, moderators and dependent variables.

1.4 Research Questions

The research study was intended to answer the following research questions.

1. Does psychological ownership mediates between the relationship of person-organization fit (P-O FIT) and constructive deviance behaviours?

2. Does psychological empowerment mediate between the relationship of employee characteristics (self-esteem, extraversion, general self-efficacy, risk-taking propensity, proactive personality) and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)?
3. How collectivist orientation moderates between the psychological ownership-constructive deviance behaviours relationship and psychological empowerment-constructive deviance behaviours relationship (CDB)?
4. Does employee creative performance (ECP) mediate the relationship of constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and perceptions of organizational performance (POP)?
5. Does employee innovative performance (EIP) mediate the relationship of constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and perceptions of organizational performance (POP)?

1.5 Objectives of the study

The major objective of the study is to develop an integrated model for testing the impact of P-O FIT and employees characteristics (self-esteem, extraversion, general self-efficacy, risk-taking propensity, proactive personality) on constructive deviance behaviours and then consequently on ECP, EIP and POP. For achieving this objective, supportive objectives are as follows:

1. To determine the impact of Person-Organization Fit (P-O FIT) on Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) through the mediating role of psychological ownership.
2. To determine the impact of employee characteristics (self-esteem, extraversion, general self-efficacy, risk-taking propensity, proactive personality) on constructive deviance behaviours through the mediating role of psychological empowerment.
3. To determine the moderating role of collectivist orientation on both psychological ownership-constructive deviance behaviours relationship and psychological empowerment-constructive deviance behaviours relationship.
4. To determine the mediating effect of employee creative performance (ECP) between the relationship of constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and perceptions of organizational performance (POP).
5. To determine the mediating effect of employee innovative performance (EIP) between the relationship of constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and perceptions of organizational performance (POP).

1.6 Significance of the study

The study is substantial in the sense that due to globalization, new emerging technologies, creative and innovative ideas have put great pressure on organizations. Organizations are finding it very hard to survive in this severe competition and a survival of the fittest situation has been created. The situation of Pakistan is no different; rather the situation of Pakistan is worse as compared to other developing countries because the culture of Pakistani organizations is not according to the new desired organizational cultures where employees feel psychologically empowered and independent to do anything new and innovative according to their own will and understanding. For example, according to the Global Creativity Index, 2015, Pakistan stands at 111th ranking out of 139 countries on creativity throughout the world. This shows that Pakistan has been left behind in creativity by many small countries. Lack of CDB is definitely among the reasons for this low creativity because extensive literature shows that CDB encourage and promote creativity and innovation (Vadera et al., 2013; Robbins & Galperin, 2010; Howell & Higgins, 1990). Mostly the negative side of deviance behaviours has been the focus of the scholars (Yıldız & Yıldız, 2014; Örucü & Yıldız, 2014; Yıldız & Alpan, 2014) but CDB is comparatively less explored. Various studies have explored the CDB and has tested the relationship of CDB with leader-member exchange (Tziner et al., 2010), cultural factors (Galperin, 2002), personality traits (Big Five) (Bodankin & Tziner, 2009) and psychological ownership (Vandewalle et al., 1995; Chung & Moon, 2011) but most of the relationships taken in this study has not been explored before. In Pakistan very few studies have worked in the area of CDB that's why the model of the study is a way forward towards closing the gap in the area of CDB especially in Pakistani context. The informatics sector where creativity and innovation is desired and required, are prone to CDB. That's why the study has been conducted in this sector and organizations of Pakistan.

1.7 Contextual Analysis of the study

There is no doubt that software development is one of the important strategic industries for the economic growth of any country. According to (Al-Jaghoub 2004, Heeks and Nicholson 2004, Kambhampati 2002), software can prove to be act as a catalyst for the economic development of any country. The studies of Acs and Mueller (2006), Bosma (2006) and Stam (2007) also reported positive contribution of software firms in both the knowledge and

conventional economies of the country. Software sector of India is excellent example of the positive contribution of software development in almost all industrial sectors of the country (Nasscom, 2006). According to Pakistan Software Export Board (PSEB), Pakistan's IT and ITes export remittances recording at \$1.231 billion during the year 2019, which is very less as compared to India's \$137 billion worth of software exports during the year 2019, which is a mere 5% of the total exports of the country in the year 2019 according to Pakistan Bureau of Statistics Report (2019). Though Pakistan's IT sector is showing growth but still the country is far behind from the regional countries in the field of IT.

Therefore, looking at the share of global IT sales, Pakistan cannot be considered as a powerhouse in the field of information technology. Currently total 4464 IT companies are registered on Pakistan Software Export Board and about 20,000 IT Graduates are coming in the market annually. A major portion of Pakistan's total IT exports is accounted for the freelancers. Pakistan is ranked at No.3 country for the supply of freelance programmers after only the US and India. So there are signs of considerable improvements in the country's IT sector, however statistics says that 9 out of 10 startups fail and those who succeed create innovative and creative products and services. The availability of latest technology and faster internet services should have given a considerable boost to the country's IT exports but still the statistics shows that Pakistan's IT sector is lagging far behind from other countries. The software development is one of the major component of the IT sector but some Pakistani firms provide low value products and services.

So this is a reality that only those firms succeed which offers innovative and creative products and services, and software development firms are not exception. In-fact software development firms are more expected as compared to other industries to come up with innovative products. For this various studies reported positive relationship of constructive

deviance behaviors with increased creativity and innovation (Vadera et al., 2013; Robbins & Galperin, 2010; Howell & Higgins, 1990).

1.8 Delimitations of the study

The delimitations of the current study are as follows:

- The present study has been conducted in only one industrial setting i.e. software houses. However, it could be conducted in other industrial settings and a comparative analysis could be done between the two results of the industries.
- The results of the study are based on self-report data. However, data could be collected from multiple sources to minimize the chances of bias in data collection and then eventually in the results of the study.
- The study used only psychological empowerment as a mediating variable between employee characteristics (such as self-esteem, extraversion, RTP, GSE and proactive personality) and CDB. However, other mediating variables could also be used to understand the mechanism of the associations among numerous independent variables and CDB.
- The study used collectivist orientation as a mediating variable. However, future studies can use other variables as moderating variables to check the association of various independent variables and CDB in the presence of a mediating variable and to test whether the moderating variable bring any change in the magnitude or strength of the their relationships.

1.9 Organization of Thesis

The thesis comprises five (5) chapters namely, Introduction, Review of Literature, Research Methodology, Data Analysis and Results, Conclusion and Discussion. Moreover an introduction of the chapters included in the thesis is given below:

1.9.1 Chapter 1. Introduction.

The first chapter presents an overview of the core idea of the research on which the whole thesis is built; i.e., exploring the antecedents and consequences of CDB in the presence of mediating variables such as psychological ownership and finding the role of the moderating variable of collectivist orientation on the connection of mediating variables of psychological

empowerment and psychological ownership with the CDB and then eventually exploring the consequences of CDB is the form of employee creative and innovative performance and organizational performance. It includes background of the study, Gap Analysis, Problem statement, Research Objectives, Research questions, Significance of the study, delimitation of the study and organization of the thesis. Background of the study is based on the background of the main research idea and the extent of research that has been done of the topic under consideration in the past. Gap analysis is based on the analysis of the research gap in the existent literature on the topic of CDB and its relationship with the antecedent variables, variables used as consequences of CDB and with the mediating and moderating variables taken in the study. Problem statement presents the main problem organizations especially Pakistani organizations are facing related to the main topic of the study i.e. CDB. Research questions presents the research questions which the study was intended to answer. Research Objectives discusses the core goals for which the current study was intended to achieve at the end. Significance of the study is based on the importance of the study with respect to the variable of interest, organization and the existing body of knowledge. At the end organization of the thesis discusses the contents discussed in all chapters.

1.9.2 Chapter 2. Literature Review.

The second chapter of the thesis includes the supporting theories and a detailed review of literature on the topic of the current study. The chapter presents review of past literature on all the variables i.e. independent variables (i.e P-O FIT, Self-esteem, extraversion, GSE, RTP and proactive personality), mediating variables (i.e. psychological ownership, psychological empowerment, ECP and EIP), moderating variable (Collectivist Orientation) and dependent variables (CDB and POP). The chapter also includes review of literature on the relationship between variables i.e. relationships of independent variables with dependent variables, relationship of independent variables with mediating variable, association of independent variables with moderating variable, association of mediating variable with dependent variable and the relationship of moderating variable with dependent variable. The chapter also include theoretical framework developed on the basis of extensive review of literature. Lastly the chapter presents the hypothesis to be empirically evaluated.

1.9.3 Chapter 3. Research Methodology.

Chapter 3 is based on the research methodology used for conducting the study. It includes Research Design, population and sample size, sampling techniques, unit of analysis, data collection instrument, Operational definitions of variables SEM and data analysis tools. In Research design the type and nature of the study has been discussed. Population and Sample size presents detail on the population and sample size of the study. The unit of analysis discusses the unit of analysis i.e. the entity (individual/group/organization) from which the data has been collected. Data collection instrument discusses the research questionnaire used for data collection on the relationship of variable of the study. It also discusses the studies from where the data collection instruments of variables have been adopted. Sampling techniques presents detail discussion on the sampling technique adopted in the current study and discussion of different types of sampling techniques. Operational definition of variables discusses the operationalization of variables of the study. This chapter also includes detailed discussion on SEM which is a multivariate analysis technique and at the end data analysis tools discuss the tools used for analysis of the data collected.

1.9.4 Chapter 4. Data Analysis and Results.

Chapter 4 discusses results of demographic and descriptive analysis and also discusses the method of SEM used for the examination of the collected data which is based on confirmatory factor analysis, reliability of the data collection instrument, measurement models of all the 3 models used in the study and their model fitness. It discusses the correlation between the variables. This chapter also presents the structural models and model fitness of all the 3 models. The chapter also presents the path models used for testing mediation and at the end the chapter presents the results of moderated mediation or conditional process analysis.

1.9.5 Chapter 5. Conclusion and Discussion.

Chapter 5 presents the conclusion of the study. It includes summary of the results and of all the relationships in the study. It also presents discussion on the results of the relationships of variables in the study. It also discuss the acceptance and rejection of hypotheses of the study. Chapter 5 discusses also the academic and practical implications of the study. This chapter also presents the contribution of the study in the present body of knowledge on subject matter. This chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and at the end future research recommendations have been discussed.

1.9.6 Chapter 6. References.

Chapter 6 presents the references of the studies cited in the study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Supporting Theories

2.1.1 Social Exchange theory (Blau, 1964).

The theory of social exchange is one of the most widely used theories in the field of management and sociology and was introduced by Blau in 1964. According to this theory, social life is a chain of relationships between two or more individuals (Mitchel et al., 2012). This theory has been used by researchers to explain the motivation behind the behaviours of employees (Etzioni, 1961) and to loyalty which the employees express towards their organization by performing those behaviours which are not formally expected from them (Organ, 1988). Employees feel responsible and try to compensate when they are benefited by their organization (Blau, 1964), because in organization there is a give and take relationship between employees and employers and both meet each other's needs (Farasat & Ziaaddin, 2013). This reciprocity is the most important characteristic of social exchange theory (Molm, 1994) because reciprocity is the interdependence between two parties and the outcome or behaviours are the result of the efforts of the two parties. According to the social exchange theorists, when the employees working in organization feel that their organization meet their needs and demands not because of the pressure from the work unions, they feel obliged to put more efforts for the welfare of their organization. Based on the concept of reciprocity, employee's self-esteem, self-identity and sense of belonging is satisfied by the organization, in response they also put extra efforts for the accomplishment of the needs of the organization (Taleghani et al., 2009). So according to this theory, based on the concept of reciprocity when employees perceive hostile or adverse behaviour from their organization, then they also respond with destructive deviance behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2006; Alias et al., 2012). This idea of reciprocity led to the development of the social exchange theory (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). The process of social exchange starts with a positive or negative treatment of a co-worker or supervisor with an individual (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage & Rohdieck, 2004). Negative actions include bullying (Lewis, 2004), abusive supervision (Tepper, 2007) or incivility (Pearson et al., 2005) while positive actions include justice (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008) and organizational support (Riggle, Edmondson & Hansen, 2009). So it is predicted that in response to unfavorable treatment from the coworkers or supervisors, individuals involve in negative or positive behaviours. The theory of social exchange has been used as a supporting

theory in a number of studies related antecedents of workplace deviance. These antecedents include organizational cynicism (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012), justice (Holtz & Harold, 2013), personality (Yildiz et al., 2015), leadership (Thau & Mitchell, 2010) and trust (Abdul, 2008). More emphasis has been given to the fairness of this exchange of behaviours between the two parties (Colquitt et al., 2006) and the judgment of this fairness or unfairness can be used to identify the engagement of employee in exchange relationships. Despite of the vast use of this theory, many issues are associated with this theory. This theory considers the absence of positive actions as presence of negative actions which may not be the case in reality (Cropanzano et al., 2017). There are three parts of the social exchange theory i.e. initiation of actions, the relationship between the two parties (individuals) and the reciprocation response (Cropanzano et al., 2017). Apart from these issues, there is a problem of the ambiguity of relationship or exchange between the employee and employer (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

2.2.1.1 Social Exchange theory (Blau, 1964) and Model 1 of the current study.

Cable and Judge (1996) established a strong relationship of P-O FIT with employee attitudes. As according perceptions, attitudes and behaviours are related according to the theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964). That's why there can be a strong relationship of P-O FIT with CDB. According to Suárez-Mendoza & Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara (2008), the theory of social exchange (Blau, 1964) has been used in many studies related to the field of social sciences. Greenberg and Scott (1996) argued that due to the reciprocal nature of the theory of social exchange, this can be argued that since all people have positive and negative perceptions which are connected with some positive or negative behaviours with the help of some positive attitudes. Hence, in the light of this theory, person-organization fit being the perception of an individual about the fit between him and the organization can created the attitude of psychological ownership which can then lead to CDB.

2.2.2 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985).

This theory determines an individual's intentions about the exhibition of a behaviour at a specific time and place. The basic idea of this theory is that it is the intention of the individual that result in the performance of the behaviour. While these intentions results from the attitude of the individual towards three things. First the attitude of the individual about the behaviour i.e. whether he or she likes the behaviour? Second subjective norms and third perceived

behavioural control i.e. the extent to which the individual perceives he or she has control over the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Behavioural Intention is defined as “the motivation of an individual to perform a specific behaviour” (Conner & Armitage, 1998). Generally, strong intentions of individuals will lead them to perform the behaviour, so if the intentions of the individual are strong, the chances of the performance of the behaviour increases. The dependency of behaviour on the intentions of the individual is supported by the TPB (Theory of Planned Behaviour) as well the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) which is the earlier version of the TPB (Theory of Planned Behaviour). The intentions of an individual are defined as “the extent to which an individual is ready to perform behaviour” (Fishbein, 1967; Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). There are more chances that people will perform a specific behaviour if they have planned to do it.

Attitude toward Behaviour is defined as “the extent to which an individual has negative or positive feeling towards the behaviour of interest”. It is based on concern about the outcome of the behaviour if performed. A number of beliefs make up the attitude of an individual and result in the importance the he or she gives to the outcomes of the behaviour (Ajzen, 2002a). The favourableness or un-favourableness of the attitude of an individual and the chance of the performance of behaviour is dependent on the outcome of behaviour. If the outcome or result of the behaviour is perceived as valuable, advantageous, positive, desirable or beneficial then there will be a favourable attitude towards behaviour and there will be more chances that the behaviour will be performed. For instance, if a person believe that eating soy is more beneficial to health than eating proteins, and that soy products does not produce food-born illness, the person will have positive attitude towards eating soy products and there will be more chances of eating soy products (Rah, Hasler, Painter & Chapman, 2004). In an example of how attitude leads to intention and then behaviour, the attitude of parent affect whether they have vaccinated their children. Parents who have positive attitude towards vaccines are more likely to vaccinate their children than those parents who have negative attitude towards vaccines (Gargano, Underwood, Sales, Seib, Morfaw & Murray, 2015).

Subjective Norm is defined as “the belief of an individual about the thinking of other people about him performing the behaviour”. It is based on the perception of the individual performing the behaviour about the social environment surrounding the behaviour. Subjective norm is the perceived social pressure about the performance or non-performance of a particular

behaviour, and are determined by normative beliefs. These are the behaviours that are expected from up by the people who are important for us. These important people include our parents, relatives, health care professionals, religious scholars, friends etc. However, these expectations of important may or may not be there in reality because they are our perceptions. In case of the example of eating soy, if a family member or a healthcare professional suggest the person to eat soy products, and if that person want to make them happy, then there are more chances that the person will eat soy products.

Perceived Behavioural Control is defined as “the perception of an individual about the degree to which the performance of the behaviour of interest is easy or difficult” (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavioural control increase when the individual perceive he has more confidence and resources (Lee & Kozar, 2005; Ajzen, 1985; Hartwick & Barki, 1994). A number of control beliefs affect the perceived behavioural control of an individual. These beliefs of the individual hinder the performance or help the person in performing the behaviour (Ajzen, 2002b).

The TPB was basically developed in the area of psychology which makes a connection of the behaviour of an individual with his belief and argues that the behaviour which the individuals perform results from the belief of the individual about that behaviour. This theory is basically the extended version of the TRA (theory of reasoned action). Ajzen developed this theory by extending his TRA in order to make the prediction of the behaviour of people possible. He extended the TRA by adding the concept of perceived behavioural control in it and named it as the TPB. In the field of management, this theory has been applied on studies where the belief, behavioural intention, attitude and behaviours of the people are discussed. This theory has been applied in fields which includes public relations, advertising campaigns, healthcare management and sport management. The TPB was first introduced by Ajzen (1985) in his article on the topic of “From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behaviour”. The previous theory i.e. the TRAed was developed by Fishein and AJzen (1967) while later on Ajzen (1985) extended this theory and made the TPB by adding the concept of perceived behavioural control.

The TRA had its roots in other theories such as the theories of attitude and attribution. Theories attitude included learning theories, consistency theories such as Heider’s balance theory, Festinger’s dissonance theory and Osgood and Tannenbaum’s congruity theory. The

TRA stated that “the behaviour of an individual can be determined by the determining the intentions of the individual about the performing the behaviour” or in other words “the behaviour of an individual is dependent on his intentions of performing the behaviour of interest. These intentions results from the attitude (an individual’s positive or negative perception about performing the behaviour) and subjective norm (the perception of other people about performing the behaviour of interest).

Various studies reported significantly high association between attitudes, subjective norms and behavioural intentions, and behaviour (Sheppard, Hartwick & Warshaw, 1988). However, behavioural intentions do not result in exhibition of behaviour always due to circumstantial limitations (Nortberg, Home & Home, 2007). Since behavioural intentions does not always result in performance of behaviour if the individual has no full control over the behaviour that’s why Ajzen (1991) added the conception of perceived behavioural control in TRA and developed the TPB. The perceived behavioural control is defined as “the perception of an individual about the control he has over any behaviour of interest”. Perceived behavioural control is the combination of controllability and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is “the belief of an individual about his ability to successfully perform the behaviour of interest”, while controllability is the belief of the individual about the control he has over the performance of the behaviour of interest. Hence, an individual with high perceived behavioural control is more possibly perform a specific behaviour successfully because he has more confidence on his ability of performing the behaviour of interest. The dimension of perceived behavioural control which differentiate the TPB from the TRA, basically originated from the Self-Efficacy Theory (SET). SET which was proposed by Bandura (1977) has its roots in the social cognitive theory. Bandura (1994) argued that effect and behavioural reactions are determined by expectations such as performance, feelings of failure and motivation. He divided expectations into two types i.e. self-efficacy and outcome expectancy. Bandura (1994) defined self-efficacy as “the confidence of an individual that he/she can successfully perform a behaviour of interest to produce the desired outcomes”, while outcomes expectation was defined as “ the expectation of a person about the outcomes of a behaviour” or “the belief of a person that a specific behaviour will lead to specific outcomes”. Bandura (1994) further argued that self-efficacy is very important for bringing change in the behaviour of an individual because it helps initiate coping behaviour. Past studies reported that the behaviour of an individual is strongly affected by the confidence of an individual in his ability of performing that behaviour (Bandura, Adams, Hardy & Howells, 1980). SET explains the associations between beliefs, attitudes, intentions

and behaviour, and has been used in health related such as mental, physical health and exercise (Gyurcsik & Brawley, 2000). The TPB has shown applicability in antisocial behaviours (Grieve, Rachel, Elliot & Jade, 2013), environmental psychology (Stem, 2005; Koger & Winter, 2010) and applied nutrition (Sweitzer, 2011). The TPB is a very influential model for predicting and clarifying human behaviour that's why this model has been specially used in research in the fields of nutrition and health. For example, in a study about finding obesity factors in overweight Chinese Americans, the TPB has been used (Liou, Bauer, 2007), in which the key construct in the research process was the intention to prevent becoming overweight. Moreover, the TPB can also be applied in the field of applied nutrition.

The non-volitional behaviour of people which the TRA could not explain previously can be explained by the TPB due to the addition of an additional element of perceived behavioural control. According to various past studies, the strength of the TPB as compared to the TRA is that it would predict the health-related behavioural intention much better than the TRA e.g. (Ajzen, 1989), for instance it has increased the predictability of intentions about health-related issues such as leisure, diet, exercise etc. However, both the theories of reasoned action and planned behaviour can explain the social behaviour of individual by giving more importance to social norm as a variable. The TPB has also been criticized by scholars due to cognitive processing on which the TPB is based. For instance, Sniehotta (2009) argued that the TPB ignores the needs of the individual before performing certain behaviours because needs affect the behaviour of individuals regardless of expressing the attitudes. For example, an individual might have a very positive attitude towards pizza but he still may not order pizza because he may not be feeling hungry. Moreover, Sniehotta (2009) argued that despite of the relevance of emotions to the model and its effect on the belief and other constructs of the model, has been ignored. Sniehotta (2009) also criticized the TPB that it has poor predictability of behaviour in the health care setting and has attributed this predictability to poor application of the model in health related behaviours. Sniehotta (2009) further criticized the TPB that most of the research on the TPB is correlational and lacks external validity and giving priority to internal validity. Furthermore, Sussman, Reuven, Gifford and Robert (2019) challenges the assumption that only attitudes, social norms and perceived behavioural control result in the behavioural intentions and behaviour.

2.2.3 Theory of Planned behaviour (TPB) and Deviance behaviours.

The model of the current study is supported by the TPB because deviance behaviours are also planned behaviours. Two of the explanations or reasons for performing deviance or counterproductive behaviours are the attitude of employees towards behaviours and the informal norms of the workplace about these behaviours (Saucer, 2007; Everton, Jolton & Mastrangelo, 2007). According to Chen and Tang (2006) theft, corruption, resource abuse and deception can be predicted by the attitude of an individual. However, every employee does not engage in deviance behaviour because their decision to involve in deviance behaviour is dependent on his personal ethical ideology (Henle, Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2005). The TPB was used in various studies of deviance behaviours. For example, Bailey (2006) used this theory in his study related to retail employee theft; Tonglet (2002) applied this theory on his study related to shoplifting behaviour; Beck and Ajzen (1991) applied the TPB in his study on lying and cheating behaviour.

2.2.4 Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Model 2 of the current Study.

In the current study the TPB (Ajzen, 1986) has been used as a basis for model 2. The TPB posits that an individual's behaviour is determined by his "*behavioural intentions*" which are determined by the following three elements i.e. i. Attitude towards behaviour, ii. Subjective norm and iii. Perceived behavioural control.

In model 2 of the current study, psychological empowerment works as *attitude towards behaviour* because psychological empowerment ensures the outcome of performing the behaviour. Collectivist orientation works as a *subjective norm* because collectivist orientation puts pressure on the employees for being loyal to the group or the organization and not to violate the values and norms of the group or organization. While self-esteem and generalized self-efficacy (GSE) which are antecedents to CDB in the current study works as *perceived behavioural control* because both self-esteem and self-efficacy increases the confidence of employees and perceived behavioural control increases when employees think they have more confidence (Ajzen, 1985).

2.2 Other Theories of Workplace Deviance Behaviour

The following theories have also been used in support of deviance behaviours.

2.2.1 Leader Member Exchange Theory (LMX).

The theory of LMX introduced by Dansereau et al. (1975) states that leaders make various types of relationship with their followers. Supervisors make different exchange relationships with their employees (Sparrowe & Liden, 2005) which identify the extent of liking, respect and loyalty between them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). This theory is based on SET (social exchange theory) and evaluates the extent of supervisory support within the organizations. Scholars have focused on the consequences of the leader member exchange (Liden et al., 1997) because high leader member exchange result in high job satisfaction and consequently reduces the turnover intentions, increases the job performance and result in positive deviance. The low level of leader member exchange or low level of leader support results in low job advancement which then result in employee's deviance behaviours (Duffy et al., 2002). The Leader Member Exchange increases the organizational effectiveness and also affects the degree to which employee engage in innovative activities that are beyond normal job description (Katz, 1964).

2.2.2 Theory of Organization Support.

This theory is built on the concepts of social and reciprocity and describes the support employees receive from their organizations and its effect on the attitude and behaviour of employees (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). According to Rhodes & Eisenberger (2002) the perceived organizational support creates a feeling in which employees feel obligated to respond by working for the well-being of the organization and support the organization achieve its objectives. According to Chullen et al. (2010) in response to support from the organization, employees perform positive behaviours for the organizations and assist the organization achieve its goals. Similarly in response to lack of support from the organization, employees engage in negative deviance behaviours (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Theory of belongingness (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) which is also based on the theory of Leader Member Exchange and theory of Organizational Support also argues that belongingness need is a primary need of every human being which results in interpersonal relationship between people in the workplace. According to Thau et al. (2007) individual's lower sense of belongingness can lead to negative reactions.

2.2.3 Social Information Processing Theory (SIP).

This theory is an alternative to theories related to need satisfaction. According to this theory, social network or informational relationship of individuals influence the needs of an individual. According to Salancik & Pfeffer (1978) individuals are adaptive organisms and they adapt their beliefs, attitude and behaviours according to their social context, situation and of present and past behaviour. According to this theory, an employee depends on various social cues e.g. determining norms and expectations or reactions of the organization towards the behaviours of workers (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). This guides the behaviours of employees based on social context. This theory affect individual's attitude directly and indirectly. The direct process is the effect of statement of co-worker on the work attitude of employees. Social information guides the attention of employees towards various aspects of the environment and is known to be influential. The inclination of individuals towards making judgments on the basis of social context is due to two main reasons. First due to unpredictability attached to multidimensional elements of job and second due to need of individuals to verbally show their agreement with the co-workers in order to be accepted in the organization. Both of these reasons lead individuals towards convincing himself. According to Chen et al. (2013) a co-worker can impact an individual to a greater extent if that co-worker is socially important to him, because that co-worker is familiar with his work and can influence his attitudes and behaviours (Mas & Moretto, 2009). The theory of social information processing has been used as a supporting theory in numerous reseaches based on determining the elements that lead to deviance behaviours. These studies includes abusive supervision (Zellars et al., 2002), counterproductive work behaviours (Boye & Jones, 1997), aggression (Greenberg & Alge, 1998) and sabotage (Giacalone et al., 1997).

2.2.4 The social learning theory (SLT) (Bandura, 1977b).

Social learning theory is the integration of cognitive and behavioural theories of learning which makes a comprehensive model which encompasses a wide range of learning experiences which occur in the real world. SLT is understood as a social behavioural approach which focuses on the mutual contact between the three factors i.e. environmental, cognitive and behavioural factors. SLT is a general theory of deviance behaviours and as the main variable under consideration in the study is CDB that's why the SLT supports the model and this theory has been used to explain the emergence of deviant behaviours. Moreover, according to Bandura's SLT, human behaviour is determined by behavioural factors (i.e. skills, practice

and self-efficacy), Environmental factors (influence on others, access in community and social norms) and cognitive factors (knowledge, expectations and attitudes).

The theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977b) also had a similar view that individuals learn the norms of the organization when they see others performing these behaviours. Employees see their supervisors or leaders for acceptable and unacceptable behaviours and are considered as role models (Ambrose & Schminke, 2013). So when a supervisee receives a dignified treatment from his supervisor or receives justification of his decisions then he also behave in such a manner and expected to replicate the same behaviour when he is interacting with his subordinates and all these behaviours result in a positive organizational climate (Mayer et al., 2007). Moreover, when employees observe that violating organizational norms are common among other organizational members, then employees are more prone to engage in deviance behaviours (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). Employees engage more in aggressive behaviours when they observe aggressive supervisors or leaders (Aquino et al., 2004).

2.2.5 Theory of Social Bonding.

The bond between an individual and the society in which he is living can be determined by his belief, attachment, involvement and commitment (Hirschi, 1969). Similarly the connection and bond between the individual and the organization can be determined by the belief, commitment and the involvement of the individual (Bennet & Robinson, 2000). The element of attachment means the degree of social attachment of the individual with other individuals in the organization. According to Galperin and Burke (2007), the social attachment of an individual with other non-deviant individuals would result in less deviance in the organization. The element of commitment is viewed from the future perspective and refers to "extent of social loss the individual incurs if he or she is sanctioned for rule-breaking activity" (Hollinger, 1986). Hence, the more the individual's commitment to conformity is high, the less he will engage in deviance behaviours. Similarly, the less the individual is committed towards his organization and looking for other jobs, the more there are chances of him engaging in deviance behaviours (Hollinger, 1986). The element of involvement refers to "the degree of individual's participation in routine and conventional activities which keeps the individual busy due to which he does not find time to involve in deviance behaviours" (Appelbaum et al., 2007). Hence, the more the individuals are involved in their work, the less they will engage in deviance behaviours as they do not find time due to being too much busy in their work, but this

also reduce the chances of him engaging in positive deviance. The element of belief was not considered as a suitable element in the workplace because employees do not consider their behaviours as illegal which is not related to deviance (Horning, 1970). However, according to Hollinger (1986), the remaining three elements i.e. involvement, commitment and attachment can be applied directly to deviance behaviours. The theory of social bonding and control theory both determines the mediating effect of social bond among the association of self-control and deviance behaviours (Longshore et al., 2004). Some other factors which were found to be linked to deviance behaviours through social bonding framework were work enjoyment, work involvement, turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organizational tenure (Galperin & Burke, 2006; Sims, 2002;).

2.2.5 Equity theory.

Various scholars have argued that workplace deviance results due to unequal and unjust treatment among the employees (McCardle, 2007, Appelbaum et al., 2007, Yildiz et al., 2015). Equity theory (Adams, 1965) also supports this notion and states that when individuals observe inequality when he/she compares his outcomes/input ration with theory co-workers, then there are more chances that they will involve in deviance behaviours (Appelbaum et al., 2007). According to Fox et al. (2001) the concept of equity is associated to individual's perception about fairness which is based on personal interactions, procedures and outcomes (McCardle, 2007). If employees perceive the work environment as unfair then this would result in mistrust, job dissatisfaction which consequently result in deviance behaviours (Bies & Tripp, 1996). However, when employees are satisfied and their perception about fairness is positive then they are expected to engage in positive behaviours (Yildiz et al., 2015). Various personalities, contextual and organizational contexts influence the effects of fairness on deviance at workplace. These three contexts have been researched from three different perspectives i.e. instrumental, relational and moral virtue. In the instrumental perspective, individuals take action against the organization due unfair treatment for improving the outcome of their inputs. In the relational perspective the focus is on the fact that individual's identity in the group could be affirmed if there is fair treatment within the group. Finally the moral values emphasis the adherence of the organization to moral standards (Folger et al., 2005). Different retaliatory behaviours may result due to violation of moral principles (Folger et al., 2005). The perspective of fairness can also be found the concept of distributive justice and procedural fairness (Masterson et al., 2000). Hence, when individual perceive unfairness in the application of rules

and regulation and feel difficulty in receiving fair outcomes of their performance then this result in low commitment and destructive deviance (Aquino et al., 1999). Similarly, the focus of interactional fairness is on interpersonal treatment between the individuals. All these types of fairness perspectives have effect on both positive and negative organizational decisions (Colquitt et al., 2001). Similarly the effort-reward imbalance theory (Siegrist, 1996) states that the inequality between the efforts and the outcomes/reward received leads to deviance behaviours (Shahzad & Mahmood, 2012). Since there is partial support on the direct relationship between equity theory and workplace deviance with respect to perceptions about fairness (Lipponen et al., 2004) that's why are using moderators and mediator (such as perceived normative conflict, POS (perceived organizational support) and trust in organization) to explore the mental process in perceiving the injustice which consequently lead to deviance behaviours (Aryee et al., 2002). The most major limitation of the equity theory was that does not focus on the interpersonal and procedural aspects of fairness and only emphasis of economic aspect of fairness (Colquitt et al., 2001).

2.2.6 Social Identity Approach.

The Social Identity Approach is composed of two theories i.e. self-categorization theory (SCT) (Turner et al., 1987) and self-identity theory (SIT) (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The theory of self-identity theory posits that individuals recognize themselves with their groups which replace the "them" mentality with "us" mentality because "them" mentality leads towards favouritism within the group and individuals try to retain their own positive self-image (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). This division of "us" and "them" serves two functions. First it divides the social environment so that they define other individuals and second, this division helps them to define their selves with respect to their social environment. The SCT describes the social identity in such a way that individuals take the point of views of members of out-group and in-group to describe their selves. This serves as a judgment of the behaviours and attitudes of people prevailing in the society (Van Rijswijk & Ellemers, 2002). Therefore, these individuals will involve in behaviours which are consistent with the norms of their social identities whether they are positive or negative (Chung & Moon, 2011). The theories of social identity and social categorization both have been used extensive in both positive and negative workplace deviance related studies. The focus of these theories is on the individual relationship with their colleagues, supervisors which further result in deviance behaviours.

The transactional theory of stress and coping considers the effects of stress for which the possible response is deviance behaviour (Cullen & Sackett, 2003). Similarly the general strain theory (Alias et al., 2013; Agnew, 2006) also argued that when individual suffer from stress and are upset they often involve in deviance behaviours to escape from stress situation. Another theory i.e. the theory of affective events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) has also been used in extensive literature related to deviance because this theory focus on emotional reaction of individuals to different events that occur in the work place. Apart from these, studies related to deviance also used other theory which emphasis the individual perspectives of themselves and their decision to engage in deviance behaviours (Ferris et al., 2009), such as the theory of self-consistency (Korman, 1970) which states that individuals involve in behaviours and activities based on the extent to which they relate with the overall view of themselves.

2.2.7 Social Cognitive Theory (SCT).

Learning through observation and experience taken from society both has a highly significant part in the making of personality. According to this theory, the action and reaction of an individual including his cognitive processes and social behaviours both are influenced by the actions and reactions which the individual observes in others (Bandura, 1986, 1997). This self-perception and the external world observation develops the self-efficacy of the individual which proves to be influential in many situations and is an important aspect of social cognitive theory and SLT. This theory argues that the individual's personality and environment affect each other in such a way the beliefs and expectations of individual are influenced by social influences on them.

2.3 Theories related to Individual response towards deviance

Past theories that have been used to explain the response of individuals towards deviance are discussed below:

2.3.1 Theory of Problem Proneness.

Three main aspects that influence the life of individuals explored by this theory are: i.e. personal belief, social criticism and personal control system. As a whole these three factors are referred to as personal system. The aspects of personal belief and social criticism deal with an individual's attitude towards deviance behaviours. The personal belief of an individual is his belief on his "self, society and self with respect to society" (Jessor & Jessor, 1977), which leads the individual towards restraining or engaging in deviance behaviours. While social criticism

determines the degree to which people follow or violate the norms or practices of the society and whether individuals engage in behaviours that violate the norms of society. The personal control system refers to the belief, values and attitude towards deviance. The focus of the theory of problem proneness is on deviance behaviours such as drinking and drug abuse especially among youngsters. This theory takes into account factors such as behaviour of friends, relatives, perceived environment and personality. An individual's proneness to involve in drinking and using drug was found to be due to personality of factors due to their low expectations of success in academics, involvement in deviance behaviours and involvement in deviance behaviours (Berkowitz & Perkins, 1986). An individual's social interaction was said to be the reason behind his involvement in such behaviours (Jessor et al., 1980).

2.3.2 Theory of Differential Association.

There is a wide use of this theory in literature related to deviance and discuss tolerance towards deviance (Sutherland, 1939) and is based on principles of SLT (Bandura, 1977). It states that individuals learn the attitudes and values required for involving in deviance behaviours due to their interaction with those co-workers who engage in deviance behaviours. The main emphasis of this theory is on criminal behaviours. It explores the technique through which individuals learn deviance behaviours because of interaction with individuals who are involved in criminal attitudes or behaviours. This theory has also been used to explore the tendency of individuals in cheating. An individual's chance of engaging in cheating reduces when his friends perceive cheating a negative behaviour (Gentina et al., 2015).

2.3.3 Theory of social control.

An individual's belief about deviance can be used to determine his attitude towards deviance behaviours. Belief is referred to as acceptance of the value system (Hirschi, 1969). This theory states that deviance occurs due to variation in an individual's acceptance of society's value system. Moreover, this theory has been used in determination of individual's attitude towards violation of social norms (Chekroun & Brauer, 2002). This theory does not focus on why people involve in deviance behaviours but focuses on why people do not engage in deviance. This theory emphasized that an individual's strong social bond would result in conformance of norms while weak social bond results in deviance behaviours. Moreover according to Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), low level of self-control leads individuals towards

deviance behaviours and the role of socialization practices in influencing the attitude of people towards deviance.

2.3.4 The evolution of positive deviance from theory to practice.

The concept of positive deviance has proved to be a practical strategy for promoting a positive social change. Wishik and Van Der Vynckt (1976) used the term positive deviance as an applied and practical strategy. Using positive deviance has been used as a practical strategy for searching champions of change who win against all hurdles. It has been used as a method of social inquiry for finding positively deviant individuals because positively deviant individuals exist almost in every community and use unusual strategies and behaviours for finding better solutions to the problems they are facing. The focus of the strategy of positive deviance is on the “who” and “how” questions and not on the “why”. A typical positive deviance strategy includes the steps of: to define the problem and identify the possible outcomes, identifying those people who achieved the desired results. The behaviours which drove those individuals and then designing those intervention which promote such behaviours and monitor the progress. The studies of child malnutrition (in which the strategy of positive deviance has been used) has reported positive results (Pascale, Sternin, & Sternin, 2010; Marsh et al. 2004; Hendrickson et al. 2002). After two years of the application of the positive deviance strategy, the percentage of childhood malnutrition dropped in the range of 65% to 86% in all the villages where the strategy of positive deviance has been applied (Pascale et al. 2010). According to Sternin (2002) the basic assumption of the practitioners of the strategy of positive deviance is that there are always certain individuals or groups who perform unusual behaviours, due to which they outperform others and identify much solutions to the problems they face. Apart from the tangible observed outcomes, there are many associated benefits inherent in the process of positive deviance. It has empowered the community to a great extent (Hendrickson et al. 2002), developed enthusiasm and mobilization for projects (Hendrickson et al. 2002; Marsh et al. 2004), reduced dependency on aid for development (Schooley and Morales 2007; Ochieng 2007) improved capability of accountability and problem solving (Singhal, 2010; Marsh et al. 2004), improved social relationships (Buscell 2008) and developed common admiration between shareholders of a project (Sternin, 2002).

2.4 Workplace deviance

Most of the studies have concentrated the negative side of deviance behaviours i.e. counterproductive or destructive deviance behaviours while relatively very few studies have concentrated on the positive side of deviance behaviours. Very few studies have been conducted on the antecedents and relationship between both CDB and destructive deviance together (Galperin & Burke, 2006). Warren (2003) suggested that it is much better to study both the negative and positive deviance behaviours in order to better understand the conceptions, theories and managerial recommendations. Therefore, to holistically explore the deviance behaviours, emphasis should be put on integrative studies of both positive and negative deviance behaviours, not just negative deviance behaviours. Many studies conducted on destructive deviance behaviours suggest interpersonal difference to be the reason of destructive deviance behaviours in the workplace (Fox & Spector, 1999; Barling, 1996). For instance, Fox and Spector (1999) found a significant relationship between destructive deviance behaviours and the characteristics such as anxiety, anger and locus of control. The area of deviance behaviours is gaining more and more research attention and is an important issue in organizations (Berry, Ones & Sackett, 2007). Organizational deviance has psychological, economic and sociological implications that are why it has a very broad collective impact on the organization. Though the concept of deviance behaviours is primarily based on the violations of the norms of the organization, however deviance behaviours can have positive outcomes in some situations. So with negative outcomes, deviance behaviours also can also be positive. For instance, according to Krau (2008), violating organizations norms through deviance behaviours can prove to be a source of creativity and innovation and can contribute in the competitive advantage of the organization. Besides acknowledging the destructive and constructive side of deviance behaviours, generally deviance behaviours describe the following behaviours i.e. workplace aggression (O'leary-Kelly, Griffin & Glew, 1996), antisocial behaviours (Giacalone & Greenberge, 1997), organizational retaliation (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997) and employee deviance (Robinson & Bennet, 1995). Most of the studies have been conducted in the area of destructive deviance behaviours while the constructive or positive side of deviance behaviours has been ignored comparatively. CDB have been very important for organizations and can be very helpful in bringing positive changes in the organization. CDB can perform a pivotal role in enabling change in the organization unlike other organizational behaviours which emphasizes resistance to change (Luthans, 2002).

2.5 Destructive deviance.

Destructive deviance has been defined as “voluntary behaviours of individuals which violate the norms of the organization significantly, harm the wellbeing of the organization, its members or both” (Robinson & Bennett, 1995; p. 556). Destructive deviance can be separated into two types’ i.e. interpersonal destructive deviance (the behaviour which is focussed towards the individuals) and organizational destructive deviance (the behaviour which is directed towards the organization). The interpersonal destructive deviance behaviours contains behaviours such as stealing from other employees while organizational destructive deviance behaviours contains behaviours such as sabotaging the equipment of the organization or stealing from the organization. The nature of destructive deviance behaviours is serious and sensitive, because reporting destructive deviance behaviours of others can be a serious consequence for them and may affect their security and even their lives. As a result reluctance to report destructive deviance behaviours of other employees in the organization can be experienced or observed among the employees (Tziner, Goldberg & Or, 2006). Moreover, managers also do not cooperate in researches focused on deviance behaviours or whistle blowing because such behaviours show the weaknesses of the organization and the lack of control in the organizations (Analoui & Kakabads, 1992).

2.6 Constructive Deviance.

Scholars have defined CDB in various ways. E.g. Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003) defined CDB as “intentional behaviours that depart from the norms of a referent group in honorable ways” (p. 209).

OR

Galperin (2003) defined CDB as “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so contributes to the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (p. 158).

Workplace deviance has been an important research topic which affects the welfare of the organization and its members, and also has a significant influence on its consequences. Two types of workplace deviance behaviours i.e. constructive deviance behaviour and destructive deviance behaviours have discussed in literature (Bennet & Stamper, 2001). Destructive deviant behaviours have been defined as “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization and its

members or both” (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Robinson & Bennett, 1995; p. 556). While the CDB has been defined as “intentionally behaviours, which break significant organizational norms and rules to improve and contribute to well-being of organization, its members or both” (Galperin, 2003; p. 158). It is evident that not all deviance behaviours are destructive; some are constructive as well and can be beneficial for the organizations (Yıldız & Alpkan, 2014). Mostly the negative side of deviance behaviours have been the focus of scholars in the literature (Yıldız & Yıldız, 2014; Örucü & Yıldız, 2014; Yıldız & Alpkan, 2014). However, one cannot ignore and deny the positive and constructive impact of these deviance behaviours on the organization and its members both. For example, literature suggests that significant violation of the values, norms and policies of the organization for the betterment of the organization develop an environment for innovative practices (Vadera et al., 2013; Howell & Higgins, 1990; Robbins & Galperin, 2010).

Moreover, research studies suggest that the concept of CDB is very important for the organizations and is getting more and more interest of researchers which is evident from recent studies on the antecedents and consequences of constructive studies. Many individual and organizational factors are included in these studies. But the predictors used in these studies might result in CDB but through some possible attitudes used as mediators. On other words, Blau’s social exchange theory says that perceptions cause attitudes and which then results in behaviours. Similarly keeping this theory in mind one can definitely say that employee’s expectations, feelings, characteristics and perceptions may result in positive attitudes towards the work and organization as a whole, which results in positive attitudes.

CDB can be defined as “voluntary behaviours that violate the norms of the organization significantly but in doing so contributes to the wellbeing of the organization, its members or both” (Galperin, 2003; p. 158). Although managers do not allow individuals to engage in CDB and is not permissible in the organization, still these behaviours benefit the organization and help the organization in achievement of its objectives. Just like destructive deviance, CDB can also be divided in two types i.e. interpersonal CDB (i.e. deviance behaviours directed towards individuals) and organizational CDB (deviance behaviours directed towards the organization). The interpersonal CDB includes behaviours like not obeying the orders of the superior for the improvement of the organizational processes, while the second type of CDB i.e. organizational CDB are the behaviours that are focussed towards the organization and includes two types i.e. innovative behaviours that help the organization in finding creative ways of solving problems

that occur in the organization, and behaviours that violate the norms of the organization for the betterment of the organization (i.e. breaking the rules of the organization to solve the problems of clients). Destructive deviance embarrasses the employees and that's why they may not be able to give their response therefore it requires an indirect method of measuring, while the CDB can be estimated through self-reports because they do not embarrass the employees. Past studies have questioned the use of self-reports for the measurement of CDB (Lautenschlager & Flaherty, 1992), but literature from other studies supports the use of self-reports for measuring CDB and considers self-reports as a reliable method (Spector, 1992). Furthermore, CDB by its very nature is non-discretionary and proactive (Galperin & Burke, 2006). Therefore, using self-report data can be used for measuring CDB and does not lead to a reliability problem.

The concept of deviance originated from the criminal and psychological literature, which refers to those people who violate the social norms (Cohen, 1966). The management literature also conceptualized this concept as dangerous for the organization. Scholars such as Galperin (2003) and Warren (2003) looked at the literal meaning of deviance behaviours as well as the positive and negative side of deviance behaviours. Galperin (2003) defined it as "behaviours exhibited by individuals for the benefit of the organization but violates the norms of the organization" (p. 158). So CDB are unauthorized behaviours or practices but yet it contributes to the wellbeing of the organization. So there can be situations where an employee has to violate the norms of the organization for the advantage of the organization. For example, an employee may intentionally violate any procedure of the organization for solving any problem of a customer.

CDB is associated with Voice, OCB and whistle blowing. OCBs (OCB) are defined as "individual behaviour which is not recognized by the formal reward system and which is discretionary but benefits the organization by helping in effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988; p. 4). The similarity between CDB and OCB is that both benefit the organization but differs as in OCB, employees do not violate the norms of the organization. Whistle blowing is defined as "disclosure of immoral, illegal and illegitimate practices by the employees of the organization under the control of employers or organization who may be affected" (Near & Miceli, 1985). Since there are changes in the use of whistle blowing with the intention of taking revenge rather than for protecting the interests of the organization, investors or employees (Dozier & Miceli, 1985), there is a difference between whistle blowing and CDB. However, in case of using internal channels to protect the organization, whistle

blowing can be similar to CDB. Moreover, rather than criticizing the organization, voice focus on improving through verbal expressions (Lepin & Van Dyne, 1998). Unlike the concept of voice in which the emphasis is on giving positive recommendations that may challenge the system, CDB contains behaviours that significantly deviate from the norms of the organization. Despite of the importance of CDB in bringing innovation and change, there is very limited literature on CDB. Especially in healthcare settings in US, literature suggested that hospitals could not improve their current conditions due to inability to bring change (Langabeer, 2008; Erwin, 2009), which recommends that CDB be beneficial for improving organizational innovation. Therefore, CDB does have positive consequences. For example, CDB create an innovative environment in the organizations (Vadera et al., 2013; Robins & Galperin, 2010; Howell & Higgins, 1990).

The area of CDB is getting more and more important and is a rising interest area for scholars now a days. Recent studies have explored many individual and organizational factors that predict CDB. However, these studies show that those predictors predict CDB through some positive attitudes. According to Balu's (1964) social exchange theory, a perceptions lead to attitudes and attitudes leads towards behaviours. According to this theory, the perceptions, feelings or expectations of employees develop some kind of positive attitudes which then consequently leads to some positive behaviour. The study of Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) tested psychological ownership as a positive attitude which was used a mediator between some predictors of CDB.

2.7 What differentiates Constructive deviance from Destructive Deviance?

Similar types of antecedents such as perceptions of justice and Big Five personality have been examined for both the CDB and destructive deviance (C. Berry et al., 2007; Martinko et al., 2002; Dalal, 2005). However, these have been usually associated with the destructive deviance behaviours. According to Dalal (2005), mechanisms such as social exchange or reciprocity have been argued to cause both the destructive deviance as well as CDB. However, further study is needed to compare the responses of these mechanisms, especially in the same organization (Galperin & Burkin, 2006). Moreover, Vadera and Pratt (2013) worked on the association between different types of destructive deviance and different qualities of organizational identification (misidentification, over identification, ambivalent identification and apathetic identification. In an argument, Vadera and Pratt (2013) associate organizational dis-identification to crimes against organization. Organizational dis-identification is defined as

“the relationship in which individual see themselves in opposition to his or her organization”. Expanding this study, there may be positive type of organizational identification which makes someone inclined towards CDB. However, according to Dukerich et al. (1998) positive organizational identification can also be damaging if it is too strong. However if there is over-identification (i.e. complete overlap between an individual and organization), employee may overly follow the norms of the organization and may even exhibit unethical behaviours for securing and protecting the interest of the organization. Moreover, Weick (2002) worked on the link between wise decision making and ambivalence. Weick (2002) argued that those individuals who hold ambivalent attitude may allow others to violate the established or fixed ways of thinking. From this it can be deduced that ambivalent identification may have forms due to which employee can be attracted and repulsed by the their organizations which can lead them towards CDB (Vadera et al., 2013).

Obstacles to constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)

Variable such as narcissism, apathy and mood at the individual level may reduce psychological empowerment (Madjar et al., 2002) and therefore can be hindrances to CDB. Furthermore, the relationship of neuroticism with psychological empowerment should be investigated further. Individuals having neuroticism tend to be depressed, emotionally unstable, anxious and worried (Barrick & Mount, 1991). They are not likely to feel psychologically empowered due to which there are fewer chances of them being involved in behaviours that are beneficial for the organization and its members. The study of LePine and Van Dyne (2001) reported negative association among neuroticism and voice behaviours. However, the relationship of neuroticism with other forms of CDB has not yet been investigated.

Moreover, another obstacle that can obstruct CDB can be abusive supervision. Abusive supervision is defined as “the perception of subordinates about the degree to which their supervisors exhibit aggressive verbal and non-verbal behaviours excluding physical contact continuously” (Tepper, 2000). Subordinates who are abused by their supervisors get frustrated and experience less sense of competence and control (Ashforth, 1997) and thus there are very less chance of them involving in CDB. Those organizations which are conservative and do not take risks are family firms (Sharma, Chrisman & Chua, 1997) and likes to eradicate ambiguity through coordination and centralization (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) and are consequently less empowered to engage in CDB (Vadera et al., 2013).

2.8 Employee Characteristics

2.8.1 Self-esteem.

Self-esteem has been defined in various ways. E.g. Brockner (1988) defined self-esteem as “a general feeling of self-worth”. “It is the extent to which a person perceives himself as important, valuable and capable” (Coopersmith, 1981; p. 7) and is associated to self-confidence, generalized self-competence and self-efficacy. According to Crocker and Park (2004), people can get short-run benefits when they try to raise their self-esteem level but would suffer from long-term costs. But it depends on how people raise their self-esteem. Corck and Parl (2004) further argue that people increase their self-esteem by validating their qualities or abilities in areas in which they have invested their self-worth. E.g. employee can increase self-esteem by validating their self-worth through effective job performance.

2.8.2 Generalized self-efficacy (GSE).

Interest in trait-like generality dimension of self-efficacy has increased recently. This trait-like generality dimension of self-efficacy has been termed as General self-efficacy (GSE) (e.g., Eden, 1988, 1996; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997). Eden (1996) defined GSE as “one’s belief in one’s overall competence to effect requisite performances across a wide variety of achievement situations” (p. 75). Similarly Judge et al., (1998) defined GSE as “individuals’ perception of their ability to perform across a variety of different situations” (p. 170). Hence GSE focus on the dissimilarities between individuals in their propensity to consider their selves as capable of performing tasks in a wide variety of situations.

Judge et.al (1997) tested the connection of GSE with self-evaluation constructs and has reported that they are significantly related to each other. These self-evaluation constructs include neuroticism, self-esteem and locus of control. Especially a very strong relationship has been found between GSE and self-esteem (Judge, Bono, & Locke, 2000). Moreover according to Chen, Gully, Whiteman, and Kilcullen (2000) a positive relationship has been found between GSE and learning goal orientation. Apart from this, according to Chen, Gully, and Eden (2000), motivational traits like conscientiousness and need for achievement has also been to have a positive association with GSE.

2.8.3 Extraversion.

Various researchers have defined extraversion in various ways. John and Srivastava (1999) defined Extraversion as “an active and robust approach of individual towards their social and material world which comprises traits like assertiveness, activity, sociability and positive emotionality” (p.121). Similarly Barrick and Mount (1991) and Salgado (1997) defined Extraversion as “the extent to which people are sociable, assertive and gregarious versus quiet, timid and reserved”. Being social and talkative are the two most important characteristics or traits of Extrovert people. Extrovert people shows great amount of commitment in their social setting and activities and displays excited behaviours (Salgado, 1997). Moreover extrovert people like to display social behaviours with their co-workers (Erdheim et al., 2006) and tend to share what they know with their co-workers as compared to introvert people (Wang & Yang, 2007). That’s why they could be expected to engage in OCB behaviours and are more sensitive to their external environments and social stimuli.

Among the “Big Five” personality dimensions, “Extroversion” is an important dimension, which is defined as “the degree to which an individual is outspoken, social versus shy and introvert” (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Individuals having extrovert personality are usually composed and content when they are surrounded by people. Professions like medical and teaching, extroversion is a very important trait of personality, especially in medical profession, physicians with extroversion considered as a good medical practice (Maron, Fein, Maron, Hillel, El Baghdadi & Rodenhauer, 2007). During dealing with patients, being social, gregarious, assertive, excitement seeking and being positive are important characteristics of physicians (Maron et al., 2007). As per the study of BMC Health Serve Research, after reviewing extensive literature they found that among clinical competence and patient’s participation in decision, “humaneness” was the most highly rated aspect of care (Schattner, Rudin, & Jellin, 2004). Moreover, according to 38% respondents, the most important attributes for physicians are friendliness and patience. (Schattner et al., 2004). Looking at this, it seems that other characteristics associated with extroversion are also very highly ranked by respondents are very important from the perspective of patient care and good medical practices. According to Jackson, Chamberlin & Kroenke (2001), since there is a lack of professionalism in the medical profession, all physicians should remain in full control of their emotions and should be composed every time.

However, for instance, if a patient receive a diagnosis that he has cancer but curable, but the patient refuse to experience radiation treatment. Usually the norm of the hospital is that the doctor have to remain composed and should present the report to the patient in a logical manner. However, if the doctor gets angry on not accepting radiation treatment because the patient may have the chance to live and is a curable cancer, and do not show professionalism. This deviation from the professionalism norm of the hospital may result in saving the patient's life by convincing him to undergo the treatment. Therefore, it is expected that physicians having extrovert personalities are more likely to exhibit CDB and violate the norms of the professionalism.

2.8.4 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP).

RTP has been defined by researchers in various ways. According to Brockhaus (1980) RTP is "the perceived possibility of getting the rewards associated with success of a proposed situation, which is required by an individual before he will subject himself to the consequences linked with failure, the substitute situation providing less reward as well as less severe consequences than the proposed situation". Similarly Chye Koh (1996) defined RTP as "a person's alignment towards taking chances in uncertain decision-making contexts" (p. 13).

The condition which surrounds the situation is the key factor of RTP (March & Shaphira, 1987). In support of this argument Zhengand Prislin (2012) argues that the propensity of individuals to take risk depends on some dispositional factors and environmental factors and these factors have a great effect on RTP of individuals. In this case, motivational factors like rewards and organizational climate may increase the tendency of individuals to take risks (Bulut & Alpan, 2006).

The concept of RTP has been defined in various ways. Chye Koh (1996) defined RTP as "the orientation of an individual towards taking chances in unpredictable decision-making situations" (p. 13). The most important element of the RTP is the condition in which the decision has to be taken (March & Shaphira, 1987). In support of this argument Zheng and Prislin (2012) argued that factors such as dispositional and environment factors affect the individual's propensity to take risk. Bulut and Alpan (2006) suggested that rewards and supportive environment of the organization may increase a person's tendency to take risks.

Risk taking is positively associated to innovativeness (Ergun et al., 2004), similarly literature related to deviance behaviours suggest positive association among RTP and CDB (Galperin, 2012), suggesting that individuals with high tendency to take risks are more prone to engage in CDB. Galperin (2012) also argued that people who are constructively deviant have commons features of being proactive and breaking the rules of the organization. Similarly, Vader et al. (2013) also suggested RTP, extraversion, proactivity, transformational leadership and self-esteem as predictors of CDB. Morrison (2006) also reported positive relationship of RTP with rule breaking behaviours. Moreover, Caliendo et al. (2009) reported positive association of RTP with entrepreneurship behaviours. The study of Yildiz et al. (2015) also established significant positive association between RTP and innovative CDB.

2.8.5 Proactive Personality.

According to Bateman and Crant (1993) and Crant (200) “the tendency of individuals to exhibit proactive behaviours in a variety of contexts and situations”. Displaying proactive behaviours is the trait of people with Proactive personality. According to Diener et al. (1984) and Buss (1987), People do not always accept environmental restrictions on their behaviours; rather they can bring changes in their current situations and circumstances. For the first time proactivity was introduced by Bateman and Crant (1993) as a means for finding differences among individuals on taking actions to affect their environments. According to them a proactive personality is the one which is relatively less constrained or unrestricted by situational forces and have the potential of changing the environment. People with proactive personality find opportunities and avail them, take initiative and continue until they bring a meaningful change. While less proactive people cannot find opportunities and hence cannot bring change. People who are not proactive are reactive and tend to familiarise with the situation instead of trying to alter it. Proactive people bring change in the environment while people who are not proactive adopt a reactive approach in their jobs (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The concept of proactive personality has been tested with many organizational behaviours, e.g. proactive personality and its impact on the consequences which includes career outcomes, job performance, perception of leadership and team effectiveness (e.g., Crant & Bateman, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Crant, 1995; Deluga, 1998; Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999).

Individuals having proactive personality have comparatively stable propensity to affect environmental change (Bateman & Crant, 1993) and situational factors cannot stop them from doing so (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Langer (1983) argued that proactivity is a basic personality

trait which has its roots in people's needs to control and change their environment. Proactive individuals can bring change in the organization as they exploit opportunities and take actions accordingly (Frese & Fray, 2001). The concept of proactive personality is different from big 5 personality traits (Major, Turner & Fletcher, 2006) and is correlated with locus of control, need for achievement and need for dominance (Bateman & Crant, 1993). If an individual act in response to any change in the environment and adapt the situation rather changing the situation, he or she is considered as less proactive while individuals who identify opportunities and act in advance, they would be considered as proactive individuals (Seibert, Crant & Kraimer, 1999).

Proactivity is a self-starting or change-oriented behaviour that focus on bring variations in oneself and in one's environment (Parker & Bindl, 2016). Proactivity leads to various individual, group and organizational outcomes (Seiber, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Crant, Hu, & Jiang, 2017). Proactivity is gaining importance day by day due to continuously changing technology, globalization, and decentralization of organization (Cangiano, Bindl, & Parker, 2017). Proactive personality is a widely accepted dispositional feature of proactivity and is widely used as a construct related to proactivity in research studies (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010; Crant et al., 2016; Bateman & Crant, 1993). Various studies have shown significantly positive relationships of proactive personality with voice, taking charge and innovation (Parker & Collins, 2010; Crant et al., 2016). Apart from this, proactive personality is also related to other outcomes such as career success (Messara & Dagher, 2010; Converse, Pathak, DePaul-Haddock, Gotlib, & Merbedone, 2012), job involvement (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012), job performance (Fuller, Hester, & Cox, 2010) and leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000). In short proactive personality is a vital construct in the field of management, organizational behaviour and industrial psychology because of its importance in the workplace (Crant et al., 2016). Proactivity has been conceptualized in various ways which affect its definition and measurement.

According to Bateman and Crant (1993), proactivity is the combination of four activities i.e. searching change opportunities, taking initiative, taking actions and persisting till closure by bring change. Parker et al., (2010) argued that self-initiative, change orientation and anticipation are the three hey features of proactivity. Crant (2000) stated that proactivity has two features i.e. anticipations and control. Bergeron, Schroeder, and Martinez (2014) recommended that proactivity should be persistent in the organization. Grant and Ashford

(2008) argued that proactivity is a combination of interrelated acts (such as planning, taking actions and anticipation). Similarly Bindl and Parker (2010) also proposed that proactivity should be conceptualized as an aggregate of various behaviours. Due to extensiveness of the activities in proactivity, proactivity should be constructed as a multidimensional trait which refers to “a disposition to perform a number of interrelated actions affecting the environment” (Buss & Finn, 1987; p. 13). These interrelated actions are perception of opportunity for introducing change, implementation of change and perseverance (i.e. a continuous efforts to achieve outcomes related to change (Parker et al., 2006; Crant 2000).

Meta-analysis shows proactive personality to be associated to numerous positive outcomes such as organizational knowledge, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment, perceived autonomy, self-efficacy and career success and satisfaction (Fuller & Marler, 2009). Fuller and Marler (2009) has theoretically linked proactivity with proactive behaviours while Grant and Ashford, (2008) has linked proactivity with proactive behaviours empirically. Various scholars (such as Terborg, 1981; Magnusson & Endler, 1977; Lewin, 1951) have argued that both situational and personal characteristics influence the behaviour of individuals, therefore, exploring these conditional factors are important for understanding the association among personality and behaviour (Meyer et al., 2010). Various studies (Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010; Kin, Hon, & Lee, 2010; Fuller, Hester, & Cox, 2010) have tested the situational moderators between the association of proactive personality and proactive behaviours. The focus of these studies was mostly on trait activation theory. Fuller et al. (2010) tested the moderating role supervisor provided autonomy in the association of proactive personality and job performance. Kim et al. (2010) tested required job creativity and supervisor support for creativity as moderators of the association among proactive personality and employee creativity. Similarly Liet et al. (2010) examined leader-member exchange as a mediator and procedural justice as a moderator on the relationship of proactive personality with both job satisfaction and OCB. Trait activation theory was explained by Tett and Burnett (2003) and argued that hidden personality traits will come of the surface as trait expressive work behaviours when cues relevant to traits are present at task, organizational or social level. In other words they tried to explain how people’s behaviours are motivated by situational context and through activating their inbuilt personality characteristics to shows themselves in behaviours.

The theory of trait activation helps to understand the importance of situational factors in facilitating the manifestation of traits of employees into their behaviours. Trait such as proactive personality is about bringing change and controlling contextual forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Individuals having proactive personality are expected to take initiative, seek opportunities, take charge, seek feedback and to be a self-starter (; Li, Harris, Boswell, & Xie, 2011). The meta-analytic relationship between proactive personality and proactive behaviours (Fuller & Marler, 2009) and also shows that situational factors may impact employee proactivity. Particularly employees who do not inclined to behave proactively; situational factor may make the employee to behave proactively (Mischel, 1973). The reason behind this is that external environment reduces a person's freedom and forces him/her to behave in particular ways (Barrick & Mount, 2003) and dictate the required and necessary behaviours (Stewart & Barrick, 2004). Therefore situational factors can influence and change the inclination of an individual and substitute it for the effects of personality of employee to motivate him/her to behave in a particular way (Mischel, 1973). Thus an individual's behaviour can be influenced by the characteristics of the situation (e.g. the influence leaders or climate puts on the employee).

According to Bateman and Crant (1993) the trait of proactive personality makes individuals to control situational factors. Proactive personality is an ideal differentiating factors among individuals and demonstrates how the personality of an individual shows itself in his behaviours (e.g. proactive personality produces proactive behaviour) even if there is no situational support for proactivity (Seibert et al., 2001; Parker et al., 2010; Bateman & Crant, 1993; Major et al., 2006; Li et al., 2011). Thus it is expected that when situational factors consistent with the behaviour are absent then the employee having proactive personality will perform proactively while employee who do not have proactive personality will not act proactively. However, if contextual factors demand proactive behaviours (e.g if a leader is present or due to workplace climate) then the employee must have to show proactivity despite of not having proactive personality.

2.9 Psychological Ownership

Psychological ownership has been defined as “a psychologically experienced phenomenon in which an employee develops possessive feelings for the target (van dyne & pierce, 2004) or feel as though an object, entity or idea is ‘MINE’ or ‘OURS’” (Furbury, 1978). Psychological ownership is an individual's state of mind which makes him to take the

ownership of a particular entity, object or idea (Pierce, Rubenfeld, & Morgan, 1991). According to Van Dyne and Pierce (2004), Psychological ownership is a person's perception about his or her possession of an object or idea, this possessive feeling creates a positive attitude towards that target object and will feel the target object as an extension of the self and will feel himself responsible towards that object or idea. Thus having possessive feelings towards a target object leads to psychological and emotional outcomes i.e. it creates a positive and elevating effect (Formanek, 1991) and increases the favourableness and attractiveness of owned object (Beggan, 1992) as compared to un-owned objects (Nuttin, 1987). The ownership or possession can be achieved by individual effort, self-enhancing biases, controllability and acceptance from others, that's why it produces feelings of pleasure (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003). These scholars further elaborated that psychological ownership entails two psychological states i.e. affective state and cognitive state; the affective state is the feeling of pleasure due to the ownership of a target object while cognitive state creates feeling of ownership and possession because the target object is according to his or her beliefs, thoughts and ideas. These two psychological states are the fundamental features of psychological ownership, that's why psychological ownership is a complex phenomenon.

According to Dittmar (1992) the way we develop a close attachment with our possessions such as automobiles, homes, space and other things, psychological ownership also develops that kind of association with the target object. Various scholars have expressed their understanding of psychological ownership in various ways. According to Sartre (1969) "the totality of my possessions reflects the totality of my being...I am what I have...What is mine is myself (591-592)". Similarly James (1890) argued that "A man's self is the sum total of all that he CAN call his, not only his body and his psychic powers, but...his wife and children... his land, and yacht and bank account (291-292)". Thus when people takes the ownership of the target object, they will perceive the target object as a part of their extended self (Furby, 1978; Dittmar, 1992; Belk, 1988).

Psychological ownership is an individual's state of mind that creates a feeling in him that a specific target object is his or her own (Pierce, Rubenfeld & Morgan, 1991). It is an individual's perception about the possession of an object to be his own and these feelings of possession create positive feelings about that target object and feel that the object is an extension of the self and feel himself as responsible towards that target object (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). According to Formanel (1991) psychological ownership towards a target object

leads towards emotional and psychological consequences and creates an uplifting effect. These positive feelings about the target object makes that object more favourable and attractive (Beggan, 1992), especially as compared to objects that are not owned by the individual (Nuttin, 1987). The feelings of ownership naturally produces a pleasure because possession and ownership can result from individual effort, approval and acceptance from other, self-enhancing biases and controllability (Pierce, Kostova & Dirks, 2003). These scholars also argued that psychological ownership contains cognitive and affective state. The affective state produces the psychological pleasure while the cognitive state produces the feelings of ownership that shows or reflects his or her thoughts, beliefs or awareness about the target object. These two psychological states that makes the core of psychological ownership and makes this concept a complex phenomenon. As the psychological ownership develops, individuals forms close relationship with the target object just like we make relationship with our homes, space or automobiles (Dittmar, 1992). Sartre (1969) mentioned that “the totality of what I have is the totality of my being. I am what I have and what is mine is myself”. Similarly James (1890) argued that “A person’s self is the sum of what he can call his own, which not only include his psychic powers but his wife and children, his land, yacht and his bank account”. That’s why “what is mine becomes a part of me”, so individual perceive that target object as an extension of its self when he or she develops feelings of ownership (Dittmar, 1992).

2.10 Psychological Empowerment

Speirtzer (1995) defined it as “an intrinsic motivation linked to the task which creates a sense of control with respect to one’s work and an active alignment to one’s work role which are expressed in four cognitions i.e. meaning, self-determination, competence and impact”. Spreitzer (1995) used the term *Psychological ownership* for the representation of a number of variables which gives strength to individuals in various ways, and produces the capacity of engaging in CDB in individuals. Psychological empowerment is about how people perceive themselves and their position in the organizational setting (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Spreitzer, 1995) on the basis of meaning, self-determination, competence, and impact where *Meaning* is “the alignment of an individual’s work role with his or her values, beliefs and standards”, *Self-determination* is “the sense of choice of an individual about the regulation of his actions”, *Competence* is “an individual’s belief about his capability of successfully performing his work” and *Impact* is “an individual’s belief about the his or her influence on tasks and activities and its outcomes in his work unit”.

According to Spreitzer, an individual can express his psychological empowerment through the cognitions of Meaning, Self-determination Competence, and Impact) which reflects the direction of individuals towards their tasks. Vadera et.al (2013) argued that empowerment gives individuals the strength and fortification to engage in CDB, and that self-determination and competence can provide the individuals the strength and fortification by making an individual confident in his abilities and giving him the freedom to do his own thing and giving the individual the psychological security and safety. The concept of empowerment is relatively a new concept in the field of management. One school of thought in empowerment assumes that tailoristic structure should be replaced with democratic structure to distribute authority to the lower level of management in the organization (Thorlakson & Murray, 1996). Another approach to management says those workers who do not have power or authority should be given power to transform them into self-confident individuals to make them to accept more responsibilities in the organization (Conger & Kunungo, 1988). The structural empowerment emphasizes the development of relationships related to power within the organization by bringing change in the management practices, while psychological empowerment focuses on the developing intrinsic motivation in individuals. Past studies have worked on the each perspective and construct of empowerment to emphasis each different perspective of empowerment. However, balance has been maintained in focusing on the two approaches. Structural empowerment has been given more importance as compared to psychological empowerment (Wright, 2001). Positive outcomes have been reported in literature on empowerment and only a very few studies have reported negative outcomes of empowerment (Thorlakson & Murray, 1996). One factor which can explain the reasons of these different results is organizational culture which influences empowerment and is an important factor to study in case of empowerment (Kernaghan, 1992). Hui, Au and Fock (2004) suggested that in case of studying psychological enablement and empowerment practices, organizational culture should be considered and studied. One type of cultural differences i.e. individualism/collectivism has been usually studied (Marchington et al., 1994). Chisholm and Vansina (1993) suggested that the concepts of participations and empowerment are integrated because structural empowerment is based on the theories related to employee involvement (Wilkinson, 1988). Other scholars also argued that empowerment is that one person allows other person to contribute in the process of decision making and also in implementation of decision (Heller et al., 1988). On the basis of these advices given by scholars, structural

empowerment can be theoretically associated to responsibility, dissemination of information, participative decision making and transferring authority (Herrenkohl, Judson & Heffner, 1999).

Petters et al. (2002) defined empowerment as “transfer of managerial authority, prerogative or ability to employees”. Employees develop a sense of authority and ownership when they are given decision making authority, which then leads to a variety of outcomes related to their work which includes job satisfaction, performance and organizational commitment (Cotton, 1993). Structural empowerment has been defined in various ways and there is no single working definition (Thorlakson & Murray, 1996; Herrenkohl et al., 1999). Three dimensions are to be focused on to operationalize the construct of structural empowerment: (i) Participative decision making (PDM) refers to joint decision making (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000), (ii) a managerial approach in which decision making is shared among the employees and supervisors (Wagner & Gooding, 1987), and (iii) group commitment to decisions that have been made (McCaffrey, Faerman & Hart, 1995). Wagner (1994) defined participative decision making as “managerial decision of sharing influence or authority among hierarchically unequal individuals”. Hence, participative decision making is an affective managerial practice which is very important for achievement of structural empowerment and enhances the contribution and initiatives of subordinates in the decision making process (Chisholm & Vasina, 1993). Past literature on empowerment cited delegation as a central notion of empowerment. In support of this argument Sagie and Koslowsky (2000) also argued that the concept of empowerment is rooted in delegation and autonomy. Frey (1993) defined empowerment as “the extent to which managers and employees share responsibilities”. Feedback on performance has been cited as empowerment’s third dimension which can be defined as “a managerial practice in which employees receive information about their roles and performance from their supervisors, peers or even from the task itself” (Ashford, 1986). Hence, feedback refers to a two-way transfer of information between supervisor and worker (Nyhan, 1994) and is considered a very important approach to effective empowerment (Greenberger & Strasser, 1991). Moreover, feedback is associated with participation because feedback is planned to enhance interaction among employees and managers (Harrison, 1985).

The concept of psychological empowerment has its roots in self-efficacy which refers to “the belief that an individual can effectively exhibit a required behaviour to generate the required outcomes” (Bandura, 1977; p. vii). Following the theory of self-efficacy, Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined psychological empowerment as “a process in which an individual’s

belief in his or her self-efficacy increases” (p. 474). They further argued that motivational approaches to empowerment are associated to self-efficacy. On the basis of extent theory, psychological empowerment can be defined in terms of “an individual’s cognitive processes, psychological enablement and intrinsic task motivation” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The focus of structural empowerment is on management practices and organizational interventions, however, the focus of psychological empowerment is on an individual’s own cognitions, beliefs and psychological states. Psychological empowerment can be defined as “the personal beliefs of an employee about their role in the organization” (Spreitzer & Quinn, 2001) and can also be defined in the sense of enabling (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). The concept of Psychological empowerment has been operationalized in different ways in literature. Some studies noted psychological empowerment as a one-dimensional concept i.e. self-efficacy (Burke, 1986) while some studies cited psychological empowerment as a multidimensional concept which emphasis a set of empowerment experiences of individuals (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; p. 668). Spreitzer’s (1995b) four-factor model of psychological empowerment is a multidimensional approach, which includes meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. The first dimension of psychological empowerment i.e. meaning has been defined by Hackman & Oldham (1980) as “the match of an individual’s own beliefs, values and behaviours with the requirements of the job”. Meaning has been defined by Thomas and Velthouse (1990) as “the value of the purpose or goal of task judged with respect to the standards and ideals of the individual”. The second dimension of the Spreitzer’s (1995b) model of psychological empowerment i.e. competence is defined by Spreitzer, De Janasz and Quinn (1999) as “the self-confidence of an individual that he can do his work well”. Sagie and Koslowsky (2000) also defined competence as “an individuals’ belief about his capability of doing work necessary to perform a task”. Moreover, according to Gist and Mitchell (1992) psychological empowerment is defined as “the confidence of the individual that he can successfully perform an activity in a work place”.

The dimension of self-determination which is 3rd dimension of psychological empowerment can be defined as “an individual’s sense of confidence about his or her independence in initiation and continuation of processes or work behaviour” (Sagie & Koslowsky, 2000; Spreitzer et al., 1999). Self-determination can also be defined as “an individual’s discretion and freedom in deciding about how he or she will perform a task” (Williams & Luthans, 1992). Thus empowered individuals have self-determination because they have control over their work in the workplace. Thus self-determination is a cognitive belief

of an individual about the freedom he has in selecting ways to accomplish the desired results. Lastly, the fourth dimension of psychological empowerment i.e. impact has been defined by Ashforth (1989) as “the belief and ability of an individual to affect the outcomes of organization”. Impact has also been defined as “the extent to which a behaviour makes a difference in the accomplishment of a task” (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Impact and self-determination are different from one another. Self-determination is the control of an individual over his own work, while impact is the control of an individual over the outcomes of organization (Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). However, control on personal outcomes can lead individual to focus on organizational outcomes (Fulford & Enz, 1995). Structural empowerment can eventually enhance psychological enablement such as competence and impact (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Spreitzer, 1996) but there are very few studies which have explored this causal relationship.

2.11 Person-Organization Fit (P-O FIT)

The Phenomena of P-O FIT is related to applicants and recruiters. Applicants can discover a suitable organization on the basis of a good fit between the person and organization (Cable & Judge, 1997; Saks & Ashforth, 1997). Similarly recruiter can also find suitable applicants on the basis of best fit between organization’s and applicant’s characteristics (Kristof-Brown, 2000; Cable et al., 1997). The employee’s intentions of turnover may be influenced by P-O FIT (Cable & Judge, 1996). Fit and decisional factors are closely related, these decisional factors help the organizations to predict the decisions of employees (Cable & DeRue, 2002; Cable et al., 1997; Kristof-Brown, 1996).

According to Kristof-Brown (1996), P-O FIT can be defined as “the compatibility between the employees and organization”. According to Chatman (1989) and Judge and Bretz (1992), the basic concept of person-organization is the fit among the personal standards of employees and that of the organization. P-O FIT is strongly associated to turnover intentions, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Ambrose, Arnaud & Schminke, 2008; O’Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991). Thus applicants search for those organizations where there is consistency between his personality and job’s characteristics (Schneider, 2001), similarly organizations also recruit those employees whose personalities are consistent with the values of the organization (Morley, 2007). According to Sekiguchi (2007) the similarity of personal values and goals may result in enhancement of understanding and trust of employees about organization and improves the relationship of organization and employees. Moreover,

employees having similar values may be recruited via selection process, their personal values can be affected through socialization (e.g., on-job training, orientation), and then employee's personal beliefs can be transformed into long lasting values (Chatman, 1991). If the values of the employees and the organization are same, it can result in employee's positive behaviours such as organizational commitment, high involvement and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 1992). Thus, the fit between organizational values and personal traits contribute to organizational performance and organizational identification.

2.12 Employee Creative Performance (ECP)

There are two characteristics of the contemporary definition of creativity i.e. novelty and usefulness. Amabile (1997) defined creativity as "the generation of novel and potentially useful ideas about organizational products, practices, or procedures". According to Ford (1996) creativity can be defined as "a domain-specific, subjective judgment of the novelty and value of an outcome of a particular action". In the context of the business organization, according to Cummings and Oldham (1997), employees exhibit creativity when they generate a different and valuable product, service or process. Similarly according to Amabile (1998) and Woodman et al. (1993) "creativity is the generation of useful and novel ideas". The difference between employee creativity and employee innovation is that employee creativity is the generation of useful and novel ideas while employee innovation is the successful implementation of creative ideas by the employees (Amabile, 1996). Therefore, creativity is usually the initial point and the first step towards innovation (West & Farr, 1990) and that innovation cannot take place without creativity.

Woodman, Sawyer and Griffin (1993) presented the interactionist perspective of organizational creativity which defined creativity as "a complex interaction between an individual and his or her work situation at different levels of organization" (293). At the individual level, individual creativity results from ability and cognitive style of an individual (e.g. divergent thinking), his/her personality (e.g. self-esteem), conditions (e.g. biographical variables), motivation, his/her knowledge, physical environment and social influences. At the group level, creativity is generated as a result of the group member's interaction, group member's composition, characteristics of the group (such as size of the group, norms of the group), situational effects (e.g. reward system, organizational culture) and team processes. At the organizational level, creativity is generated as a result of both individual creativity and group creativity (Woodman et al., 1993). This conceptual framework is frequently used for

understanding the interaction between the individual and contextual elements that may stop or enhance creativity at work (Zhou & Shalley, 2010; Yuan & Woodman, 2010; Shalley, Gilson, Blum, 2009). Understanding the differences in creativity according to different cultures has many implications for economic development, international business and management practice (Morris & Leung, 2010; Zhou & Su, 2010). However, research on differences in creativity due to differences in culture has not been explored a lot and calls for more attention from researchers (Anderson et al., 2004). Especially much research attention is needed on differences in creativity of East and West (Morrison & Leung, 2010).

Much emphasis has been given to individual creativity and the role of cultural differences on individual creativity such as the moderating role of social and task contexts between the association of creativity (Erez & Nouri, 2010) and cultural values (such as power distance, collectivism/individualism and uncertainty avoidance). Similarly research has focused on the influence of culture on the evaluation of creativity (Hempel & Sue-Chan, 2010), the impact of culture on the whole process of creativity (Chiu & Kwan, 2010) and on the moderating role of culture on the relationship of leader, co-worker, supervisor and social networks with creativity (Zhou & Su, 2010). At the group level creativity, the model of Zhou (2006) regarding paternalistic organizational control has focused on the cultural differences of work groups in terms of western and eastern countries. This context is interesting as it emphasizes the role of paternalistic control in enhancing or limiting creativity in the organizations and to understand the level of control in case of exhibiting creative behaviours. In Zhou's model, paternalistic organizational control is defined as "the extent of control the top management has exerted over task and personnel oriented matters within the work teams". Zhou argued that paternalistic control on intrinsic motivation of employee and eventually on creativity of the team differs in terms of national culture. She further argued that paternalistic control in East enhances the intrinsic motivation and creativity of the team while it reduces/inhibits the intrinsic motivation of the team and eventually inhibits the team creativity in the West. This model is one of the earliest published models that has focused on the impact of national culture on the relationship of organizational control and the team creativity and a multilevel approach has been adopted in this model. Even though this model has been rarely tested empirically, perhaps has been partly tested because of its multilevel approach which has to be tested by collecting data from large number of teams working in a large number of organizations across Eastern and Western countries. While much attention has been given to the positive role of cultural diversity in teams on the team creativity and this notion has been supported empirically (Stahl,

Maznevski, Viogt, & Jonsen, 2009). Stahl et al. (2009) emphasis that cultural diversity in teams leads to divergence in teams which eventually leads to enhance the creativity of teams.

2.13 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP)

Innovation has been defined as “the intentional introduction and application within a role, group or organization of ideas, processes, products, or procedures, new to the relevant unit of adoption, designed to significantly benefit the individual, the group, organization or wider society” (West & Farr, 1990, p. 9). Thus, innovation involves both creativity (i.e., the introduction of new and useful ideas) and the successful implementation of these creative ideas into beneficial applications. According to March (1991) to facilitate innovation, organizations need to engage in two types of activities i.e. exploration and exploitation. Exploration comprises taking risks, experimenting and venturing into new and unconventional directions while the focus of exploitation is on effectiveness, goal attainment and avoidance of risks and errors (March, 1991).

2.14 Collectivistic Orientation

Five cultural characteristics have been identified by Hofstede (1980) after an extensive research study. Asian countries and Western countries have been found to show distinct characteristics on the collectivism and individualism dimensions. Asian countries were reported as more of a collectivistic orientation while western countries were reported as more individualistic. Further study carried out on collectivism extended it to the individual level as collectivistic orientation is the extent to which individuals feel themselves responsible to groups and organizations or an individual may act individually or collectively (Triandis, 1995). According to Morris et al. (1993) shows that a society can have both collectivists as well as individualists. Triandis and Suh (2002) claimed that an individual culture will have 60 percent idiocentric individuals while collectivistic culture will have 60 percent allocentric individuals.

Researchers have found four key attributes of individuals with collectivistic orientation. (1) they try to compromise on their own objectives for their group objectives (Yamaguchi, 1994), and if the personal goals are in conflict with the collective interest, they give preference to group goals at the expense of their own interests (Parsons, 1951), (2) they identify themselves by the membership they have in different social groups (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), (3) their behaviours are more guided by obligations, duties, and social norms (Bontempo & Rivero, 1992), and (4) promote in-group harmonious relationship between members even if sometimes

it creates problems in task achievement (Choi, & Yoon, 1994; Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi). The perception of collectivist being interdependent (Triandis, 1993) pushes them to engage in cooperative and supportive behaviours and takes care of the group interests (Kagitcibasi & Berry, 1989; Hofstede, 1980). Therefore, the priority of collectivists is the solidarity among the group members (Ungston, Steers, & Park, 1997) and shows their concern in building long term relationships, tradition, security and conformity (Tiessen, 1997). While the individualists make short term relationships and are concerned about stimulation, self-direction, achievement and social power.

According to Tiessen (1997) individualist willingly accept in-group conflicts and confrontation not only among the group members but also outside the group and generally blame others for external failures and takes the credit in case of success and attribute to their individual ability. Hence, the priority of individualists is their own interests instead of group interests and are concerned about their own accomplishments and achievements (Wagner & Moch, 1986; Early, 1989) and prefer freedom, sense of personal uniqueness, and autonomy (Singelis, 1994). The concept of individualism-collectivism given by Hofstede (1980) has been used to identify cultural differences in which collectivism emphasis collective interest while individualism emphasis self (Triandis, 1995; Early, 1989). The concept of individualism-collectivism focus on the group membership's nature (Early & Gibson, 1998) in which collectivists identify their selves by the members of the group, while individualistic cultures focus on the communication of an individual with the members outside the group. Though, the concept of individualism-collectivism has been used to recognise differences in cultures at the level of society, latest research studies have also used this concept at the organizational level to identify the difference of cultures in different organizations (Chatman & Barsade, 1995; Robert & Wasti, 2002;). Organizational individualism value autonomy, individual development, individual performance, compensation and competitive behaviours (Robert & Wasti, 2002; Triandis, 1989) while, organizations having collectivistic orientation value group-based rewards, cooperative behaviours and shared objectives (Cox, Lobel & McLeod, 1991; Triandis, 1989). Individualism-collectivism has been considered as a single variable in early studies however, Robert and Wasti (2002) emphasized individualism and collectivism as two separate dimensions of culture. Furthermore, positive correlation between individualism and collectivist has been reported by Robert and Wasti (2002). After performing confirmatory factor analysis, Robert and Wasti (2002) argued that the data fits the two-factor model much better from the single-factor model.

Hofstede (1980) investigated and explored different cultural values and cultural characteristics. Among the dimension of culture identified by Hofstede (1980), collectivism and individualism have shown different cultural characteristics. According to Hofstede (1980) most of the Asian countries have collectivist culture while western countries were found to have individualistic culture. Further research on collectivism extended it to individual level i.e. collectivistic orientation which refers to “the extent to which a person gives importance to responsibility towards his group or organization”. According to Triandis (1995), a person may act either individually or collectively depending on the situation. So individualists as well as collectivists both types of individuals exist in a society (Morris, Avila & Allen, 1993) and according to Triandis and Suh (2002), 60 percent of individual will be idiocentric in individualistic culture while 60 percent individuals will be allocentric in collectivistic culture. After the meta-analysis by Oyserman, Coon and Kimmelmeier (2002), it is reported that difference in culture in collectivist were not as large as perceived, nor were systematic as were expected or perceived. To further explain, on individual level, collectivists have four key characteristics, i.e. i. they identify themselves by the memberships they have in different societal groups (Markus & Kitayama, 1991), ii. They give more priority to group goals than individual (Yamaguchi, 1994) and when personal goals are in a clash with collective goals of the group, they prefer collective interests and compromise on their personal interests (Parson, 1951), iii. Their behaviours are guided by the the norms of the group or their duties and responsibilities and obligations (Bontempo & Rivero, 1992), and iv. Some times at the cost of task achievement, they prefer harmonious and coherent relationships with the group (Kim, Triandis, Kagitcibasi, Choi & Yoon, 1994). Collectivist individuals engage in cooperative behaviours (Hofstede, 1980) towards their group because they perceive themselves very interdependent within the group (Triandis, 1993) that’s why collectivist individual emphasis on solidarity within the group (Ungston, Steers & Park, 1997) and are interested in building long-term relations, tradition, security and conformity (Tiessen, 1997). On the other hand, individualists are not interested in long term associations and prefer short term relationships, self-direction, stimulation, achievement and social power. Individualistic individuals are always ready to confront other members of the group and readily face conflicts with the out-group, blame external factors for their failures and give credit to their selves or their own abilities for their success (Tiessen, 1997). Unlike collectivists, individualists give more preference to their personal interests than collective interests of the group because they give more priority to their individual achievements and always look out for themselves (Early, 1989)

and give more importance to freedom, autonomy, sense of personal uniqueness and assertiveness (Singelis, 1994).

2.15 Predictors/antecedents of Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB)

The review of literature by Vadera et al. (2013) indicates that formal predications about the effect of demographics variables (such as gender, age education, tenure and hierarchical positions) on CDB have not been made and have been used as control variables. Moreover, the effects of control variable on CDB are mostly mixed. For instance, being male and whistle-blowing has a positive relationship (Miceli and Near, 1988). Being male has a positive relationship also with expression of voice (Gao, Janssen, and Shi, 2011), extra role behaviours (Bowling, 2010), creative performance (X. Zhang & Bartol, 2010), pro-social rule breaking (Morrison, 2006) and pro-social behaviours (Lee, 1995). Other studies have found no relationship between gender and CDB (Van Dyne et al., 2008; Moon et al., 2008; Morrison, 2011) while some studies have found negative relationship between them (Dahling et al., 2011; Hall & Ferris, 2011). In the same way, education and age are positively related to creative performance (De Stobbeleir et al., 2011; Farmer et al., 2003), voice (Tucker et al., 2008), pro-social behaviours (C. Lee, 1995) and extra-role behaviours (Bowling, 2010). Age and education reported as negatively associated with creative performance (George & Zhou, 2007; Madjar et al., 2011) and whistle blowing (Chiu, 2003; Chiu & Wei, 2009a) or have no relationship with different CDB (Dahling et al., 2012). However according to Vadera et al. (2013), various scholars argue about tenure that since newcomers are less familiar with the values of the organization and try to be less recognised with the organizational culture and organizational goals therefore, they perceive their selves less empowered to violate the organizational norms that's why there are less chances of them to be involved in CDB (Vadera, Aguilera & Caza, 2009). Slome scholars also found tenure to be positively (Liao et al., 2010), negatively (Stansbury & Victor, 2009) or not related (Moon et al., 2008; George & Zhou, 2007) to various types of CDB.

The relationship between hierarchical position and CDB is the same as the tenure and CDB. Employees at the lower level of organization may feel themselves as less empowered and may not engage in behaviours that violate the values and principles of the organization out of fear of punishment from the superiors. Therefore, hierarchical position likely to be positively associated with CDB. Nevertheless, various earlier studies argues that hierarchical position is positively related to creative performance, taking charge, voice, extra-role behaviours, whistle

blowing, pro-social rule breaking and pro-social behaviours (D. Liu et al., 2011; Taylor & Curtis, 2010). Moreover, affection to the organization (with respect to psychological attachment and organizational commitment) has an ambiguous relationship with CDB. Some Studies (e.g Mellahi et al., 2010; Taylor & Curtis, 2010) have shown positive connection among attachment to the organization and various forms of CDB, while the study of Zhou & George (2001) reported negative relationship between attachment to the organization and CDB. The studies of Burris et al. (2008) reported that attachment to the organization had not relationship at all with CDB. For instance, organizational commitment was reported to be positively correlated with voice (Withey & Cooper, 1989). Similarly, attachment to the organization (in terms of organizational identification) was reported to be positively associated with incremental creativity, while Zhou and George (2001) found negative relationship between continuous commitment and creative performance.

Vadera et al. (2013) suggested that for individual differences, identity security which is a specific kind of psychological empowerment can also be an important area to work on. There is a difference between Identity security and identity strength, which is usually discussed in organizational identification. Identity strength extent to which an individual see its group as self-defining (ranging from strong to weak) while by contrast identity security refers to “the degree to which people view their group as not only self-defining but also feel safe and secure in the group and the group is validated by others” (Huo & Molina, 2006). Identity security and identity strength differs in the way they follow and defend the norms of the organization. For example, individuals with identity security do not follow or defend the norms of the organization and usually have more diverse and open thinking (Pratt, Fiol, O’Connor & Pacino, 2011). Therefore, it has the ingredients which are important for CDB. Hence the individuals who are willing and have the ability for adoption of new norms and have identity security, then these individuals would have inclination towards deviation. There is a difference between identity strength and identity security because individuals with identity security do not have the ability to strictly adopt and follow the norms of the referent group and will have more diverse and open mind-set. So there are ingredients in the concept of identity security which are important for CDB, so there are more chances that the individuals having identity security will engage in CDB. For creating helping environment in the group, attachment to the group is very important, but the individuals who look beyond the norms of their groups and have identity security are more prone to engage in deviance behaviour or at-least show tendency towards deviation.

2.16 Literature on Relationship between Variables

2.16.1 Extraversion and Psychological Empowerment.

Emotionally stable people tend to be more positive and shows enhanced feelings of empowerment as compared to the individuals who are depressed and low in emotionally stability. Extrovert Individuals are highly talkative and social and shows great commitments towards activities and social groups (Erdheim et al., 2006) thus founded on the argument of Ford et al. (1995) highly extrovert individuals are likely to feel empowered. Moreover, according to (Judge, Martocchio, & Thoresen, 1997; Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006) extravert individuals like challenging activities and unique situations. Hence extroverts like to embrace empowerment and authority and take responsibilities. Moreover, the study of Rodriguez-llewell (2008) established a significantly positive relationship of extraversion with the all the four dimension of empowerment.

2.16.2 Self-esteem and Psychological Empowerment.

Individuals having high self-esteem will possibly feel high self-worth and work related competence (Bandura, 1977). Individuals having high self-esteem feel that are a valued resource for the organization and feel that they have talent thus will play an active role in the work unit (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). The study of Spreitzer (1995) established that self-esteem has a significantly positive association with psychological empowerment. There is always a possibility that individuals having high self-esteem will search for challenging roles and opportunities in the organization where they can experience empowerment (Judge & Hurst, 2007). Similarly according to Judge, Erez, Bono and Thoreson (2002), the subjective well-being and positive emotions of people with high self-esteem are high as compared to individuals that have low level of self-esteem. According to Thomas and Velthouse (1990) the subjective assessment of tasks gets affected by these positive emotions which are represented by the perceptions of psychological empowerment.

The roots of studies related to empowerment can be found in theory of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1982) and job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). According to Seibert et al. (2011) the perceptions of psychological empowerment are influenced by self-esteem. Seibert and colleagues (2011) reported positive association of self-evaluation traits (such as locus of control, self-esteem, GSE, emotional stability) with psychological empowerment. According to Brockner (1988) self-esteem is the feeling of an

individual about his work and is positively related to psychological empowerment, because individuals who feel psychologically empowerment consider their selves valuable and worthy. This feeling of being valuable and worthy makes the individual to feel psychologically empowered. An employee's feelings about his worth and value being a human being (or having high self-esteem) this positive assessment of individuals about their selves eventually leads them to work positively (Bandura, 1977). High self-esteem results in proactive orientation towards work and enhances the psychological empowerment of employee (Wei & Zhang, 2006).

2.16.3 Generalized self-efficacy (GSE) and Psychological Empowerment.

Empowerment has been regarded as a motivational process in which people consider and feel their selves as more capable (Speitzer, 1995). According to Jenkins (1996), the importance of empowerment is that individuals can make people to do those things which they could not do previously and enables them to perform difficult tasks. The study of Syech et al. (2015) reported positive relationship of Psychological empowerment with self-efficacy. Gist (1987) defined self-efficacy as "the belief of an individual about his capability to perform a specific task" (p. 472). The more an individual has high self-efficacy, the more he/she will set high objectives and the more the individual will have high dedication for achieving the objective set by him (Bandura, 1989). The meta-analytic study of Seibert and Colleagues (2011) reported positive relationship of GSE trait of self-evaluation with psychological empowerment.

2.16.4 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP) and Psychological Empowerment.

The self-determination construct of psychological empowerment gives people the feeling that they are in full control of their destiny and which gives them the potential to take risk (Quinn, 2000). According to Spreitzer and Quinn (1996) empowerment gives people the feeling that they can have a real impact on things and which gives them the reason to take responsibility, risk new behaviours. Empowered individuals embrace risk in difficult situations (Kizilos, 1990; Block, 1987). Similarly employees having high propensity of taking risk will possibly feel empowered.

2.16.5 Proactive Personality and Psychological Empowerment.

Many different antecedents of psychological empowerment whether it is personality antecedents or environmental/contextual antecedents have been researched by research

scholars. Kraimer, Seibert and Liden (1999) tested task feedback, job autonomy and job meaningfulness as antecedents of psychological empowerment. Spreitzer (1995) evaluated the access to information, self-esteem and rewards psychological empowerment's antecedents. Similarly, psychological empowerment's antecedents are empowering leadership (Zhang & Bartol, 2010), transformational leadership (Pieterse, Knippenberg, Chippers, & Stam, 2010; Castro, Villegas Perinan, & Bueno, 2008; Avolio, Zhu, & Koh, 2004), span of control, socio-political support, work climate (Pieterse, Knippenberg, Chippers, & Stam, 2010; Spreitzer, 1996) and work-level psychological climate (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). One personality antecedent that has not been examined is the proactive personality trait.

An individual which is active and try to change himself or the environment surrounding him is considered as a proactive personality (Crant, 2000). Individuals with proactive personality always strive to collecting information, availing opportunities and find solutions of problems. Links of proactive personality with entrepreneurial intention (Crant, 1996) and personal achievement and extracurricular activities (Bateman & Crant, 1993) have been established. Proactive individuals always perceive their selves as difference makers and always plays an active role in the workplace according to their roles. Therefore, it is sensible to predict that proactive personality would be an antecedent to psychological empowerment and that proactive individuals will be psychologically empowered.

2.16.6 Extraversion and Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

Extraversion is the only trait among the big five personality traits which has been linked to CDB and have a positive relationship between each other. Individuals having extrovert personalities are energetic, social and enthusiastic. Extrovert individuals are always ready to share and discuss things openly, expressive in sharing their thoughts and can fuel discussions and always expect high performance from theirselves (Barry & Stewart, 1997). A positive relationship has been found by Lepine and Van Dyne (2001) between extraversion and voice behaviour. Similarly Crant, Kim and Wang (2011) also reported positive relationship of extraversion with voice behaviour in his study of 224 MBA students and their involvement in voice behaviour in the class. Extraversion has also been linked positively with creativity by Taggar (2002) and argued that individuals with extrovert personalities are more creative than individuals who are less extrovert. In the study of Lepine and Van Dyne (2001) argued about the reason of the association among extraversion and CDB. They argued that as extrovert people are good in expressing their thoughts and as there is a risk attached in voice behaviour,

therefore it can be argued that extrovert individuals are more willing to challenge the status quo and take risks and are less shy by pressure to conform. Similarly extrovert individuals also engage in pro-social behaviours (Smith et al., 1983). Extraversion has also been linked to situational performance (Hurtz & Donovan, 2000) which has been defined as “extra-role and pro-social behaviour that go beyond task performance” (Kroeck & Brown, 2004).

Extroversion is associated with both destructive deviance and constructive deviance at both levels i.e. individual level and organizational level (Lee, Ashton & Shin, 2005). As the extroversion dimension of personality is more socially orientated than less task orientated (Lee, Ashton & Shin, 2005) that’s why it more strongly associated to destructive deviance at the individual level than destructive deviance at organizational level (Lee, Ashton & Shin, 2005; Liao, Joshi & Chuang, 2004). Hence, extroversion is related to interpersonal destructive deviance.

2.16.7 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP) and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

RTP or risk-taking ability may also lead individuals to behave constructively deviant. Madjar et al. (2011) found that RTP and radical creativity are positively associated with each other and argued that individuals having risk taking abilities are more creative than those who do not take risks. The study of Galperin (2012) also found that RTP and CDB are positively related with each other and presents a clear possibility that individuals who are risk takers will engage in CDB because proactivity and potential or courage of breaking organizational rules are the common characteristics of constructively deviant individuals and risk taking individuals.

Similarly Vadera (2013) among other antecedents (such as self-esteem, proactive personality and transformational leadership) of CDB reported that RTP is positively related with CBD such as rule-breaking behaviours (Howell and Higgins, 1990; Morrison, 2006). Moreover, the study of Yildiz et al., (2015b) confirmed the significantly positive relationship of RTP with innovative CDB.

Scholars have emphasized the role of psychological state which produces positively deviant behaviours, and reported risk-taking behaviour as a likely mediating mechanism ((Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). They further argued that the willingness of the employees to take risk shows the readiness to demonstrate positive deviance. Positive relationship has been

reported between taking readiness to take risks and creativity by Madjar, Greenberg, and Chen (2011). Similarly, Morrison (2006) also reported positive relationships between propensities to take risks and pro-social rule breaking. The element of risk is always associated with positive deviance because it does not result in reward all the time but frequently result in punishment because of the violation of the organization's rules regulations (Jones, 1998). Hence for positive deviance, individuals must have to leave their comfort zones and will have to cross the boundaries of their psychological safety (Morrison, 2006) because the propensity to take risk is the key to positive deviance.

2.16.8 Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE) and Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).

GSE is the belief of an individual about the outcomes of his actions or behaviours. The concept of GSE is related to the concepts of self-efficacy and self-worth. These beliefs of the individuals about the outcomes of their actions have been associated with various types of CDB. For instance, GSE has been associated to the internal intentions of whistle-blowing (Park & Blekinsopp, 2009). In two longitudinal studies conducted by Withey and Cooper (1989), it has been reported that the confidence of individuals in their actions and the improvement due to their actions will lead them to engage in expressing voice.

2.16.9 Proactive Personality and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

Proactive individuals are the one that identify opportunities, avail them and change their environment (Bateman & Crant, 1993). The belief of proactive individuals is that they can successfully bring change and will not be discourage from retaliatory environment in the organization. In other words, there are more chances that individuals with proactive personalities will feel self-determined and competent (the two dimensions of psychological empowerment) and will eventually exhibit CDB. Moreover, though psychological empowerment has not been looked as a possible mechanism between the association of proactive personality and CDB but some studies have given indication that there is possibility that proactive personality will be associated with CDB. For instance, in a study of Miceli, Vanscotter, Near and Rehg (2001) conducted on 300 employees of air force and military and found that proactive personality is positively related to CDB. They argued that individuals who blew the whistle and reported the wrong doings were found to have proactive personalities than those inactive observers who were not involved in whistle-blowing. The study of Crant et al.

(2011) also reported that proactive personality is positively related with voice behaviours. Parker et al. (2006) argued that proactive personality has been linked to extra-role behaviours and suggested to go beyond normal job descriptions in performance of their tasks. Similarly proactive personality and pro-social rule breaking has been associated with each other in the study of Dahling et al. (2012) and contended that there is possibility that proactive individuals will engage in deviance behaviours such as pro-social rule breaking.

2.16.10 Self-esteem and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

Since they are progressively certain and OK with whom they are, high-confidence people will in general do not accommodate and display more decisiveness and initiative than those with low confidence. People having high self-esteem consider changing the existing norms of the behaviour and setting new norms and values for the organization as their responsibility and consider it as a challenge (Bandura, 1986). They are along these lines bound to take part in valuably degenerate practices. Similarly, LePine and Van Dyne (1998) also reported similar results and argued that people with significant levels of worldwide confidence occupied with more voice than did people with low degrees of worldwide confidence.

Morrison and Phelps (1999) in a study conducted on 275 employees of various organizations and found taking charge which is a type of CDB to be positively related to organizational self-efficacy. Similarly Lio et al. (2010) in a study conducted on 828 employees serving in 116 teams and collected data in different times, established that self-efficacy is positively related to creative performance. A study was conducted by Chiu (2003) on 306 professional and managers from Chinese organizations and reported locus of control to be positively associate to whistle-blowing.

These scholars contend that people who were sure that their activities have any kind of effect were well on the way to pick activities that realize change and adjust the wellspring of discontent. Hence, they are bound to go astray from the standards of a reference bunch in manners that advantage the gathering and its individuals (additionally observe Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2000). The theory of self-consistency (Korman, 1970) suggests that self-esteem has a negative effect on deviance behaviours. Which means that there are less chances that individuals who have high self-esteem will engage in deviance behaviours, because they consider deviance behaviours as negative behaviours which do not match with the positive

image they have made for their selves. Moreover, there are many studies which reported that self-esteem is not related with deviance behaviours (Baumeister et al., 2003).

2.16.11 Psychological Empowerment and Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).

Broad enthusiasm for empowerment comes when worldwide challenge and hierarchical change have animated a requirement for representatives who can step up, grasp hazard, invigorating advancement and adapt to high vulnerability (e.g Kizilos, 1990; Block, 1987). Empowered managers are likely to exceed work-role expectations (Browen & Lawler, 1992). Empowerment will increase initiative (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Empowered people are probably going to be inventive, and feel less obliged by rule-bound parts of work (Amabile, 1988). According to Spreitzer (2008), representative who feel a feeling of empowerment are probably going to take a functioning direction towards their work and perform "well beyond" the honorable obligation. Related to the inspiration to be imaginative related with inherent helpers, for example, which meaning and self-determination (Amabile, 1988). Psychological empowerment is perhaps connected with development (Kanter, 1983; Spreitzer, 1995b). As indicated by Spreitzer (2008), empowered representatives display increasingly positive and helpful work practices, including OCB. At its centre, POS is about "positive deviance," or the manners by which associations and their individuals thrive and flourish in phenomenal manners. Positive deviance is a behaviour at the right end of the normal curve (Cameron, 2003). What does it take for individuals to be positively deviant? Spreitzer and Sonenshein (2003) contend that an empowered thinking is basic. We realize that social frameworks are intended to protect the norm. The inescapable impact of standards gives a methods for power over what individual state and do. Positive deviance requires genuine hazard and risk. It requires leaving from standards in a positive manner – often making others awkward. For instance, when representatives perform in manners that are really incredible, associates often fell jealous and attempt to recalibrate the enormity with the goal that it appears to be less amazing (Quinn and Quinn, 2002). Some of the time they even despoil the model. Given that surpassing standards is troublesome and requires risk taking conduct, it is critical to comprehend the conditions that empower people to be emphatically freak. Along these lines, unmistakably psychological empowerment is probably going to be a key enabling agent of positive deviance. Increasing positive deviance is in the interest of organization that's why they empower their employees to engage in deviance behaviours (Appelbaum et al., 2007).

Psychological importance has central importance for mediating between the relationship of work context with employee attitudes and employee behaviour (Seibert et al., 2011; Spreitzer et al., 2008). Psychological empowerment is a psychological state in which employee feel that they are in full control of the work and perceive their work as meaningful, believe in their competence and consider their selves very much capable to performance their work, feel a sense of self-determination and feel that they can control the outcomes of their work (Spreitzer,1995). Because of the individual's self-determination and his belief about the meaningfulness of his job, empowered individuals will violate the norms and regulations of the organization, if needed for performing their work in the best possible way (Vadera et al., 2013; Mertens et al., 2016b).

2.16.12 Psychological empowerment as mediating variable.

Proactive personality has been reported as a possible antecedent of psychological empowerment in the study of Searle (2011). His study established that proactive personality is with psychological empowerment which showed that individuals with proactive personality are more psychological empowered as compared to less individuals having less proactive personalities. Same results have been reported in the study of Spreitzer (1995) and reported positive relationship of psychological empowerment with other antecedents of personality. Moreover, Crant (200) argued that proactive people always strive for improvement and search for opportunities and bring change. In the study of Searl (2011) it has been established that psychological empowerment fully mediates between the relationship of proactive personality and taking charge which is one of the four proactive work behaviours. His study also established partial mediation of psychological empowerment between the relationships proactive personality with individual innovation. As taking charge and innovative performance both are constructs of CDB, that is the reason it is conceivable that psychological will mediate between proactive personality and CDB as a whole as well.

2.16.13 P-O fit and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

The positive connection of P-O FIT with job satisfaction, OCB, organizational performance and organizational commitment has been reported in previous studies (Liu et al., 2010; Bretz and Judge, 1994; Elçi et al., 2008; O'Reilly et al., 1991). Be that as it may, there are likewise studies about, which identify with the unwanted impacts of poor degree of P-O fit, for example, counter-productive workplace behaviours, dissatisfaction, alienation and turnover

intentions (Liu et al., 2010; Sharkavi et al., 2013; Jawad et al., 2013). These studies recommend person-organization as an important aspect for organizations. The study of Cable and Judge (1996) reported significant relationship between person-organization with various work attitudes. As the social exchange theory of Balue (1964) established the relationship between perception, attitude and behaviours that's why in this context despite of the fact that no study has been found that explored or established the relationship of P-O FIT with the CDB, however there is possibility that person-organizational fit lead to CDB.

2.16.14 P-O fit and Psychological ownership.

Accordin to Pierce et al. (2001) and Wagner et al. (2003), the conception of psychological ownership produces a feeling on ownership in the minds of employees of an organization. Driscoll, Pierce, and Coghlan (2006) argued that employees of an organization want to be the part of the organization and retain that relationship. According to Van Dyne et al. (2004), the sense of belonging part of psychological ownership creates such a feeling in the minds of employees that they would consider the organization as a safe, favourable and comfortable place. This sense of belongingness is developed by the concept of P-O FIT which eventually increases psychological ownership of employees, which makes the employees to consider the organization as their home and feels the organization comfortable just like they are comfortable at home. Therefore, According to Van Dyne et al. (2004) employees having high psychological ownership consider their selves as part of the organization and out of wellbeing for the organization they put extra efforts in the form of extra-role behaviours and are always ready for the protection of the organization.

As for psychological contract, reciprocal and exchangeable relationships exist between an organization and employees when employees have a psychological contract toward an organization; these relationships are related to their compensation, promotion, training, development, etc. (Rousseau, 1990). That is, a psychological contract lets employees perceive some obligations which are not specifically showed in contracts stemming from human resource practices such as recruitment, compensation, training, etc. (Rousseau, 1995). Employees who are satisfied via these practices may think they are insiders (Masterson et al., 2003) and form intangible contracts which inspire employees to defend the organization.

2.16.15 Psychological ownership and constructive deviance behaviours.

According to the studies of Van Dyne and Pierce (2004), O'Driscoll, Pierce, and Coghlan (2006) and Mayhew, Ashkanasy, Bramble, and Gardner (2007), it is guessed that the employee's feelings of ownership will increase the awareness of other's expectations and understanding that outcomes in positive attitudinal and behavioural results. Literature on Psychological ownership has predominantly centred on those outcomes, for example, OCB, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Negative relationship has been found between the psychological ownership and CDB (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2009). Many scholars such as Hanke and Saxberg (1985), Hackman (1992), Dodge (1985) and Brief, Buttram, and Dukerich (2001) have emphasised the utilitarian side of deviance behaviours. The concept of CDB have been conceptualized by Galperin (2003) and Warren (2003)

Moreover, CDB has been conceptualized by Galperin (2003) and Warren (2003) and have contended that in spite of being divergent by nature; CDB underscores the honest goals and the good results that can be helpful toward the organization. Albeit CDB has been as often as possible referenced, there is an absence of empirical research inside CDB. Given that, significant relationship has been found between mental proprietorship and authoritative citizenship conduct. Similarly feelings of ownership ought to likewise be significantly related with CDB since it is aimed to profit the organization.

The study of Long (1978) has explored the positive influence of psychological ownership as organizational influence can be exercised by individuals who have high psychological ownership. This eventually according to Brief and Motowildo (1986) increases the sense of worth of an individual which leads to pro-social behaviours such as helping co-workers. Similarly the studies of Long (1978) and Klien (1987) reported psychological ownership and job satisfaction to be positively related to each other. Similarly the studies of LePine, Erez and Johnson (2002) and Dalal (2005) reported psychological ownership and COB to be positively related to each other.

According to Pierce et al. (2003), since the concept of psychological ownership creates a feeling of ownership which create positive evaluative decisions that can elevate a person to respond in behaviours that are gainful towards the organization. Literature related to psychological ownership suggested many other positive results due to the conception of psychological ownership and argued that this conception has the potential of resulting in many

other positive aspects which are beneficial for the organization. For example the study of Pierce et al. (1991) suggested positive relationship of psychological ownership and constructive organizational behaviours such as OCB, organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Other than this, the studies of Dirks, Cummings and Pierce (1996) and Pierce, Kostova, and Dirks (2001) reported significant relationship of psychological ownership with feelings of responsibility and propensity of taking risks. Similarly the studies of Van Dyne and Pierce (2004), Vanderwalle et al. (1995), O'Driscoll et al. (2006) and Avey et al. (2009) also reported significant connection of psychological ownership with extra-role behaviours and SIT. According to the theory of Stewardship introduced by Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson, stewards act to the greatest advantage of the leaders and as "owners," workers will probably participate in behaviours that are collectivistic and are for the benefit of organization instead of individualistic and of their own benefit and try to accomplish organizational targets, for example, development and profitability; along these lines, making their behaviours to focus toward the organization. This explains the nature of the people who believe in the benefit of all the members of the organization and direct their efforts and energies towards the benefit of all the members of the organization and do not act selfishly. They prefer the interests of the organization and its members at the expense of their own interests and works for the profitability and development of the organization.

According to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), individuals who have high psychological ownership and feel the organization as extension of their self, they will perform pro-social behavioural because their goal is to work for benefit of all the members of the organization working individually or in groups and for the whole organization. Since they have more goals to advance the welfare of the individual, group or organization. Also, as the feeling of ownership makes the people proud that's why it must reduce the worries of the employees and enhance their motivation to direct their energies and efforts for the betterment of the organization by working at different levels of the organization (Bernstein, 1979) on the grounds that sentiments of ownership have been contended to invigorate worker commitment and integration, collective consciousness, shared responsibility, psychological partnership and common interest (Pierce et al., 1991). In this context, many studies about personality reported conscientiousness as fundamentally associated with Organizational Citizenship Behavior (e.g., LePine, et al., 2002; Borman, Penner, Allen, and Motowidlo, 2001) as conscientious employees are progressively trustworthy and accomplishment arranged (Mount, Ilies, and Johnson, 2006) and are bound to seek after errand related objectives at work (Penney, Hunter, and Perry, 2011)

and as OCB and CDB are both favourable organizational behaviours and are exhibited for the organization.

The concepts of psychological ownership and CDB have recently gained importance and attention in the field of organizational behaviour. Numerous different types of CDB have been reported in literature related to CDB. For example, Galperin (2002) defined positive or CDB refers “to intentionally breaking or violating organizational norms for the benefit of the organization and/or its members”. Sprietzer and Sonenshein (2003) defined constructive deviance as “honourable departure from the norms of the organization”. Furthermore, Warren (2003) defined CDB “as intentionally violating the organizational norms but conforming to hypernorms”. Vadera and colleagues (2013) presented more comprehensive definition of CDB i.e. planned behaviours that violate the rules of the organization and in doing so benefit the organization and conform to hypernorms. According to this definition given by Vadera and colleagues (2013), there are three characteristics of CDB i.e. i. deviation from the norms of the organization, ii. Benefit the organization and iii. Conforming to hypernorms. CDB is not among the formal description but they benefit the organization and makes the organizational process more smooth and easy (Galperin & Burke, 2006; Robins & Galperin, 2010). Employees who violate the rules of the organization for the wellbeing of the organization result in organizational change and innovation (Galperin, 2012). Because of the increasing importance of innovation for winning the competition for the organizations, CDB plays a very important role (Howell & Higgins, 1990; Howell et al., 2005). CDB have been further divided into three dimensions i.e. innovative CDB, challenging CDB and interpersonal CDB. According to their definition of interpersonal CDB, it refers “to reporting the wrongdoings of others to co-workers and disobeying the orders to bring positive organizational change”. Challenging CDB refers to breaking the norms of the organization for the wellbeing of the organization. And innovative CDB refer to search innovative ideas for performing routine tasks and creating creative solution for resolving problems. Actions such as sharing, cooperating, helping, donating and volunteering are different types of pro-social behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). CDB are also just like other pro-social behaviours such as corporate social responsibilities, OCB, whistle-blowing, creative innovation and employee voice (Galperin, 2012; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). Though these constructs have been put in the same category, CDB are different from these in some aspects. For example, though CDB and OCB both are nature wise similar and going beyond normal job descriptions but OCB is a positive construct while CDB can be a negative construct due to violations of organizational norms. In other words, in CDB,

individuals benefit the organization but at the expense of organizational norms while in OCB individuals do not violate the norms of the organization. According to the definition given by Crant (2000), proactive behaviours refer to “taking initiative to improve the current conditions or create new situation which involves challenging the status quo rather than adjusting to the existing conditions”. From this definition, this can be resulted that individual who take risk can engage in CDB (Galperin, 2012). Despite of the importance of CDB for creating innovations and bringing change in the organization, very limited studies have been conducted in this area as compared to destructive deviance behaviours and requires more research attention from the scholars in the field of organizational behaviours (Vadera et al., 2013; Robbins & Galperin, 2010; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004). In the last decade antecedents of CDB such as personality traits (Bodakin & Tziner, 2009), psychological ownership (Vanderwalle et al., 1995; Chung & Moon, 2011), leader-member exchange (Tziner et al., 2010) and cultural factors (Galperin, 2002) have been given importance and have been studied. The study conducted by Vadera and colleagues combined these antecedents of CDB into three mechanisms i.e. felt obligations, psychological empowerment and intrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as “the inherent tendency of employees to search and learn new and novel ideas and challenges and enhance and extend their capacities” (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Intrinsic motivation affects the motivational level and satisfaction level of employees and is a very important factor (Ates et al., 2012). According to Blau’s (1964) theory of social exchange, if an employee positively perceive its organization, then he/she may feel compelled and obliged to behave positively and contribute to the wellbeing of the organization. Lastly, psychological empowerment refers to “a number of variables that gives strength to individuals in some ways and enhance the capacity of employees to engage in CDB” (Vadera et al., 2013). On the basis of these studies, this can be established that of the variables which are related to people and organization are associated with CDB and employees engage in these behaviours through three mechanisms. Psychological ownership can be one of the common consequences of positive factors related to work and organization and is a much understudied antecedent of positive behaviours (Avey et al., 2012; Avey et al., 2009; Vanderwalle et al., 1995; O’driscoll et al., 2006; Buchko 1993; Chung & Moon, 2011). Psychological ownership is defined as “the state in which an individual feel as though the target or piece of target is ‘thiers’” (Pierce & Colleagues, 2003). They also stated that the roots of the psychological ownership are “feeling of possession and being tied psychologically to an object”. According to Pierce and colleagues (2001, 2003), psychological ownership is an attitude with cognitive and affective elements.

That's why it can be said that those people who are satisfied due to their possessiveness towards a target object may exhibit CDB.

The relationship of psychological ownership with deviant behaviours has been rarely tested in the past. Despite of the positive nature of psychological ownership just like OCB, employee voice, organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness and job satisfaction (Avey et al., 2009; Wagner et al., 2003), literature on this subject is very scarce (Pierce & Morgan, 1991). Looking at this, psychological ownership is very important and is a must for organization's wellbeing. Despite of the difference of psychological ownership from other related positive constructs, there is still confusion on how it is different from other same constructs. To solve and remove this ambiguity, Pierce and colleagues (2001) stated that psychological ownership differentiates from other constructs due to its possession and motivational bases. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) also removed these ambiguities with the help of some examples. For example, an organization commitment is about, "why should I maintain my membership in the organization?" Psychological ownership is about, "How much do I feel this organization is mine?" Organizational identification is about, "Who I am", Internationalization is about, "What do I believe?" Psychological empowerment asks, "Do I feel capable and intrinsically motivated in my work role?" Job involvement is about "How important is the job and job performance to myself image?" (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). Many studies in social sciences have been conducted on the Blau's (1964) theory of social exchange. That's why due to the interactional nature of the theory of social exchange we can conclude that the negative and positive perceptions of people result in different positive behaviours with the help of different positive attitudes (Greenberg & Scott, 1996). So that's why this can be believed that psychological ownership being a positive attitude would result in CDB.

Despite of the fact that many number of studies (Ozler et al, 2008; Liu et al., 2012; Mayhew et al., 2007; Pierce et al, 2003, 2004; Sieger et al, 2011, 2013) have discussed, tested and analysed the concept of psychological ownership, the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB have been tested very rarely and that's why there is still plenty of room of further exploration of this relationship. Many studies (such as Mayhew, Ashkanasy, Bramble & Gardner, 2007; Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004; O'Driscoll, Pierce & Coghlan, 2006) have focussed the on the results of psychological ownership such as OCB, jobs satisfaction and organizational commitment. The study of Avey, Avolio, Crossley and Luthans (2009) found negative relationship when they tested the relationship of psychological ownership with

deviant behaviours and further enhance the positive impacts of psychological ownership. Within the concept of deviance behaviours, scholars argued that there is a positive and functional side of deviant behaviours called as CDB (Brief, Buttram & Dukerich, 2001). Furthermore, Warren (2003) and Galperin (2003) argued that despite of the negative nature of the concept of CDB, the intentions behind these behaviours are good and ensure favorable results that can be beneficial for the organization. They further argued that empirically CDB has been rarely studied.

Employee ownership make and individual to exercise organizational influence that's why it can produce positive effect (Long, 1978). Employee psychological ownership of a target object makes an individual to recall better experiences or positive information about the target object, which can lead to pro-social behaviours, for example, helping colleagues (Brief & Motowildo, 1986). In this perspective, positive association has been reported about the associated of psychological ownership and job satisfaction (Long, 1978) and positive association was reported between job satisfaction and OCB (Dalal, 2005; LePine, Erez & Johnson, 2002) because satisfied employees respond by performing SIT as a response. Psychological ownership produces positive evaluative judgment because psychological ownership has an affective state (Pierce et al., 2003) which can then make an individual to respond in behaviours that are for the wellbeing of the organization. Literature on psychological ownership shows that psychological ownership can result in a number of positive effects on the organization, that's why Pierce et al. (1991) stated that there should be a positive relationship between psychological ownership and constructive organizational behaviours such as organizational effectiveness, organizational efficiency and OCB. Moreover, research suggested relationship of psychological with stewardship, willingness to take risk and feelings of responsibility (Pierce, Kostova & Dirks, 2001). Psychological ownership has a positive relationship with extra role behaviours and OCB (Avey et al., 2009). According to the stewardship theory presented by Davis, Schoorman & Donaldson, stewards act in the best interest of their bosses and as "owners" there are more chances that employees will exhibit such behaviours which are for the wellbeing of the organization and are collectivistic rather than self-serving and individualistic and try to achieve the objectives of the organization such as profitability and growth, therefore focusing their behaviours towards the organization. Because of the ownership feelings of individuals, they will have intents to stimulate the wellbeing of the individual, group and organization and will have pro-social behavioural feelings (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). As psychological ownership and pride are interrelated

with each other, that's why it reduce employee shirking and increase the motivation of individuals to perform at high levels (Bernstein, 1979) because ownership feeling produce psychological partnership, common interest, shared responsibility, worker commitment, integration and collective consciousness (Pierce et al., 1991). In this context, studies conducted on personality dimensions suggested conscientiousness to be correlated significantly with OCB (Lepine et al., 2002) as employees with conscientiousness trait are achievement oriented and are more dependable (Mount, Ilies & Johnson, 2006) and increasingly follow goals related to their task at work (Penny, Hunter & Perry, 2011).

2.17 Mediating roles of Psychological Ownership

Because of its positive effects, extensive literature cites CDB as an important research area (Robins & Galperin, 2010; Vadera et al., 2013; Galperin, 2002; Howell & Higgins, 1990). However, there are very limited studies that define the predictors or antecedents of CDB. Past studies shows that psychological ownership is a positive attitude having positive effects on the organization (reduced negative behaviours, commitment, extra-role behaviours, performance and jobs satisfaction) (Avey et al., 2009; Sieger et al., 2013; Pierce et al., 1992; Liu et al., 2012; Pierce et al., 2004).

2.17.1 Mediating effect of Psychological ownership on the relationship between P-O fit and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)

As previously mentioned, psychological ownership, as an uplifting frame of mind, is related with CDB (Vandewalle et al., 1995; Chung & Moon, 2011). In Van Dyne and partners' (1994) study, they examined the connection among certain indicators (for example job-level, tenure, motivating job characteristics, workplace values, cynicism, and positive job attitudes) and OCB. Additionally, in their examination, they proposed that the association isn't directly yet through some potential mediating variables (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Netemeyer et al., 1997). Given the OCB is a pro-social behaviour (Galperin, 2012; Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004) CDB, which is to concentrate on helping other people, is also pro-social behaviour. At the end of the day, there may not be a direct association between P-O fit and CDB but through some potential mediating attitudes (for example psychological ownership). These studies suggest that individual who feels that there is good fit between the attributes the characteristics of him and that of the organization where he/she works, generate ownership feeling and therefore, he/she may get involves in CDB.

Usually, right man for the right organization is a very important factor for organizations, and organizations invest extreme resources to achieve this. In this context, the construct of P-O FIT is very important for organizations. According to many studies, P-O FIT has many different dimensions. The definition given by Kristof-Brown and colleagues (2005) is one of them, which states that “P-O FIT is the compatibility between the person and the entire organization”. Despite of the extensive use of this definition in literature, there is some confusion in this definition (Judge & Ferris, 1992). For which different explanations have been given to clarify these confusions and ambiguities. For example, there is a difference between supplementary fit and complimentary fit (Kristof, 1996), which were defined by Muchinsky and Monahan (1987). Complimentary fit is defined as “this fit occurs when a person’s traits makes the whole environment or add what is missing to the environment”, while supplementary fit is defined as “when a person possess, add or embellish traits which similar as traits of other individuals in the environment”. The other difference is between demand-abilities and needs-supplies perspectives. From the perspective of needs-supplies, P-O fit occurs when the expectation of employee is satisfied by the organization, while the perspective of demand-abilities, P-O fit occurs when the organizational requirements are met and satisfied by the skills of the employee (Caplan, 1987). Kristof (1996) combined these two differences in his definition and defined P-O fit as “the compatibility between people and organization that occurs when: (i) organization or people share the same characteristics, (ii) atleast one entity (organization or people) provides what other entity needs, or (iii) both. Extensive literature suggest association of P-O fit with positive outcomes (i.e. OCB, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational performance)” (Lie et al., 2010; Elci et al., 2008).

2.18 Consequences of Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)

Though by definition CDB contains benefitting the organization, but no study has yet inspected the impact of CDB on the organization as a whole (Vadera et al., 2013). Usually what benefits one level of the organization may positively impact the organization as a whole as well, through retaining that behaviour and greater productivity. However, CDB also may have negative consequences. For example, the effect of CDB at one level may be totally different at another level of the organization. For example, an individual may be interested to engage in creative behaviour for the improvement of some core practices of the department. However, this change in practices or creativity may bring change or affect adversely other areas of the organization that are interconnected with this department of the organization, especially in case

of newly constructed practices. For example, one department of the organization decides to use iPads for creative ways of tracking their inventory, but there can be a problem of incompatibility of this creative idea with the rest of the procedures of the organization. The consequences can be negative for some other aspects of the organization. Studies of whistle blowing have mainly focused on revenge from the supervisors or colleagues due to blowing the whistle on them or reporting their misconduct or any other deviant behaviour. So reporting the misconduct of others can create a bad public image for the whistle blower and can be seen as a trouble maker (Miceli, Near & Dworkin, 2008). While the study of Whiting, Podsakoff and Pierce (2008) reported positive consequences of voice and found a positive impact of voice on performance appraisal.

Another factor which can influence the way people see a person's CDB as positive or negative, is the person's networking ability. . Networking ability is defined as "the ability of a person to affect change at work by developing and using social networks" (Ferris et al., 2005). Individual with high networking abilities build coalitions and involve other people before exhibiting CDB. And people may not consider them as troublemakers and assess them positively because of the support generated for their ideas. In support of this argument, Baer (2012) argued that building coalition and social network with potential supporters allows them to attract top management's attention. Therefore, individuals having coalitions and alliance with the potential supporters when engage in CDB can control the consequences of exhibiting deviance behaviours for them. However, the networking ability and the interdependence of referent group are areas where more research is needed.

2.18.1 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and employee creative performance (ECP).

Creativity is frequently a period and exertion serious action with a high potential for disappointment, so it is vital that people have wellsprings of persistence enabling them to continue imaginative activity notwithstanding such conditions (Amabile, 1988). In other words, creative undertakings require some inward, supporting power that impels people to continue on even with the moves local to inventive work (Bandura, 1997), and that inside power is given by CDB in light of the fact that as per Galprin (2003) CDB damages important organizational standards and in doing so adds to the prosperity of organization, its individuals, or both. Moreover, Creativity by its very nature, additionally involves a take-off from the norm

in regards to how organizations get things done (Zhou and George, 2001) and is a type of CDB. So there can be positive relationship between CDB and ECP.

Creativity is thinking out of the box (Shin & Zhou, 2007) and box mean rules and regulations of the organizations. This means deviating or breaking from the rules and regulations lead to creativity. According to Griffin and McDermott (1998), there is a higher probability that individuals, who are defiant and disobedient by nature, will be creative. Similarly Gino and Wiltermuth (2014) also argued that individuals who break the rules produce more creative ideas. The value of innovation is increasing day by day (Bariah & Ward, 2015). The role of organizational constraints such as cutbacks, in increasing creativity is very important. The strain theory argued that some contexts pressurize individuals to behave defiantly, not because of their deviant nature but because they the situation do not give them any other option. According to Mainemelis (2010) when creativity is demanded from employees but are not provided what they require for being creative, then they are left with the only option of breaking the rules or being deviant. That's why this can be argued that rule breaking is an asset for increasing creativity which can further enhance the organizational performance. Therefore, organizational tolerating deviance is generally innovative (Baucus, Norton, Baucus, & Human, 2008) because departing from the norms or expectations of the institution can lead to innovation, regeneration and novelty (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2003). Therefore, those who violate the norms of the organization voluntarily can be considered as important sources of entrepreneurship and innovation (Galperin & Burke, 2006).

Values serves as the guiding principles for individuals to live their lives. They direct the actions of individuals and set standards for justification and judgment of individual's actions. Hence, the values of employee may be important for generation of ideas and its implementation. For example, according to Shin and Zhou (2003) those employees who have high conservation values get positively affected from transformational leadership and exhibited greater creativity. According to the social network perspective of Zhou, Shin, Brass, Choi and Zhang (2009), the structural characteristics of social network of an employee (such as the number of weak ties) influence the agency perspective and employee's creativity. They also emphasized the role of employee's traits (norms) in shaping employee's creativity. Their study found that the value of employee's conformity moderated the relationship of employee's creativity and number of weak relationships, and reported that the creativity of employee was

high when the employee's level of conformity was low and the number of weak relationships was at intermediate level.

The study of Choi and Price (2005) reported similar values when individuals respond to innovation. They studied the impact of ability fit and value fit on commitment to implementation of a new work process and implementation behaviour. They could not clearly understand their relationships the results of their study were mixed. The analysis of the role of values in the generation of ideas and implementation because values serves as guiding principles in the lives of employees. Research on the relationship of deviance behaviour and creativity has proliferated in recent decades. Despite of the fact that both the phenomena of creativity and deviance behaviour have been well studied, however, their relationship has been rarely explored. Researchers have theorized creativity as a conforming behaviour where work context is supportive (e.g., Ford, 1996; Amabile, 1988) while deviance has been defined as “a behaviour which result in pro-social or antisocial outcomes but does not result in creative outcomes”. According to some others creativity demands tolerance for deviance that's why creativity will low in work setting where conformity is an important value (Nemeth, 1986, 1997) and will be high in those work settings where there is tolerance for deviance (Staw, 1990, 1995; Plucker & Runco, 1999; March, 2007). Despite of the fact that it would be useful to test the relationship of creativity and deviance, however literature on creativity (Shalley & Zhou, 2008; George, 2007) and deviance (Warren, 2003) suggest that considerable attention has not be given to the to examine the interaction between the two.

Examination of the relationship of creativity and deviance is important because some its manifestations such as invention and damage/sabotage are not possible at the same time. However, after close examination some the manifestations of the relationship between creativity and deviance are closely related. Five examples can be considered in this case. The first mid-engine care (Pontiac's Fiero) was built after violating three management's order of not to build the prototype by the designer of the car (Pinchot, 1985). Similarly, the large electrostatic displays (which later on become the part of more than half instruments of Hewlett-Packard) were developed after violating David Packard's order of aborting the project, by the engineer of the electrostatic displays (Nemeth, 1997). The movie “The Godfather” which became a big hit when the director of the movie violated the instructions of Paramount about the cast, plot, location and budget of the movie (Lewis, 2000). The tape slitter machine which later on 3M (2002) indicated as an important process innovation, was developed by an engineer

who violated the management's order of stopping the research on tape slitter or you will lose the job. Similarly, LED lights, which converted into a multibillion dollar industry, was developed by a scientist who violated the order of CEO to immediately stop his research (Johnstone, 2007). It is generally observed that new ideas often go through various transitions and evolve in various phases. When an idea is proposed for the first time, most of the time it faces rejection because people perceive the idea as weird, risky, unworkable and inappropriate but later the same ideas produces such outcomes which society consider as breakthrough and useful (Staw, 1995). The five examples discussed above propose that deviance especially the violation of the orders from the management to stop working on new ideas proves to be helpful in transition from rejection to acceptance.

According to Mainemelis and Ronson (2006), response of encouragement, motivation and provision of resources from the organization flourishes the creativity of individuals. So not only the structural characteristics of the organization induce creativity but the rate of creativity is also dependent on the way organizations respond to creativity. According to Tenbrunsel & Messick (1999) organization's reactions to any act of deviance influence the rate of occurrence of the behaviour in the future. Imposition of sanctions on people violating the norms results in the enforcement of norms (Feldman, 1984). According to Merton (1968) social context also influence the normative enforcement. So if the organizations emphasis conformity more than creativity, then will not be able to create anything new and will sanction creative deviance. However, those organizations who give more importance to creativity then conformity, they will face a tough challenge. On one hand they may waste resources of the organization if could bnot successfully produce anything new, it may also hurt the organization by not sanctioning creative deviance. Moreover, organizational tolerate only those violations where there is potential of benefits for the firm (Lehman & Ramanujam, 2009).

2.18.2 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB) and employee innovative performance (EIP).

In the present dubious workplace, innovation endeavours are a higher priority than at any other time (Fuchs, 2011; Armenakis and Bedeian 1999). Appropriately, analysts declare, in concurrence with Kelley's considerations over, that the capacity of an employee to participate in practices related to innovation is crucial to organization success (Ng and Feldman, 2010). Employees assume an indispensable job in organizational innovation (Griffin, Neal and Parker, 2007). Taking charge is the one way through which they contribute. In their

fundamental study, Morrison and Phelps (1999) ask, 'What components persuade employees to cross the boundaries of their business to achieve productive change in their working environments' (p. 404). The creators characterize assuming taking charge as 'deliberate and useful endeavours, by employees, to impact organizational change concerning how work is performed (Morrison and Phelps, 1999, p. 403). They affirm that taking charge tends to the significance of workers giving proposals to change when organizational working isn't ideal.

Cheating the already established rules in the workplace or violating of the work routines sometimes improve the performance of employees. Creatively deviant employees know and understand the balance between maintaining the work routines and changing or modifying them when needed (Swimberghe et al., 2014; He and Wong, 2004). For example there can be situation in which any new information is received by front-line employees or which do not reach the top management or decision makers or when the routine response in such situation may not be adequate or may be too slow, that's why in such situations CDB can solve such problems and produces innovation (Pascale and Sternin, 2005; Galperin, 2012).

2.19 Employee creative performance and organizational performance.

Employee inattentiveness has been proved essential for the success of organization. However, according to Gilson (2008) studies on the connection between employee creativity and organizational performance is insufficient and regardless of the possible noteworthiness of employee creativity in various organizations, the connection has not pulled in a ton of research thought. In addition, according to the study of Von Nordenflycht (2007) and Harper and Becker (2004) results identified with the relationship between employee creativity and organizational performance just clarified immaterial change. However, in the studies of Amabile (1983) and (1996), a positive relationship of employee creativity and organizational performance just clarified immaterial change. However, in the studies of Amabile (1983) and (1996), a positive relationship of employee creativity and organizational performance has been reported specially, when representatives perform creatively at work, they make new musings that are important in performing the jobs waiting to be done.

Creative ideas may show up as changes of existing techniques or methodology to improve organizational proficiency. According to Shalley et al. (2004) employees may in like manner take up another, significant idea and implement it to enhance their very own work performance and hence, which consequently enhances the performance of the whole

organization. According to Deshpande et al. (1993), this proves that employee's creativity gives them advantage over their competitors and along these lines empowers an organization to prevail as far as various proportions of firm-level monetary performance. Similarly, organizations that show creative practices produce advantage over competitors and better performance (Woodman et al., 1993). According to Barney (1986) and Porter (1985), progress in money related performance of the organization was resulted due to having advantage over the competitors, for instance, revenue growth increases when any organization achieve competitive advantage over their competitors. In particular, un-deniable support on the effect of creativity on the revenue growth has been reported in the study of Von Nordenflycht (2007).

As far as the profit for return on assets and profit growth are concerned, the momentary cost of the organization can be enhanced due to creativity. Actualizing novel plans to current products and services might be costly and not produce constructive earnings for the organization. Though, after some time, innovative thoughts can possibly enhance revenue growth in organizations (Calori and Sarnin, 1991). Additionally, Geroski (2000) recommended that organizations will see an expansion of revenue growth while empowering creative behaviours.

Recent studies on deviance behaviours have emphasized the role of deviance behaviour for increasing creativity which is very important for improving the performance of the organization (Krau, 2008). Rather than just considering deviance as a harmful behaviour, it has also been viewed as a favourable behaviour for enhancing the creative performance of the employees and organizational performance because deviating from status quo and norms of the organization becomes sometimes necessary for creativity (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007).

Organization that support creative experience increment in profit growth, and in this manner organizational performance. Besides, Von Nordenflycht (2007) found a connection among creativity and organizational performance in 122 U.S. promoting offices deciding a positive, straight connection between employee creativity and firm performance. It is commonly contemplated that creativity brings about competitive difference which brings about firm-level performance. Furthermore, employee creativity can increase the value of organization, for the most part in beating difficulties and finding creative approaches to develop. Creative thoughts are great, however they should be exploited to get the full advantages. If an organization doesn't fully utilize and exploit creative ideas, it might be at a

competitive disadvantage (Wong and Ladkin, 2008). Exploitation of ideas implies giving inspiration and motivation. The creativity of employee may not result in considerable organizational performance without the existence of any motivation. Supervisors, for instance, may push their employees to enhance their inputs and efforts in bringing creativity in their work through the concept of transformational leadership (Gong, 2009). According to Tierney and Farmer (2004), it additionally gives creativity related exercises, initiate corrective actions and keeps up real creativity levels in the working environment and firms with extraordinary employee creativity perform superior to others that don't have (Tierney and Farmer, 2004).

Research has shown creativity of employees to be important for enhancing the performance of the organization. But research on this relationship despite of its importance is still very scanty and requires special attention (Gilson, 2008). The studies of Harper and Becker (2004) and Von Nordenflycht (2007) showed negligible variance in organizational performance due to employee creativity but the relationship between them is however positive. Display of creativity at work is very important for generation of new ideas for handling different task (Amabile, 1983, 1996). Various studies have shown very little variance in firm performance due to employee creativity (Von Nordenflycht, 2007) however, these studies found positive association among employee creativity and organizational performance. According to Amabile (1983) displaying creativity in the workplace create new ideas for performing tasks. Creative ideas related to making new processes or procedures for performing various tasks in the organization or related to products or services help the employees to meet the needs of customers much better (Zhou, 1998; Zhou & Shalley, 2003). Amendments in the existing processes or procedures for enhancing the organization efficiency can also be considered as creativity. A fresh useful idea can also be used by employees to improve the work they are doing (Shalley et al., 2004) which consequently enhances the performance of the entire organization.

According to Deshpande et al. (1993) creativity gives organizations the competitive advantage over their competitors and helps the organizations win in terms of financial performance of the organization. Moreover, Woodman et al. (1993) also argued that creative behaviours gives competitive advantage to organizations and enhances the performance of the organization. In support of the positive association among competitive advantage and financial performance, various studies have reported that competitive advantage enhances the financial performance of the organization such as growth in revenue (Porter, 1985; Barney, 1986) and

the study of Von Nordenflycht (2007) has provided uncertain empirical support for the association of creativity and revenue growth rates. Because creativity may become the reason of increasing the short-term cost of the organization. Especially changing or modifying the existing products or services can be very costly and may not produce considerable return for the organization. Nevertheless, in the long run, creativity can increase the profit growth of the organizations (Calori and Sarnin, 1991).

According to Geroski (2000), encouraging creative behaviours may lead to increase in the profit growth of the organization. Hence, those organizations which encourage creative behaviours will experience increase in their profit growth and consequently in organizational performance. A general logic is being presented that creativity leads to competitive differentiation which consequently enhances the organizational performance. Creativity can also help the organizations in fighting challenges and creating ideas for its growth. Creative ideas but needs to get the best out of it and to be exploited to the best. According to Wong and Ladkin (2008) less or no exploitation of creative ideas may result in competitive disadvantage for such organizations. The meaning of exploiting ideas means motivation which results in increase in individual performance and eventually in organizational performance. For example, according to Gong et al. (2009), employees can be motivated through transformational leadership to inspire them and get maximum benefit from creativity. Such leadership provides activities and actions that are creative and enhances the employee's level of creativity which results in increase in performance (Tierney & Farmer, 2004).

2.20 Employee innovative performance (EIP) and perceived organizational performance (POP).

According to the studies of Zahra, de Belardino and Box (1988), Khan and Manopichetwattana (1989), Damanpour, Zsabat and Evan (1989), Damanpour and Evan (1984), innovation being an important aspect of the management, it has been associated with organizational performance. All these studies have reported that innovation has very significantly strong relationship with organizational performance and proved that the performance of the organization can be increased by bringing innovation in the organization. As it is confirm by reports of profits on innovation representing half or a greater amount of business income (Kotler 1991). Innovation is getting progressively significant day by day as a method for endurance, not only development, even with strengthening rivalry and ecological vulnerability (Gronhaug and Kaufmann, 1988). According to the study of Subramanian and

Nilakanta (1996), innovative performance and organizational performance are positively related and that innovativeness improves organizational performance. Krau (2008) emphasized the importance of deviance behaviours for enhancing the creative performance which then leads to enhanced organizational performance. Deviant behaviours of employees have been viewed as a beneficial behaviour rather than just a destructive behaviour for enhancing the creative performance of the employees and the organization because for creative performance individuals often need to violate the norms of the organization (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007).

2.21 Moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological empowerment and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)

As collectivists emphatically adopt the norms and values of the organizational and consider following these values and norms as their obligation. Further, collectivists underscore agreeable relational connections inside the group (Kim et al., 1994) and don't like to separate their selves from the rest of the group members by winning competition (Kitayama, Markus, and Lieberman, 1995). So there is possibility of a negative relationship of collectivist orientation with CDB because CDB are against the policies and norms of the organization. But, some studies suggest positive relationship between collective orientations with some of the constructs of CDB. For example, according to Cho and Faerman (2010) collectivist orientation has a positive relationship with extra-role behaviours because cultural contexts affect extra-role behaviour (Paine and Organ 2000). Cho and Faerman (2010) and also established the moderating role of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological empowerment and extra-role behaviours. The study of Organ et al (2006) support the result of the study of Cho and Faerman (2010) and recommended OCB as a desirable part of the organizations where there is collectivistic culture. Similarly, according to Love and Dustin (2014) collectivist orientation has positive relation with taking charge.

So it is desirable to test the moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological empowerment and CDB. The studies of Paine and Organ (2000) and Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) reported the impact of cultural difference on the extra-role behaviours and have found a significantly positive relationship of societal collectivism with extra-role behaviours. If we talk about collectivism at the organizational level, it is expected that extra-role behaviours would be encouraged, supported and enhanced due to the collectivistic culture of the organization.

2.22 Moderating role of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological ownership and constructive deviance behaviours (CDB)

The relationship of psychological ownership with CDB is moderated by the collectivistic orientation of the organization. Many studies, such as the study of Moorman and Blakely (1995) has contended that those who having strong orientation towards collectivism will possibly involve in behaviours (such as OCB) which are for the wellbeing of the organization and do not engage in CDB that go against the wellbeing of the organization on the grounds that useful CDB isn't in compatibility with hierarchical approaches and standards. Collectivists unequivocally grasp the values and norms of the organization and consider following these values and norms as an obligation. Moreover, as mentioned earlier that according to Kim et al (1994) and Kitaya, Markus, Lieberman (1995), individuals having collectivistic orientation prefer to take side with the organization and do not separate their selves from the rest of the group members by competing against them. Collectivist orientation negatively moderates the connexion of psychological ownership with CDB and reduces the strength of their relationship because individuals with collectivist orientation follow the norms and values of the organization and that's why do not take part in CDB.

Despite what might be expected, individualists are bound to take part in practices that may benefit themselves because of their inspiration to fulfill their very own personal matters and prompt delight of requirements. Individualists focus on individual results and give importance to perceive diversity, achievement, autonomy and competitiveness (Eisenhardt & Tabrizi, 1995). Moreover, according to the study of Sosik and Jung (2002), the effectiveness of the group can be improved through functional heterogeneity. Similarly, the study of Kim and Markus (1999) established that since congruity is related with agreement to the norms and values of the organization which is a characteristic of a collectivistic culture that's why it will not result in deviant behaviours while uniqueness can be considered as deviant behaviours.

It is less likely for individuals with collectivistic orientation to exhibit behaviours which violates the norms and policies of the organization; however, there are more chances of individualistic employees to get involved in those behaviours which are for the wellbeing of the orrganization such as OCB (Van Dyne, Vanderwelle, Kostova, Latham & Cummings, 2000). Individuals with collectivistic orientation strongly follow the policies, values and norms of the organization and consider following the norms and policies of the organization as their duty and obligation. Moreover, individuals having collectivist orientation like harmonious

interpersonal relationship with other members of the group (Kim et al., 1994) and do not separate themselves from the group through acts of winning the competition and achievement (Kitayama, Markus & Liebermanm 1995). Collectivist orientation reduces the relationship of psychological ownership with CDB, because collectivists hold the values of organization as their own and do not prefer to exhibit CDB. In contrast to this, individualist having individual orientation engage in those behaviours that benefit their own self because they prefer to satisfy their own personal self-interests. Individuals having individualistic orientation give importance to competition, achievement, autonomy, uniqueness, multiple ideas for solving problems and personal outcomes (Eisenhardt & Tabrizi, 1995).

2.23 Theoretical Framework

The following theoretical framework as shown in Figure 1, has been developed on the basis of the above extensive literature review. The theoretical framework of the study shows P-O FIT, Self-esteem, Extraversion, RTP, Proactive Personality and GSE as antecedents of CDB, Psychological Ownership and Psychological Empowerment as mediating variables while ECP, EIP and POP as consequences of CDB. Employee Creative Performance and Employee Innovative Performance have also been used as a mediating variables between the relationship of Constructive Deviance Behaviours and Perceived Organizational Performance. Psychological ownership has been used as a mediating variable between P-O FIT, while Psychological Empowerment has been used as a mediating variable between Employee Characteristics (Self-esteem, Extraversion, RTP, and GSE) and CDB.

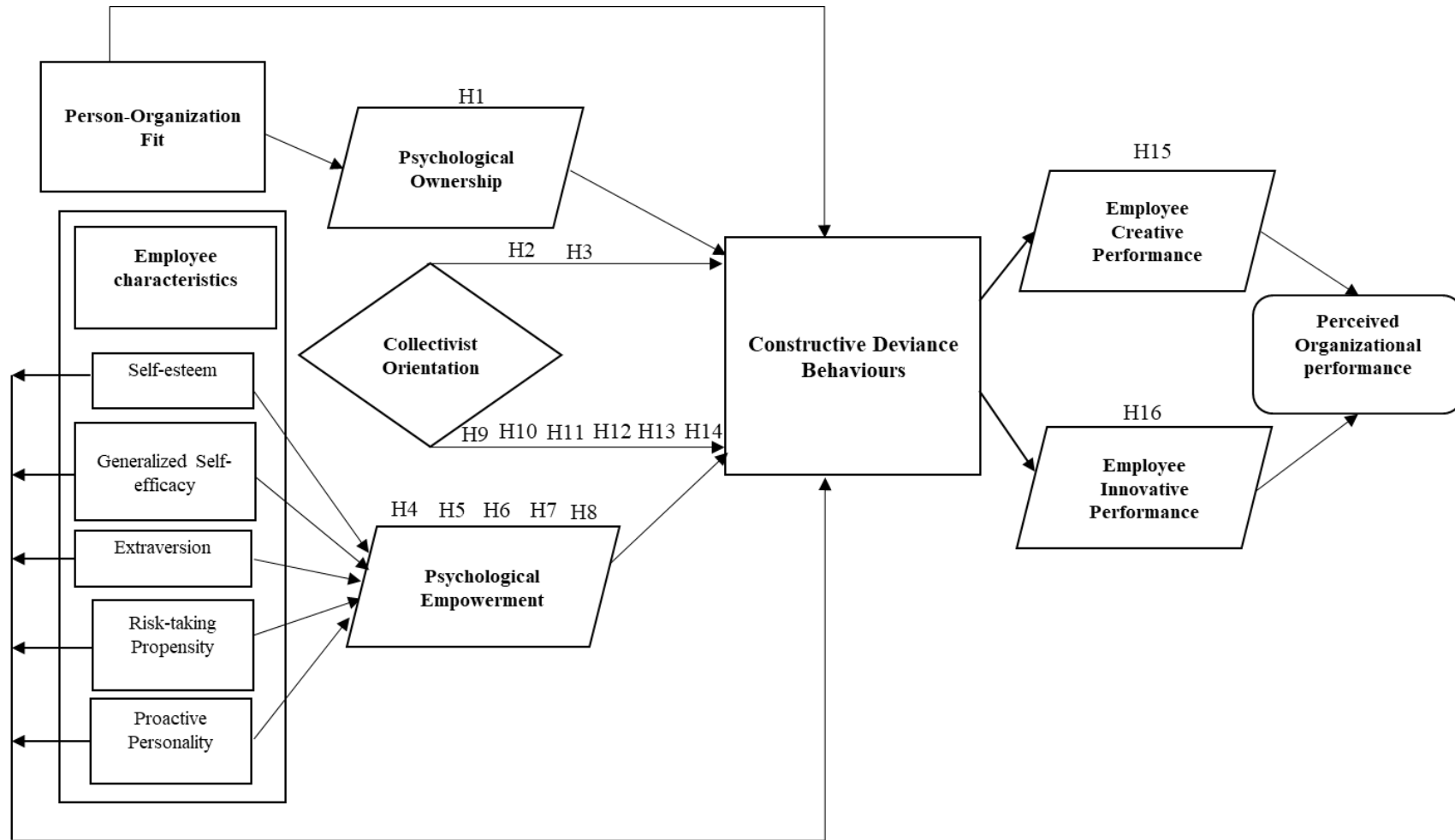


Figure 1. Theoretical Framework

2.24 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses have been developed to test the relationships among the variables shown in the theoretical framework of the study.

H1: Psychological Ownership mediates between P-O Fit and CDB.

H2: Collectivist Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Ownership and CDB.

H3: Collectivist orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of psychological ownership between P-O fit and CDB.

H4: Psychological Empowerment mediates between GSE and CDB.

H5: Psychological Empowerment mediates between Self-Esteem and CDB.

H6: Psychological Empowerment mediates between RTP and CDB.

H7: Psychological Empowerment mediates between Extraversion and CDB.

H8: Psychological Empowerment mediates between Proactive Personality and CDB.

H9: Collective Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Empowerment and CDB.

H10: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between GSE and CDB.

H11: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Self-Esteem and CDB.

H12: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between RTP and CDB.

H13: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Extraversion and CDB.

H14: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Proactive Personality and CDB.

H15: ECP mediates between CDB and POP.

H16: EIP mediates between CDB and POP.

Chapter 3

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is based on the plan of conducting the research to achieve the objectives of the study. The aspects related to methodology covered in this chapter includes research philosophy, research design, population and sample size, sampling technique, unit of analysis, Research instrument, operational definitions of variables, pilot testing results showing reliability of instrument, discussion on self-report data, Data analysis tools and the software used for statistical examination of the collected data. In the end interference of researcher and research ethics have been discussed.

3.2 Research Philosophy

In this study the “positivist” research philosophy has been adopted in order to gather empirical data on evidence related to our proposed hypothesis. A well-structured methodology has been used to test the hypothesis for possible rejection or acceptance. Social science research is based on data collection and drawing of hypotheses. These hypotheses are then tested and confirmed before drawing conclusions and further research. As the work of natural scientists is mostly based on social entities, their philosophical approach is therefore, observed in positivism. To facilitate the hypothesis, social scientists follow highly structured methodologies and conduct rigorous statistical analysis of quantifiable data. Thus, experimentation is key characteristic of the positivist methodology of research in which the approach towards data analysis is deductive i.e. hypotheses are drawn in a question or propositional form about different phenomena and the relationship between them. Then, the relevant data is collected and analysed statistically. Subsequently, the hypothesis is either rejected or accepted and conclusions are drawn in explains the effect of independent variable on the dependent variable.

However, a robust theory must withstand efforts to refute it as in the real or social world, a large number of factors could lead to variable effects. In order to exclude the effects of other variables, positivist researchers control extraneous variables by subjecting two or more groups of variables to the same treatments under the same conditions with only difference being the independent variable. A good quality positivist approach generates research with four characteristics i.e. internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity. Elimination of

extraneous variables and their effects grants internal validity to experiments and therefore, the findings are generalizable and has external validity. Once, researchers from other parts of the world arrive at the same results by repeating the same experiments, it means the original findings are reliable and if researchers study phenomena without contaminating their apprehension, the results are considered to be objective.

Consequently, positivist philosophy adheres to the view that only “factual” knowledge is trustworthy as it is gained through experimentation, observations (through senses), measurements, evidence and rigorous statistical analysis of quantifiable observations.

3.3 Research Design

The study was intended to test the developed hypothesis, analyse the quantitative data gathered to establish causal relationships between variables and to contribute in the existing body of knowledge in the area of CDB. The nature of the study was cross-sectional and the data were collected once to test the hypothesis of the study. Though many classifications of research methods are present but quantitative and quality research methods are the most used and dominating methods.

3.3.1 Quantitative method

Quantitative method is based on positivistic approach which emphasizes the role of observation and experimentation for knowledge acquisition that's why it's a scientific method (Grinnell & Unrau, 2010). This method focuses on collection of data from a large populations and the analyzing the collected data, however it does not give importance to the feelings and emotions of a single person and ignores environmental context.

3.4 Population and sample size

All people or items that a scholar wants to understand is called as “Population” while the process of drawing or selecting a part or segment from the population is called as “Sampling” for investigation of the population. Sampling is a process in which a sample of units is selected or drawn from a data set to understand the characteristics, attitude and belief of the people included in the sample (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003). Structured questionnaire is used in sampling survey to evaluate the beliefs and attitude of people. The data collected through the structured questionnaire can be the subset of the selected population. According to Malhotra and Birks (2007) a smaller group of population can be the representative

of a large population. Studying the whole pollution is not easy and need a lot of efforts, money and time, that's the sampling is beneficial for reducing the effort, time and money. According to Cooper, Schindler, & Sun (2006) sampling has many benefits among most important are the cost efficiency, result accuracy and speedy data collection. The selection of the method of sampling is dependent on the type of the research study. However, the selection of sampling method includes various theoretical and practical problems. The probability and non-probability are the two major types of sampling techniques.

3.5 Population and Sample of the Study

The population frame of the study includes the employees of software houses of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. The population of the study was selected on the premise that employees related to software engineering, web-designing, computer graphics and animations, computer equipment; internet web page design etc. needs to be innovative, creative and flexible. Moreover, taking charge, extra role behaviours and other CDB are expected from them. Yıldız, Alphan, Ates & Sezen (2015) also suggested that data should be collected from IT sector employees where flexibility, creativity, innovativeness and CDB are required.

According to Sekaran (2003), sample size of the study should be 10 times or more the number of variables included in the study. Therefore, sample size of the study was 561 which were received out of the total 600 distributed questionnaires at a response rate of 93%.

3.6 Unit of analysis

The unit of analysis was individuals i.e. employees of the software houses/companies.

3.7 Sampling technique

The total population of the study was the IT companies i.e. software companies/houses of Islamabad and Rawalpindi. Software companies were selected from five technology parks located in Islamabad and Rawalpindi (which are named as: KSL software technology park, Awami markaz software technology park, Rose centre software technology park and Meridian software technology park) and from companies registered on Pakistan Software Export Board (PSEB). Convenience sampling technique was used to collect data from employees working in the selected software houses. **The rationale behind using convenience sampling is the unwillingness of respondents to participate, geographical proximity, easy availability and easy**

accessibility of the target population because it is very difficult to include all the subjects of a very big population of software industry.

3.8 Research Questionnaire/Instruments of variables

3.8.1 Constructive deviance behaviours (CDB).

CDB is estimated using a nine-item scale as proposed by Galperin (2012). An example item of the study was “Bent a rule to satisfy a customer’s needs”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.2 Person-Organization Fit (P-O FIT).

We estimated the P-O fit using a three-item scale as given by Valentine et.al (2002). An example item of the study was “I feel that my personal values are good fit with this organization”. Responses of the respondents were taken on a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.3 Self-esteem.

Self-esteem was estimated using a three-item scale adopted from Rosenberg (1965). An example item of the study was “On the whole, I am satisfied with myself”. Responses of the respondents were taken on a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.4 Extraversion.

Extraversion was estimated using a seven-item scale adopted from Goldberg (1990). An example item of the study was “Talk to a lot of different people at parties”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.5 Generalized Self-Efficacy (GSE).

GSE was estimated using a scale of four-items adopted from Gully & Edin (2001). An example item of the study was “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.6 Proactive Personality.

Proactive Personality was estimated using a scale of five-item adopted from Crant & Kraimer (1999). An example item of the study was “I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life”. Responses of the respondents were taken on a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.7 Risk-taking Propensity (RTP).

RTP was estimated using a scale of four-items adopted from Meertens & Lion (2008). An example item of the study was “I do not take risks with my health. R.”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.8 Psychological Empowerment.

Psychological Empowerment was estimated using a scale of six-items (Spreitzer 1995). An example item of the study was “The work I do is very important to me”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.9 Psychological Ownership.

Psychological Ownership was estimated using a scale of seven-items (Van Dyne & Pierce 2004). An example item of the study was “This is MY organization”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.10 Collectivist Orientation.

A seven items scale of collectivist orientation has been adapted from Robert and Wasti (2002). A sample item of the scale was “Employees are taken care of like members of a family”.

3.8.11 Employee Creative Performance (ECP).

ECP was estimated using a scale of four-items adopted from Zhou & George (2001). An example item of the study was “Suggest new ways to achieve goals or objectives”. Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.12 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP).

EIP was estimated using a scale of six-items (adopted from Janssen 2001). An example item of the study was “Creating new ideas for improvements”. Responses of the respondents were taken on a 7-point likert scale.

3.8.13 Perceived Organizational Performance.

Perceived Organizational Performance was estimated using a scale of six-items as proposed by Delaney & Huselid (1996). An example item of the study was “Quality of

products, services or programs?” Responses of the respondents were collected through a 7-point likert scale.

3.9 Operational definition of variables

The operation definition of variable is a statement which precisely state that how that variable is going to be estimated in the present study and also clearly state the elements involved in defining and measuring the variable. The variables used in the study are operationalized as follows

3.9.1 Constructive Deviance Behaviours (CDB).

Galperin (2003) defined CDB as “voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in doing so contributes to the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (p. 158).

3.9.2 Person-Organization fit (P-O FIT).

According to Kristof (1996), P-O fit is defined as “the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both”.

3.9.3 Psychological Ownership.

Psychological ownership has been defined as “the psychologically experienced phenomenon in which an employee develops possessive feelings for the target (van dyne & pierce, 2004) or feels as though an object, entity or idea is ‘MINE’ or ‘OURS’” (Furbury, 1978).

3.9.4 Self-Esteem.

Rosenberg, (1965) defined self-esteem as “the overall affective evaluation of one’s own worth, value, or importance, or to how one *feels* about oneself as a person.”

3.9.5 Generalized Self-efficacy (GSE).

The study has adopted the GSE’s definition of Gully et.al. (2001) which states that General Self-Efficacy relates to “one’s estimate of one’s overall ability to perform successfully in a wide variety of achievement situations, or to how *confident* one is that she or he can perform effectively across different tasks and situations”.

3.9.6 Risk-taking Propensity.

Chye Koh (1996) defined this construct as “his/her orientation towards taking chances in uncertain decision-making contexts”.

3.9.7 Proactive Personality.

“People with proactive personality are described as being relatively unconstrained by situational forces and have a great effect on changing the environment” (Bateman & Crant, 1993).

3.9.8 Extraversion.

Extraversion is defined as “the degree to which individuals are sociable, assertive and gregarious versus quiet, timid and reserved” (Barrick & Mount, 1991).

3.9.9 Psychological Empowerment.

Psychological empowerment is defined as “the way individuals see themselves in regard to their task environment (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) on the basis of Meaning(alignment of one’s own work role with one beliefs, values and standards), self-determination (one’s sense of choice about the regulation of one’s actions), competence(belief about one’s capability to successfully perform the work) and Impact(one’s belief about his/her influence on work activities and outcomes in one’s work unit)”.

3.9.10 Employee Innovative Performance (EIP).

According to Janssen, (2001), “Employee Innovation has been defined as “the intentional creation, introduction, and application of new ideas within a work role, group, or organization, in order to benefit role performance, the group, or the organization” (p. 202). Thus, the concept of innovation contains both creativity (i.e., the introduction of new ideas) and the implementation of these ideas into applications of benefit.

3.9.11 Employee Creative Performance (ECP).

The contemporary definition of creativity basically includes two characteristics: novelty and usefulness. Amabile (1997) defined creativity as “the generation of novel and potentially useful ideas about organizational products, practices, or procedures”.

There is a difference between creativity, creativity is the creation of novel ideas while innovation is the application of these creative ideas i.e. innovation bring creative ideas in to life. Therefore, creativity can be considered as the starting point of innovation.

3.9.12 Collectivist Orientation.

Collectivist orientation is “the extent to which an organization has a Collective/shared objectives and interests, cooperative behaviours, and group-based rewards” (Cox, Lobel, and McLeod 1991; Triandis 1989).

3.9.13 Perceived Organization Performance.

According to Lebars & Euske (2006: p. 71) “Performance is a set of financial and nonfinancial indicators which offer information on the degree of achievement of objectives and results”.

3.10 Pilot testing results

The researcher selected a sample of 60 employees working in different software houses were randomly selected for conducting the pilot study. Of the 60 employees, a total of 47 representing a response rate of 78% completed the questionnaire and returned it back to the researcher. The consistency and stability of results of an instrument or measure can be predicted by the reliability of the measure (Sekaran, 2006) which can be estimated through computing the Cronbach’s alpha. The method of internal consistency reliability confirms that the answers of all the respondent to all the items of the instrument are consistent and that the items are the measuring the same concept (Sekaran, 2006). The more the value of Cronbach’s alpha of a measure is closer to 1, the more the measure is reliable (Burns & Bush, 2001; Sekaran, 2006), while the lower acceptable limit of reliability is 6.0 (Haier et al., 2006). The Cronbach’s alphas values of the measure of the pilot study were ranged from 0.70 to 0.93 which confirmed the usability of the instrument for data collection.

Table. Cronbach’s Alpha

S/No	Construct	Cronbach’s Alpha	Number of Items
1	Constructive deviance behaviours	0.93	9
2	Person-Organization Fit	0.81	4
3	Psychological Ownership	0.72	7
4	Self-Esteem	0.83	10

5	Extraversion	0.87	10
6	Proactive Personality	0.81	10
7	Generalized Self-Efficacy	0.76	8
8	Collectivist Orientation	0.72	7
9	Psychological Empowerment	0.81	12
10	Risk-taking Propensity	0.73	7
11	Employee Creative Performance	0.77	13
12	Employee Innovative Performance	0.89	9
13	Perceptions of Organizational Performance	0.79	11

3.11 Self-report data

According to Spector (1987) collecting data from participants through a self-report data can lead to biasness in the data set, which can be identified through very high correlation among the variables involved in the study. Though biases in the data cannot be ignored and a concern for the researchers (Doty & Glick, 1998) but in this study it does not mean that findings of the study are biased due to self-report data because measuring deviance behaviours through self-report data is best and a recommended method (Bowling & Echlesman, 2010) because only the respondent will know about his deviant behaviour because employees usually do not perform deviant behaviours in front of his colleagues or supervisor.

3.12 Software used for analysis of data

The “Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS)” 20th edition has been used for demographic and descriptive analysis covering frequency distribution, mean, standard deviation, normality of data, linearity of relationships. AMOS (Analysis of a Moment Structure) has been used for SEM that includes techniques like confirmatory factor analysis, measurement models, structural models, path models and the model fitness of the models. However, “Process” software developed by Hayes (2017) has been used for conditional process analysis (moderated mediation analysis).

3.13 Statistical techniques

Various different statistical techniques have been used to analyse the data collected which includes demographic statistics, descriptive statistics and SEM.

3.14 Demographic statistics

Demographic statistics such as Gender, Age, Occupation level and Qualification have been used to analyse the demographic characteristics of the sample data. The frequencies and the percentage dispersion of the respondents across the demographic variables have been calculated.

3.15 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics such as arithmetic mean frequency distribution and standard deviation have been used to analyse the pattern of responses. Descriptive statistics is the basis for further analysis and should be done at the start of the analysis (Burns & Bush, 2001).

3.16 Structural Equation Modelling

SEM technique has been widely used in many disciplines such as economics, sociology, psychology, management, tourism, marketing, cross-cultural and environmental studies since it covers many types of models such as confirmatory factor analysis, latent variable analysis and covariance structure analysis (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007).

Among many other statistical tools for testing the hypothesized relationships, SEM has become very famous and has been used in many disciplines for empirically testing the relationships between variables in the model. Among other multivariate techniques, the functions of SEM have been found to be better such as multiple regression, factor analysis, and path analysis. Although other multivariate analysis are better in testing single relationships between independent and dependent variables, but human behavioural issues are complex and sometimes dependent variable may act like an independent variable for other dependent variable for which SEM can be used. Therefore, SEM helps in handling complex behavioural issues by testing a series of dependence relationships at the same time. According to Hair et al. (1998), SEM has been encouraged because of its ability to its statistical efficiency of testing models with a single comprehensive method and due to its ability to expand the explanatory ability. Due to usefulness of SEM in making measurement and structural models, new researchers are attracted towards it. Some statistical software packages which are user-friendly such as AMOS and LISREL further makes SEM more popular. Many of the researchers have not used SEM, even they may have read about the concept of SEM in many books related to quantitative analysis. The possible reason behind this can be the different approaches through which SEM can possibly be used. For example, Anderson and Gerbing (1998) used a step

approach for SEM to test structural models. While Chau (1997) have used another approach by first specifying the measurement model for all the independent variables and then testing the four revised structural models. Many of the researchers are unaware of which approach to use despite of the fact that some approaches to SEM are more popular than others.

As a multivariate technique SEM has the capability to test multiple interdependent relationships between various latent constructs (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). SEM has dominated all the other multivariate techniques and is doing extensions and refinements (Hershberger, 2003). According to Reisinger and Mavondo (2007), Schumacker and Lomax stated the nature and magnitude of the hypothesized dependence relationships can be examined with the help of SEM and it can also be used for the simultaneous assessment of the direct and indirect relationships. According to Reisinger and Mavondo (2007), the application of SEM in many other discipline such as sociology, economics, environmental studies, psychology, marketing, management studies and tourism has made it more important. Due to this SEM has been recognized widely among researchers. Many researchers such as Cheng (2001), Tracy et al. (2001), Chaiburu and Marinova (2006), D'Netto et al. (2008), Bulut and Culha (2010) and Dastgeer and Rehman (2012) have used SEM in the field of management and have emphasized the importance of advantages of using SEM for research.

3.16.1 Assumptions of “Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)”.

Before undertaking the analyses of the hypothesized model, certain assumptions must be met. These assumptions are: (1) all the relationships in the model should be linear; (2) variance should be homogenous which is called as homoscedasticity; (3) the residuals should be distributed normally which means there should be no issue of multicollinearity; (4) there should be no skewness or kurtosis in the data; (5) there should be no outliers; (6) data should be estimated on ratio or interval scale; (7) the size of the sample should be five times more than the number of independent variables in the model; (8) there should be no problem of discriminant validity; (9) the sampling technique should be random; and (10) errors should be correlated to each other or to latent variables.

3.16.2 Benefits of “Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)”.

The basic purpose of SEM is to analyse and test the connections between latent constructs and their estimated variables. SEM uses linear regression, confirmatory factor analysis, estimation of variance and covariance and assessment of model fitness to the data.

SEM allows for developing alternative models which can be used depending on the results and fitness of the model. SEM can also be used for the analysis of complex models having several independent and dependent variables, can test such relationships simultaneously and can determine whether confirmatory factor analysis of data taken from different populations results in the same factor structure. SEM is a more powerful technique from other multivariate analysis techniques because of its ability to test multiple relationships simultaneously while other techniques can examine only one relationship at a time (Hair et al., 2002). Other than this, the technique of SEM can be used to examine the direct and indirect relationships between variables and the magnitude and direction of the relationships at the same time (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Path coefficient or structure coefficient can be used to measure the direct effects. Variance in the dependent variable due to change in independent is represented the value of beta. However, when any other variable mediates between the independent variable and the dependent variable, its values are also represented by beta and indicates how much dependent variable changes due to change in independent variable through a mediating variable. Then by adding the direct and indirect effects are added to calculate the total effects. The chosen specific statistical technique depends on what the data demands and the researchers must have the required basic knowledge of the particular technique. Apart from the basic knowledge, the researcher should have prior SEM technical analysis, analysis of measurement model, structural model and model specification. This means that the researcher should have the knowledge of the characteristics of the data and the assumptions of the SEM. The analysis of the data is a time consuming activity but crucially important for the understanding of the data and the relationships between variables. Most of the researchers overlook the importance of data analysis before the using SEM. For example, often researchers have been observed to be using small size i.e. less than 100 in SEM studies and does not discuss the whether the data is sufficient enough to run SEM or not. Similarly, it has also been observed that researcher do not include discussion on the basic assumptions of data normality, linearity of relationships, multicollinearity or outliers (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow, & King, 2006).

Similarly before undertaking the analysis of the model, the researchers should first specify their model. A combination of quantitative results and theoretical inferences from other studies guides the researcher in the specification of the model (Hox & Bechger, 1998). In analysis of the measurement model, the relationships between latent variables and observed variables are determined. The analysis of the measurement model is a must before the determination of the associations among the constructs of the model (Cheng, 2001; Anderson

& Gerbing, 1988). The analysis of measurement model is to check whether the measurement instrument is valid. So a wrong specification of the model or missing any important step can result in many problems in further analysis of SEM model. According to Schreiber et al. (2006) after the study of various studies that used SEM methodology. For example in area of human resource management and management, studies of Chaiburu and Marinova (2006), D'Netto, Bakas, and Bordia, (2008), Dastgeer and Rehman (2012) used methodology of SEM in which various steps were missed during the specification and estimation of the measurement model. Schreiber et al. (2006) further argued and criticized that many researchers are unaware about the estimation and specification of the measurement model.

3.16.3 Approaches to Structure Equation Modelling (SEM).

SEM as a procedure is a confirmatory rather than exploratory and uses one of the three approaches (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). I.e. strictly confirmatory approach, model development approach and alternative models approach. In the confirmatory approach, variance in the data set is determined to check when the data fits the proposed model by testing the SEM goodness of fit indices. In model development approach, both the confirmatory and exploratory analysis are combined. First the model is tested to check the acceptability of the model. If the model is found to be unacceptable, on the basis of modification indices, an alternative model is developed. After applying the strategy of cross-validation, a model is developed and then validated on an independent sample for validation. In the alternative models approach, the model fitness of various different causal models are tested and a best fit model is proposed at the end (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007).

3.16.4 Specifying the Measurement and Path Model.

The specification of the model is considered as the most important as well as difficult step as all other steps of the analysis follows from it. Model specification is very important for determination of the association among latent variables. Following are the steps of specification of path and measurement model.

i. Size of Path model

In SEM, the first step is the development of theoretical model and then converting it a path model that shows the relationships between variable or constructs. The no of causal relationships between variables can be determined from the path diagram. But the most crucial question is about the number of variables or constructs in a path diagram. According to Hair et

al. (2006) there is no specific limit as to how many variables should be used in a model, however, a number of variables incorporated in the model should be according to the limitations for the SEM. The practical limitations of SEM is about the interpretation of the results when the number of variables or constructs incorporated in the model are too high. The interpretation of results becomes more difficult and complex with the increase in the number of variables in the model. Secondly, achieving statistical significance of the relations becomes more and more difficult. However, researchers are not allowed to arbitrarily delete any variable from the model to decrease the number of variables. According to Haier et al. (2006), just because the number of variables incorporated in the model, researchers should no remove any variable rather should use concise and parsimonious theoretical models.

ii. Specifying the measurement model (Determination of the number of indicators).

In SEM, a path diagram shows the number of constructs and the different types of relationships among these constructs, researchers need to determine the indicators of these constructs. Hair et al. in 2006 described that a construct can have only one indicator but can lead to problems in estimating the reliability of the instrument because generally a single indicator/variable cannot offer an adequate representation of the at construct. So it's better to have more than one indicators for constructs. According to Resinger and Mavondo (2006) and Hair et al. (2006), the suggested the minimum number of factors or variables for a construct is three. Moreover, according to Hair et al. (2006) maximum of the constructs should have five to seven variables/indicators.

3.16.5 Technical Analysis before SEM

3.16.5.1 Sample size

Just like in any other statistical technique, sample size plays are very important and crucial role in the estimation of the results, sampling error and in the interpretation of results (Hair et al., 2006). Sample size is very essential for achieving the fitness of the measure (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007). According to Schreiber et al. (2006), Hair et al. (2006) and Reisinger and Mavondo (2007) though a standard sample size required for SEM has not been set however the number of sample size should at-least be greater than the total number of relationships in the input data matrix. Moreover, these researchers recommended to have sample size with a ratio of minimum five respondents for every parameter to be estimated,

however, a ratio of ten respondents for each parameter would be most appropriate. Small sizes in SEM can lead to problems. The more the complexity of the model increases, requirement of the sample size increases (Schreiber et al., 2006). Complex models having many constructs and many relationships require large sample size for estimation. According to Hair et al. (2006), for the use of Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) a sample size of 100 to 200 is recommended, however a sample size of 200 is more suitable and appropriate.

3.16.5.2 Statistical assumptions and outliers

SEM, like other technique for multivariate analysis, has various fundamental assumptions which should be satisfied to insure correct inferences. Assumptions such as random sampling, independent observations, data normality (no skewness or kurtosis), linearity of relationships, discriminant validity, no outliers and use of ration or interval scale are some of the major assumptions (Reisinger & Mavondo, 2007; Hair et al., 2006). According to Hair et al. (2006) data is normally drawn from a normal populations and non-normal data can result in invalid statistical tests. Similarly outliers can also result in distorted statistical results, that's why the determination of the possible outliers is very important and be removed before the data set is being used for the SEM. According to Hair et al. (2006) Outliers have a unique distribution of characteristics which are identifiably different from the rest of the observations. Hence it is strongly recommended that the researchers must take all the necessary steps regarding the normality and fitness of data before it is being used for the analysis.

3.16.5.3 Missing Data

Apart from other statistical assumptions, the assumption of no missing data has a critical importance for the correctness of the statistical results. In SEM missing data can have a considerable effect on the overall estimation process (Hair et al., 2006; Carter, 2006). SEM does not support missing data and requires a complete data set. There are various solutions to the problem of missing data. One method is deleting the incomplete cases from the data set (Carter, 2006) by deleting the complete indicator or variable from the data sheet having missing data. The other method to deal with the problem of missing data is "Imputation" in which the researcher puts expected values in the location of missing data in the data sheet (Carter, 2006). No single method can be considered as the best method to solve the problem of missing data as every method has its own pros and cons, however the researchers should use a variety of methods to check the plausibility of results. Resinger and Mavondo (2007) suggested that the

researchers should identify the extent to which the missing data can be of no issue and should describe different techniques for solving the problem of missing data.

3.16.5.4 Reliability

The reliability of an instrument has been defined by Sekaran (2006) as “an indication of consistency and stability”. Internal consistency-method is the most common method used for testing the reliability of the instrument which uses cronbach’s alpha values. The method of internal consistency check the consistency among the answers of the respondents to each item of an instrument and confirms that the all the items are independent measures of the same construct as described by Sekaran in 2006. If any indicator has extremely low internal consistency of low cronbach’s alpha value, it has to be deleted from the measure (Cheng, 2001). According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the acceptable threshold value for the establishment of reliability of a measure is to have cronbach’s apla value of 0.70.

3.16.5.5 Unidimensionality

The concept of unidimensionality is same as the concept of reliability. According to Hair et al. (2006) unidimensionality is the characteristic of a set of indicators which has only one underlying concept or trait in common. Hair et al. (2006) recommended performing tests related to unidimensionality on all the construct having many indicators for proceeding to SEM analysis. Principle components analysis is used to check the unidimensionality of the scale. The eigen values generated through principle component analysis is used to check the unidimensionality of the scale. According to Hoe (2008) to establish the unidimensionality of a scale, the eigen values should be greater than one. Hall et al. (1999) recommended to have a rationale review of the contents of all the items to determine items that are same or alike, and then after review of the contents principle components analysis should be used to check the unidimensionality of the scale.

3.16.5.5 Estimation of the Measurement Model.

To estimate the validity of a measurement model, two different was been recommended by Cheng (2001). Either measure of each construct be tested separately or all the measures be tested simultaneously at one time. However, the second method in which all the measures are tested simultaneously is better as recommended by Cheng (2001).

3.16.5.7 Determination of Offending Estimates.

Examination of the offending estimates is a must before the estimation of a measurement model. Offending estimates are the values that exceed its theoretical limits (Hair et al., 2006). Correcting or removal of the inconsistent estimates is very important before the estimation of the relationships among variables and then interpreting the results. In case of unreliable construct or a construct that does not measure its underlying construct, Cheng (2001) recommended the modification of the model in such case. For modification of the model, deletion of the offending estimate is required. Below are the major types of offending estimates.

3.16.5.8 High correlation among the constructs (Convergent Validity).

If the value of the correlation between two constructs is very high or exceeds the limit of 1.00 then it is considered as an offending estimate. The solution for this type of offending estimate is to remove one of the constructs or the researcher has to ensure discriminant validity among constructs (Hair et al., 2006).

3.16.5.9 Standardized Factor Loading.

The “Standardized factor loading” is also one of the offending estimates in confirmatory factor analysis if its value surpasses or is very near to the value of 1.00 (Hair et al., 2006). To solve the problem of offending estimates and to achieve the model fitness, Cheng (2001) and Hair et al. (2006) suggested two methods. Either the offending variable should be removed or a small value of 0.05 should be set up for the error variance to ensure that factor loadings are lower than 1.00. The offending estimates should be deleted on a ‘one to one’ basis. This is because, the deletion of one indicator affects the other parts of the model and then the model should be re-estimated again (Segars & Grover, 1993).

3.16.6 Model Fitness of the Measurement Model

After the assessment of the construct loadings and the goodness of fit measures of the measurement model, the measures of variance extracted and reliability should be computed for each construct to determine the sufficiency of the indicators for the representation of the constructs.

3.16.6.1 Composite reliability.

The composite reliability of a construct is determined through the measure of reliability. It represents the degree to which all the items of a measure represent a common construct (Hair et al., 2006).

3.16.6.2 Variance Extracted.

Variance extracted is also a measure for the assessment of the fitness of the measurement model. The values of variance extracted indicates the extent of variance in the construct is resulted due to variance in its indicators (Hair et al., 2006). Indicator's true representation of the latent constructs can be determined by the variance extracted values. If the values of variance extracted are high, this shows that the indicators are the true representative of the constructs. The threshold minimum acceptable value of variance extracted is 0.50, means the value of variance extracted should be above 0.50.

3.16.7 Item Parcelling in Structure Equation Modelling

Hair et al. (2006) argued that a complex or large models require large samples. Similarly, Reisinger and Mavondo (2007) also emphasized the importance of sample size and its influence on the complexity of models. They also argued that simple models can be analysed with the help of small sample sizes but large and complex models need large sample sizes to be analysed. The more the number of indicators increase the more the requirement of a large sample size increases and if the size of the sample is small then three or four indicators are suggested by scholars (Hall, Snell & Singer, 1999). The solution for the problem of small size with a large and complex model having many indicators is "Item parcelling". With the method of item parcelling the number of indicators are reduced (Bagozzi & Edwards, 1994). Little, Cunningham and Shahar (2002) state that item parcelling is used in multivariate data analysis approaches and is a measurement practice usually used in SEM of and CFA which are techniques used for latent variable analysis. Item parcelling has been defined by Bandalos and Finney (2001) as "a process of combing the responses of raw item into sub-scales before the analysis". In SEM or confirmatory factor analysis the responses of items are averaged or combined into parcel scores which are further used as observed variables (Bandalos, 2002).

According to Bandalos (2002) the practice of item parceling is very common and pervasive in SEM. Similarly Meade and Kroustalis (2005) also emphasized the advantages and benefit of using item parceling and argued that other authors and scholars have also advocated

the use of item parceling due to its benefits. Some of the benefits of item parceling are that the parcels have greater reliability than individual items and the chances of achieving better model fitness also increase with item parceling technique. According to Bandalos and Finney (2001) researchers have reported three advantages of using item parceling. First, due to item parceling the stability of the estimated parameter increases, second, the ratio of variable to sample size improves and third, it solves the problem of small sample size. Similarly, Bagozzi and Edwards (1998) also advocated that item parceling can be used for achieving more stable parameter estimates, achieving better model fitness and reducing the number of indicators.

According to Coffman and MacCallum (2005) the number of estimated parameters and the order of correlation matrix increase with increase in indicators. The chances of fitness of model increase with increase in order of correlation matrix. So the more the order of correlation matrix is larger, the more there will be chances of better model fitness. However, controversies and criticism also revolve around item parceling. The most important among them is the determination of those items which will be parcelled (Bandalos, 2002). Because it can impact the validity and accuracy of different techniques of parceling (Little et al., 2002). Therefore, Bandalos and Finney in (2001) recommended that when the items are unidimensional, only then the researchers should perform item parceling. Similarly Little et al. (2002) emphasized the importance of unidimensional structure for item parceling. Moreover, according to Hall et al. (1999), item parceling can lead to biased results of model parameters. But as a whole the number of arguments in favour of item parceling as an advantageous technique is far more than arguments of it being disadvantageous (Little et al., 2002), that's why item parceling is a beneficial and attractive option for researchers (Hall et al., 1999). Once the one-dimensional nature of the measures are determined then different techniques of item parceling can be applied. Such as simple random assignment technique can be used if the measures are one-dimensional in nature. In this method, two, three or four parcels can be created depending on the assigned number of randomly assigned items (Little et al., 2002).

3.16.8 Difficulties of Reporting SEM Results

Due to various different computer packages used for SEM, researchers feel difficulties in presentation of SEM results. Another reason in reporting SEM result is that there is a lack of agreement on the texts and user guides about the style in which the results are to be presented

(Long, 1983; Bollen, 1989; Loehlin, 1992). Some of the major problems researchers face related to presentation of results are as follows:

The indicators of the latent constructs has not been determined, no explanation of the type of matrix used and the type of data that has been analysed is left unexplained. Moreover, incomplete parameter estimates are presented (e.g. residual variance are not presented) and non-identification of disturbances and errors are also problems and difficulties of reporting SEM results. That's why researchers should learn what and how much details are required for an adequate SEM report. For instance, indicators of each latent variable should be listed, specification of the models and variables should be provided, and the type of data and matrix used should be explained (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Researchers are also advised to determine the software and methodology used for estimation and should use multiple measures of fit indices, standard errors and should also determine the criteria for evaluating values of fit indices (MacCallum & Austin, 2000). Comprehensive recommendations for the presentation of SEM results have been given by Boomsma (2000) and Breckler (1990).

3.16.9 Computer Softwares/Programs for SEM

Several computer software packages are designed for analysis SEM models, such as MPLUS (Muthen & Muthen, 1998), COSAN (Fraser and McDonald, 1988), CALIS (Hartmann, 1992), ROMANA (Browne, Mels and Cowan, 1994), Mx (Neale, 1997), "SEPATH, EZPATH, LISCOMP and STREAMS". Structural equation Models which are widely used includes AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structures) (Arbuckle, 1997), EQS (Bentler, 1995) and LISREL (Linear Structural Relations) (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) which is considered as the most leading SEM program among them all. AMOS the most recent SEM program and is popular among scholars as the most easy as far as the specification of the structural models is concerned. The reason for this is that AMOS has the capability to work through the windows clipboard and has very user-friendly graphical interface. Similarly EQS is also popular but used not frequently than LISREL and AMOS. The computer programs used for SEM solves the same problems and issues and provides the same basic information, but there is a slight difference in the solution they provide, the methods through which they estimate the parameters. These programs also differs from each other in the number and quality of model fitness indices they provide and the in the requirement of type of data they need. Every new version of these programs have a new feature or new default that helps the user, simplifies the functioning of the program and improves the presentation or reporting of results.

There are user manuals of these computer programs and scholars should these manuals for more information.

3.17 Interference of researcher

The interference of the researcher in the study was minimal and the data have been collected through a questionnaire without interfering in the normal activities of the organization. A correlational and explanatory study should be conducted in natural environment and researcher interference should be minimal (Sekaran, 2009).

3.18 Research Ethics

Research ethic is the code of conduct or the norms of society which are expected from the researcher while conducting research (Sekaran, 2009). Ethical behaviour should be ensured at each step of the research endeavour especially the time at which the data is collected. During collection of data from respondents, ethical behaviour should be ensured through ensuring secrecy of responses of the respondents, not forcing the respondent to respond and truthfulness and honesty of the researcher (Sekaran, 2009). The purpose of ensuring ethical behaviour during research process is to ensure that no one suffers or harmed due to any of the research activity (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). The current study ensured research ethics through a covering letter that illuminated the topic of research, its objectives and benefits and the confidentiality of the response of the respondents.

Chapter 4

Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical tests applied on the collected data. The aspects related to analysis of data covered in the chapter includes demographic analysis, descriptive statistics of all the constructs, Normality of data which discusses the skewness and kurtosis of data with the help of histograms, linearity of relationships which is an assumption of regression, descriptive analysis of items which includes the descriptive statistics of indicators, SEM, Unidimensionality and reliability of instrument for which principle factor analysis has been used for establishing Unidimensionality of the instrument and cronbach's alpha statistics was used for testing reliability of instrument. The chapter also presents the measurement models with their separate confirmatory factor analysis, correlation among constructs, model fitness and figures of all the three models of the study. The chapter also includes the structural models and path models with model fitness and figures of all the three models. The chapter also includes the conditional process analysis and the summary of the accepted or rejected hypotheses.

4.2 Demographic Analysis

Below are the demographic analysis of the data sample (shown in Table 3, 4, 5 and 6), which shows three demographics of the data sample i.e. Gender, Age, Occupation level and Qualification. The frequency tables are given below, which shows the frequencies and the variance of the respondents on the basis of the demographic variables.

4.2.1 Gender.

The male and female distribution of gender has been shows in Table 3, which shows that maximum of the participants were male (n=456 out of 561) representing the total percentage of 81.3 while total number of female respondents were 105 with the percentage of 18.7.

Table 3. Gender

	Gender	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	456	81.3
	Female	105	18.7
	Total	561	100.0

4.2.2 Age.

Table 4 presents the respondent's age. The table shows that age of the majority (n=340) of respondents, were in the range of 26-35. The age of 113 respondents was in the range of 15-25, 88 respondent's age was ranging in 36-45, while the rest of the 20 respondents ages were more than 45.

Table 4. Age

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	15-25	113	20.1
	26-35	340	60.6
	36-45	88	15.7
	45+	20	3.6
	Total	561	100.0

4.2.3 Qualification.

The Table 5 presents the respondent's Qualification. The qualification of the majority (n=293) of respondents was Bachelor, 181 respondents were having Masters Qualification while the rest of 87 respondents were having MS qualification.

Table 5. Qualification

	Qualification	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Bachelor	293	52.2
	Master	181	32.3
	MS	87	15.5
	PhD	0	0
	Total	561	100.0

4.2.4 Occupational Level.

Table 6 given below presents the respondent's occupational level. The table shows that majority (n=509) respondents were of non-managerial level while the rest of 52 respondents were of managerial level.

Table 6. Occupational level

	Occupational level	Frequency	Percent
Valid	Non-managerial	509	90.7
	Managerial	52	9.3
	Total	561	100.0

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics of the constructs and items have been presented separately in Table 7 and Table 8.

4.3.1 Descriptive statistics of Constructs.

The descriptive statistics of all the constructs are given in the table 7.

Table 7. Descriptive Statistics of Constructs

Construct	Statistics					
	Valid	Missing	Mean	St. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
ECP	561	0	4.8226	1.27710	-.453	-.329
PO	561	0	4.4049	1.12860	-.018	-.279
EXT	561	0	4.7690	1.13779	-.548	-.188
SE	561	0	4.4323	1.22849	-.300	-.626
PE	561	0	4.8152	1.21140	-.485	-.342
CO	561	0	4.6377	1.26512	-.126	-.513
POF	561	0	4.1854	1.49207	-.107	-.909
GSE	561	0	4.5080	1.37360	-.432	-.381
POP	561	0	4.5119	1.27571	-.239	-.685
RTP	561	0	4.5370	1.40020	-.531	-.094
PP	561	0	4.7316	1.45539	-.536	-.279
EIP	561	0	4.6776	1.33569	-.502	-.443
CDB	561	0	4.8627	1.25225	-.414	-.372

The descriptive statistics of the all the constructs shows that the there are no missing data, as AMOS can ignore only 4 to 5 unresponsive questions. The means of the constructs shows that the means of all the constructs are just above the midpoint of the scale and none of them are very high or very low. The standard deviations of all the constructs are between 1 and 1.5.

4.4 Normality of Data.

The skewness values and kurtosis values of all the constructs are between 2.2 and -2.2. Problem arises when their values are outside (+/-) 2.2 (Sposito et al. 1983). The histogram of all the constructs (shown in Figure 2 and 4) shows normal distribution and ensures the assumption of normality of data for structural equation modelling.

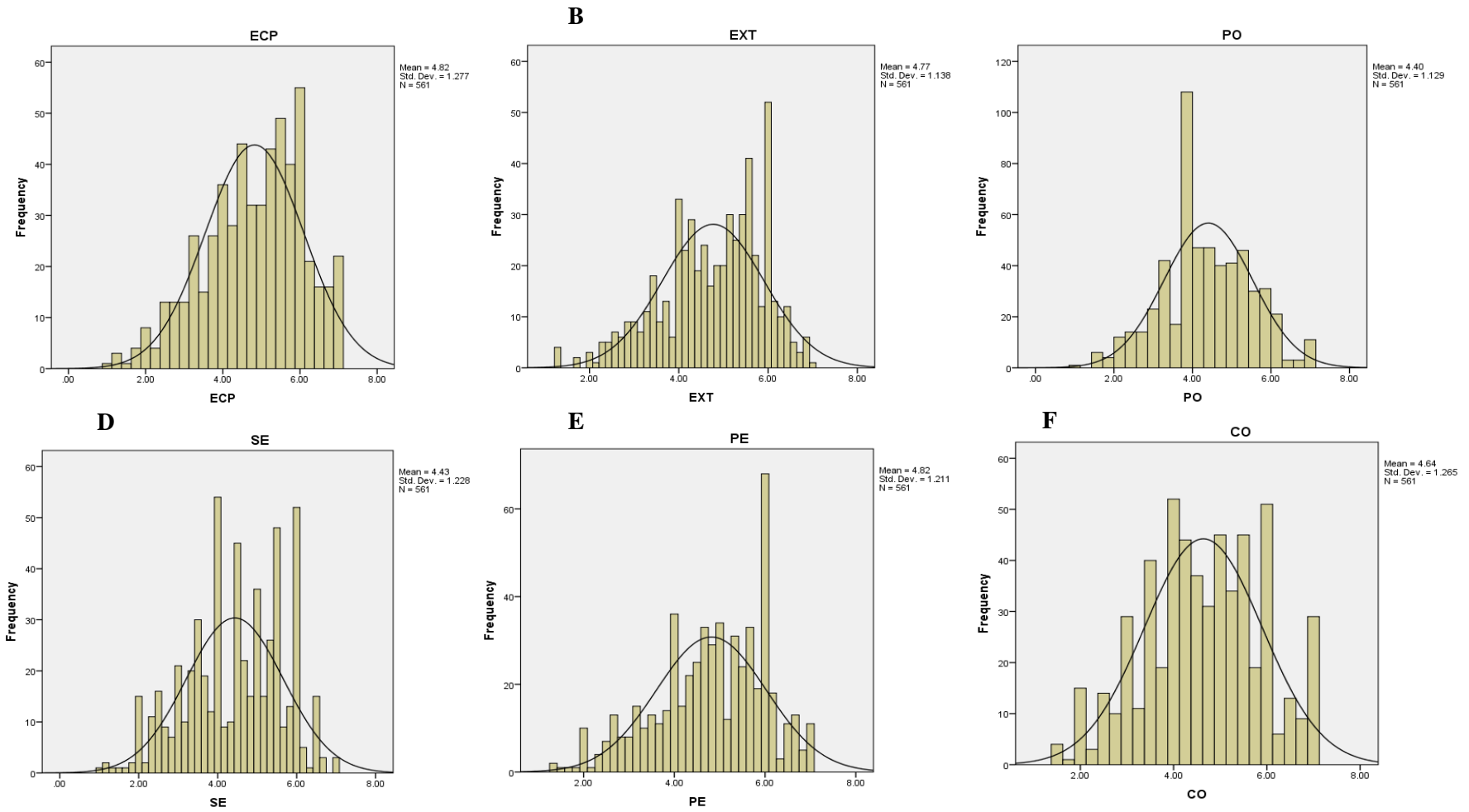


Figure 2. Histograms showing Normality of Data for ECP, EXT, PO, SE, PE and CO

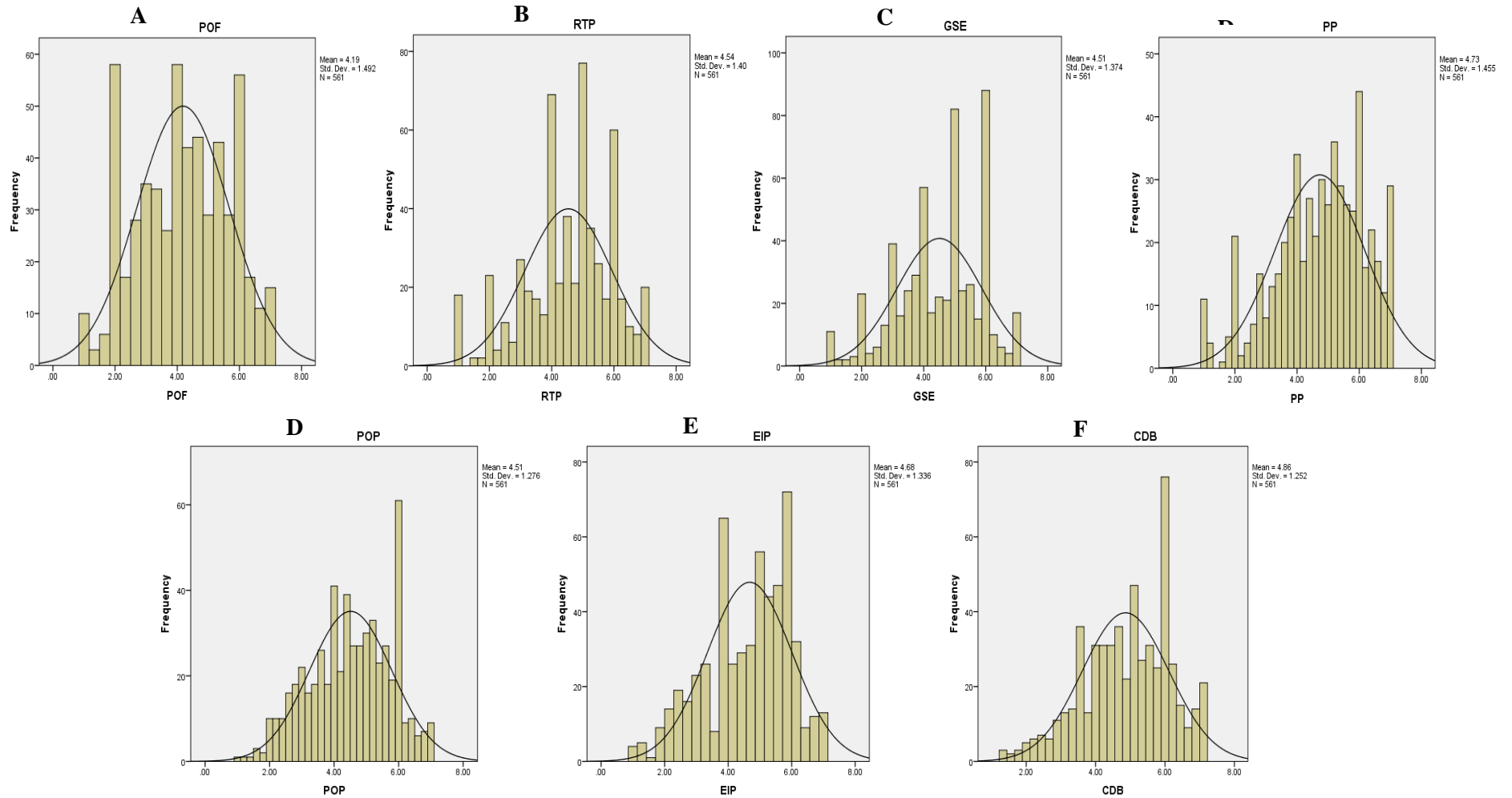


Figure 3. Histograms showing Data Normality for POF, RTP, GSE, PP, POP, EIP and CDB

The skewness values and kurtosis values of all the constructs are between 2.2 and -2.2 as shown in table 7. Problem arises when these values are outside (+/-) 2.2 (Sposito et al. 1983). The histogram of all the constructs as shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 shows normal distribution and ensures the assumption of normality of data for structural equation modelling.

4.5 Linearity of Relationships.

Regression equation has an assumption of linearity of relationship. Linearity indicates that the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable is in a straight line. Therefore, it is very important to determine because only linear relationship between independent variable and dependent variable can be determined through regression analysis and is among one of the assumptions of regression analysis. And it ignores those relationships of independent variable and dependent variables which are not linear. Figure 4 shows that the relationship between all the variables involved in the study had linear relationship with each other.

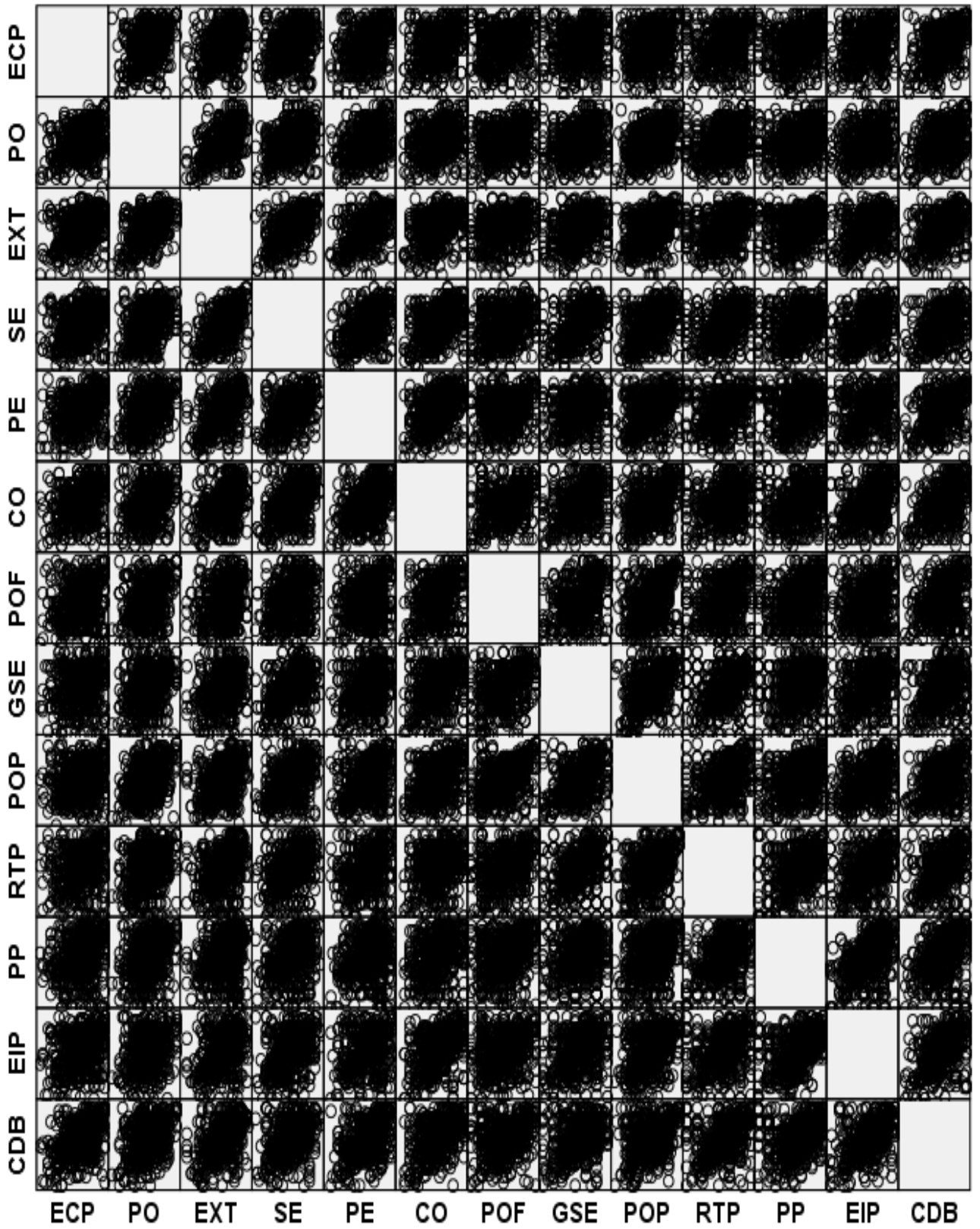


Figure 4. Linearity of relationships between variables

4.6 Descriptive analysis of items.

The detail of the descriptive statistics of items is given in the Table No 8. A 7-points Likert scale (1 strongly disagree, 7 strongly agree) has been used for the data collection. The means of all the items were just above the midpoint and none of the values were extremely low or extremely high. The standard deviation of items ranges between 1.5 and 2.

Table 8. Descriptive Statistics of Indicators

Constructs	Indicators	N	Descriptive Statistics			
			Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Employee Creative Performance	ECP1	561	1.00	7.00	4.6827	1.81439
	ECP3	561	1.00	7.00	4.8324	1.59141
	ECP4	561	1.00	7.00	4.7914	1.73339
	ECP5	561	1.00	7.00	4.9840	1.57370
	ECP6	561	1.00	7.00	4.6168	1.71995
	ECP11	561	1.00	7.00	4.5722	1.53607
	ECP13	561	1.00	7.00	4.8431	1.52257
Psychological Ownership	PO1	561	1.00	7.00	5.1034	1.59127
	PO2	561	1.00	7.00	4.0945	1.90018
	PO3	561	1.00	7.00	4.5811	1.64021
	PO4	561	1.00	7.00	4.8966	1.55724
	PO5	561	1.00	7.00	4.7380	1.63253
	PO6	561	1.00	7.00	4.5098	1.73215
	PO7	561	1.00	7.00	4.9340	1.74467
Extraversion	EXT1	561	1.00	7.00	4.8414	1.66738
	EXT2	561	1.00	7.00	5.1337	1.55894
	EXT3	561	1.00	7.00	4.5187	1.61248
	EXT4	561	1.00	7.00	4.7344	1.55347
	EXT5	561	1.00	7.00	4.7005	1.57417
	EXT6	561	1.00	7.00	4.7594	1.48355
	EXT7	561	1.00	7.00	4.6952	1.59960
Self-Esteem	SE01	561	1.00	7.00	4.1462	1.72483
	SE02	561	1.00	7.00	4.4545	1.62299
	SE03	561	1.00	7.00	4.3690	1.57810

	SE04	561	1.00	7.00	4.3333	1.61060
	SE06	561	1.00	7.00	4.5080	1.69675
	SE07	561	1.00	7.00	4.6025	1.59147
	SE08	561	1.00	7.00	4.5490	1.54047
Psychological Empowerment	PE1	561	1.00	7.00	4.8467	1.63599
	PE2	561	1.00	7.00	4.8984	1.64708
	PE3	561	1.00	7.00	4.8806	1.64913
	PE4	561	1.00	7.00	4.6774	1.55759
	PE5	561	1.00	7.00	4.6845	1.56248
	PE8	561	1.00	7.00	4.9037	1.56228
Collectivist Orientation	CO1	561	1.00	7.00	4.7077	1.64537
	CO2	561	1.00	7.00	4.6613	1.74625
	CO3	561	1.00	7.00	4.5668	1.59561
	CO5	561	1.00	7.00	4.6150	1.64145
	CO6	561	1.00	7.00	5.1533	1.54736
	CO7	561	1.00	7.00	5.3369	1.57737
Person-Organization Fit	POF01	561	1.00	7.00	4.1818	1.67089
	POF02	561	1.00	7.00	4.1390	1.71399
	POF03	561	1.00	7.00	4.2353	1.75608
Generalized Self-Efficacy	GSE01	561	1.00	7.00	4.6310	1.63041
	GSE02	561	1.00	7.00	4.4492	1.71381
	GSE03	561	1.00	7.00	4.5169	1.60139
	GSE04	561	1.00	7.00	4.4349	1.65393
Perceptions of Organizational Performance	POP1	561	1.00	7.00	4.5597	1.62802
	POP2	561	1.00	7.00	4.4225	1.69920
	POP3	561	1.00	7.00	4.4011	1.62060
	POP4	561	1.00	7.00	4.7718	1.62393
	POP5	561	1.00	7.00	4.7273	1.58073
	POP6	561	1.00	7.00	4.4046	1.72334
Risk-taking Propensity	RTP1	561	1.00	7.00	4.7362	1.67809
	RTP2	561	1.00	7.00	4.8093	1.64891
	RTP4	561	1.00	7.00	4.3387	1.81838
	RTP5	561	1.00	7.00	4.2638	1.69292

Proactive Personality	PP1	561	1.00	7.00	4.7237	1.77189
	PP2	561	1.00	7.00	4.5651	1.84094
	PP3	561	1.00	7.00	4.7130	1.80910
	PP4	561	1.00	7.00	4.8021	1.78738
	PP5	561	1.00	7.00	4.8538	1.79385
Employee Innovative Performance	EIP1	561	1.00	7.00	4.7807	1.60136
	EIP2	561	1.00	7.00	4.8342	1.71318
	EIP3	561	1.00	7.00	4.7326	1.65394
	EIP4	561	1.00	7.00	4.6257	1.95183
	EIP5	561	1.00	7.00	4.6827	1.67626
	EIP6	561	1.00	7.00	4.6239	1.65164
	EIP7	561	1.00	7.00	4.4635	1.66557
	EIP8	561	1.00	7.00	4.5455	1.60195
Constructive Deviance Behaviours	CDB1	561	1.00	7.00	4.9893	1.55606
	CDB2	561	1.00	7.00	4.8307	1.57600
	CDB3	561	1.00	7.00	4.8645	1.51640
	CDB4	561	1.00	7.00	4.7522	1.51101
	CDB5	561	1.00	7.00	4.9929	1.58676
	CDB6	561	1.00	7.00	5.0143	1.50943
	CDB7	561	1.00	7.00	4.6292	1.77426
	CDB8	561	1.00	7.00	4.8467	1.61953
	CDB9	561	1.00	7.00	4.8449	1.59212

4.7 Data Analysis through Structure Equation Modeling (SEM)

A comprehensive model showing the indicators and consequences of CDB was developed and analyzed using SEM, for the achievement of research questions and objectives of the study. The model of this study has 13 constructs and 68 items. Since large and complex models are very difficult to analyze dependable and accurate results, that's why a large sample size was needed. Hence, a sample size of 561 respondents has been used to analyze the model. Because, according to Hair et al. (2006), for applying SEM, for large and complex model, large sample is required to get reliable results. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that a minimum of 5 samples should be there for every estimated parameter. Similarly Sekaran (2003), suggested

that sample size of about 10 times or more the number of total variables used in the study in case of a multivariate research. The importance of large sample size for the analysis of large models is also explained by Reisinger & Mavondo (2007) for a simple model can be examined by a small sample however, large sample is required for a large model. Moreover, the model of the study has been divided into three (3) models for getting better and reliable results, viz. Model 1, Model 2 and Model 3.

4.8 Unidimensionality and Reliability of Measurement Instrument

When a number of indicators explains only one concept of trait then the instrument is said to be unidimensional. For testing the Unidimensionality of instrument, principle component factor analysis has been used as described by Droge and Daugherty cited by Hoe, 2008 (p. 80), which establishes the unidimensionality of the measurement instrument.

4.9 Principle Component Factor Analysis

Hoe (2008) suggested that the eigenvalues greater than 1 provide support for unidimensionality of the constructs. That's why principle component factor analysis has been run separately on all the constructs to determine the eigenvalues. Table 9 shows the Eigen values of all the constructs.

Table 9. Eigen values of measures

Construct	Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
		Total	% of Variance	% of Variance
Constructive Deviance Behaviours	1	5.662	62.912	62.912
	2	.827	9.192	72.104
	3	.633	7.034	79.138
	4	.458	5.089	84.227
	5	.371	4.125	88.352
	6	.314	3.493	91.845
	7	.293	3.259	95.104
	8	.237	2.630	97.734
	9	.204	2.266	100.000
Person-Organization Fit	1	2.275	75.831	75.831
	2	.388	12.918	88.749
	3	.338	11.251	100.000
Psychological Ownership	1	3.043	43.466	43.466
	2	.988	18.159	61.625
	3	.972	13.881	75.506
	4	.629	8.986	84.493

	5	.433	6.182	90.675
	6	.363	5.184	95.859
	7	.290	4.141	100.000
Collectivist Orientation	1	2.331	58.273	58.273
	2	.666	16.638	74.911
	3	.509	12.717	87.629
	4	.495	12.371	100.000
Self-Esteem	1	1.956	65.215	65.215
	2	.725	24.171	89.386
	3	.318	10.614	100.000
Extraversion	1	3.636	51.946	51.946
	2	.935	13.362	65.308
	3	.649	9.276	74.585
	4	.561	8.007	82.592
	5	.488	6.975	89.567
	6	.381	5.445	95.012
	7	.349	4.988	100.000
Risk-taking Propensity	1	2.696	67.411	67.411
	2	.591	14.787	82.199
	3	.442	11.058	93.257
	4	.270	6.743	100.000
Proactive Personality	1	3.296	65.912	65.912
	2	1.076	21.521	87.433
	3	.232	4.649	92.082
	4	.207	4.149	96.231
	5	.188	3.769	100.000
Generalized-Self Efficacy	1	2.780	69.503	69.503
	2	.542	13.558	83.061
	3	.408	10.202	93.263
	4	.269	6.737	100.000
Psychological Empowerment	1	3.461	57.682	57.682
	2	.806	13.441	71.123
	3	.653	10.884	82.007
	4	.435	7.242	89.250
	5	.358	5.974	95.224
	6	.287	4.776	100.000
Employee Innovative Performance	1	3.891	64.847	64.847
	2	.780	13.002	77.849
	3	.489	8.153	86.002
	4	.320	5.340	91.342
	5	.316	5.258	96.600
	6	.204	3.400	100.000
Employee Creative Performance	1	2.323	58.067	58.067
	2	.713	17.813	75.880
	3	.538	13.450	89.329
	4	.427	10.671	100.000

Perceived Organizational Performance	1	3.292	54.865	54.865
	2	.824	13.738	68.602
	3	.588	9.796	78.398
	4	.533	8.879	87.277
	5	.467	7.778	95.055
	6	.297	4.945	100.000

After principle component factor analysis it is quite evident that only the first eigenvalues of almost all the constructs were greater than 1 except of Proactive Personality as shown in the Table 9. The second eigenvalue of Proactive Personality was also greater than 1 but it was only 1.076. Since the second value of Proactive Personality is very close to 1 and this instrument has also been used in Seibert et al. (1999), that's why the unidimensionality of this construct can be accepted. Hence, all the Eigen-values of constructs are in acceptable range to establish the unidimensionality of the measures and fulfil the assumption of unidimensionality for SEM.

4.10 Reliability

Cronbach's alpha statistics was used to further examine the unidimensionality of constructs. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the acceptable threshold to establish reliability of constructs is 0.70. From Table 10, it is quite evident that the Cronbach's alpha values of all the constructs ranged from 0.756 to 0.925, which were all in the acceptable range and establishes the reliability and unidimensionality of all the constructs.

Table 10. Cronbach's Alpha values for constructs

S/No	Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
1	Constructive deviance behaviours	0.925	9
2	Person-Organization Fit	0.840	3
3	Psychological Ownership	0.776	7
4	Self-Esteem	0.808	3
5	Extraversion	0.846	7
6	Proactive Personality	0.867	5
7	Generalized Self-Efficacy	0.852	4
8	Collectivist Orientation	0.761	4
9	Psychological Empowerment	0.850	6
10	Risk-taking Propensity	0.836	4
11	Employee Creative Performance	0.756	4
12	Employee Innovative Performance	0.887	6
13	Perceptions of Organizational Performance	0.834	6

4.11 Measurement Models

“A measurement model identifies the indicator of every construct and determine the reliability of all constructs for calculating the causal relationships” (Hair et al., 2006). According to Cheng (2001), in order to validate a measurement instrument, developing the measurement model of the constructs is used. Moreover, Cheng (2001) suggested two different ways to test the validity of measurement model i.e. a) testing every construct's measure separately and b) testing all the measures collectively. In this study the model has been divided further in three models and second method suggested by Cheng (2001) has been adopted in this study assessing the validity of measures of the constructs.

As the model has been further divided in three (3) models, that's why three separate composite measurement models have been developed. Separate Confirmatory Factor Analysis has been done to evaluate the validity of measures of constructs of all the three models. The model's overall model fitness has also been examined, which is used to assess to which extent the stated indicators measure the constructs that has been hypothesized. The concerned constructs have been loaded with their indicators and all the constructs were found to be correlated with each other.

4.12 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis has been formed separately for all the three models, their figures have been developed showing the constructs, their correlations and the indicators with their respective values. The overall model fitness of these measurement models have also been examined separately.

4.13 Measurement Model (Model 1)

The figure 5 shows the measurement model of model 1, having three constructs i.e. CDB, Psychological Ownership and the POF. The figure also shows the correlation between the constructs, their indicators and their respective loadings.

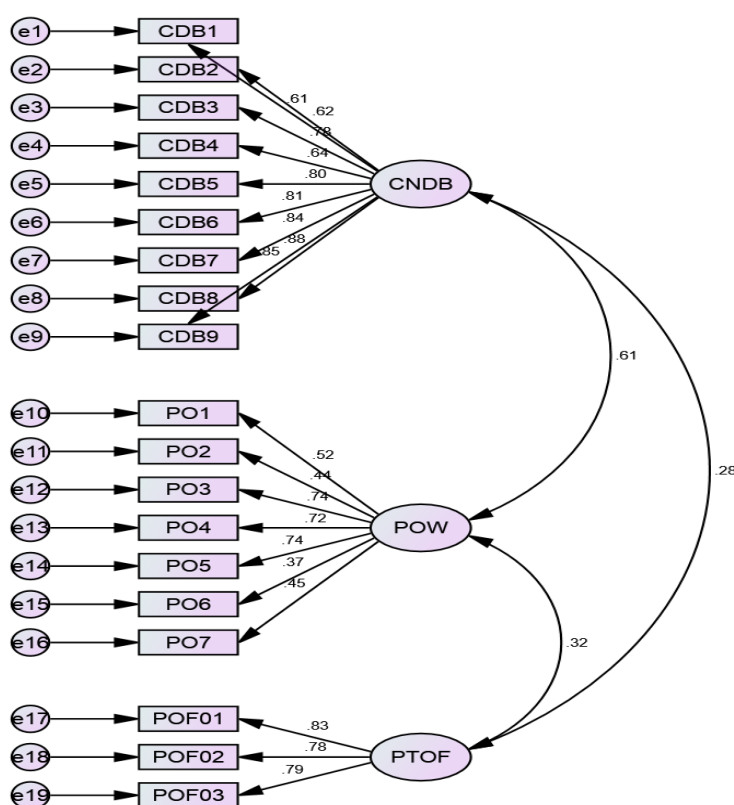


Figure 5. Measurement model of Model 1

4.13.1 Standardized Regression Weights or Factor Loadings

Table 11 shows the factor loadings for the factors of all the constructs. The loadings shows that all the factors or indicators were significant at the 0.05 significance level (t value > 1.96) and none of the loading value of the factors or indicators was so low that they should be

deleted. All the indicators have a significant relationship with their specified constructs and established the hypothesised relationship between indicators and constructs.

Table 11. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Rotated Component Matrix^a				
Construct	Indicators	Component		
		1	2	3
Psychological Ownership	PO1		.516	
	PO2		.440	
	PO3		.742	
	PO4		.716	
	PO5		.742	
	PO6		.467	
	PO7		.454	
Person-Organization Fit	POF01			.833
	POF02			.776
	POF03			.786
Constructive Deviance Behaviours	CDB1	.612		
	CDB2	.623		
	CDB3	.778		
	CDB4	.640		
	CDB5	.799		
	CDB6	.815		
	CDB7	.837		
	CDB8	.875		
	CDB9	.845		

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.14 Correlation among constructs (Model 1)

Table 12 presents the correlations among the constructs and proves that all the constructs are significantly correlated with each other at 0.01 significance level, and there was no issue of multicollinearity. Hair et al. (2006) argued that correlation exceeding 0.80 value creates problem and values more than 0.90 must be examined always.

Table 12. Correlation

Variables	1	2	3
Constructive Behaviours	1.00		
Person-Organization Fit	0.283**	1.00	
Psychological Ownership	0.612**	0.322**	1.00

**p<0.01

4.15 Overall Model Fitness (Model 1)

Table 13 shows the goodness of fit indices for the measurement model of Model 1. The value of GFI was 0.95 which was above the minimum threshold of 0.90 as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Similarly other values/indices showed good fit to the data (AGFI=0.92, CFI=0.91 and RMSEA=0.076) as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 13. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values
χ^2	897
d.f	149
P value	0.00
GFI	0.95
AGFI	0.92
CFI	0.91
RMSEA	0.076

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.13 Measurement Model of Model 2

Figure 6 shows the measurement model of Model 2 consisting of 8 constructs i.e. CDB, Self-Esteem, Extraversion, RTP, GSE, Proactive Personality, Psychological Empowerment and Collectivist Orientation. The figure also shows the constructs, their correlations, their indicators and their respective loadings.

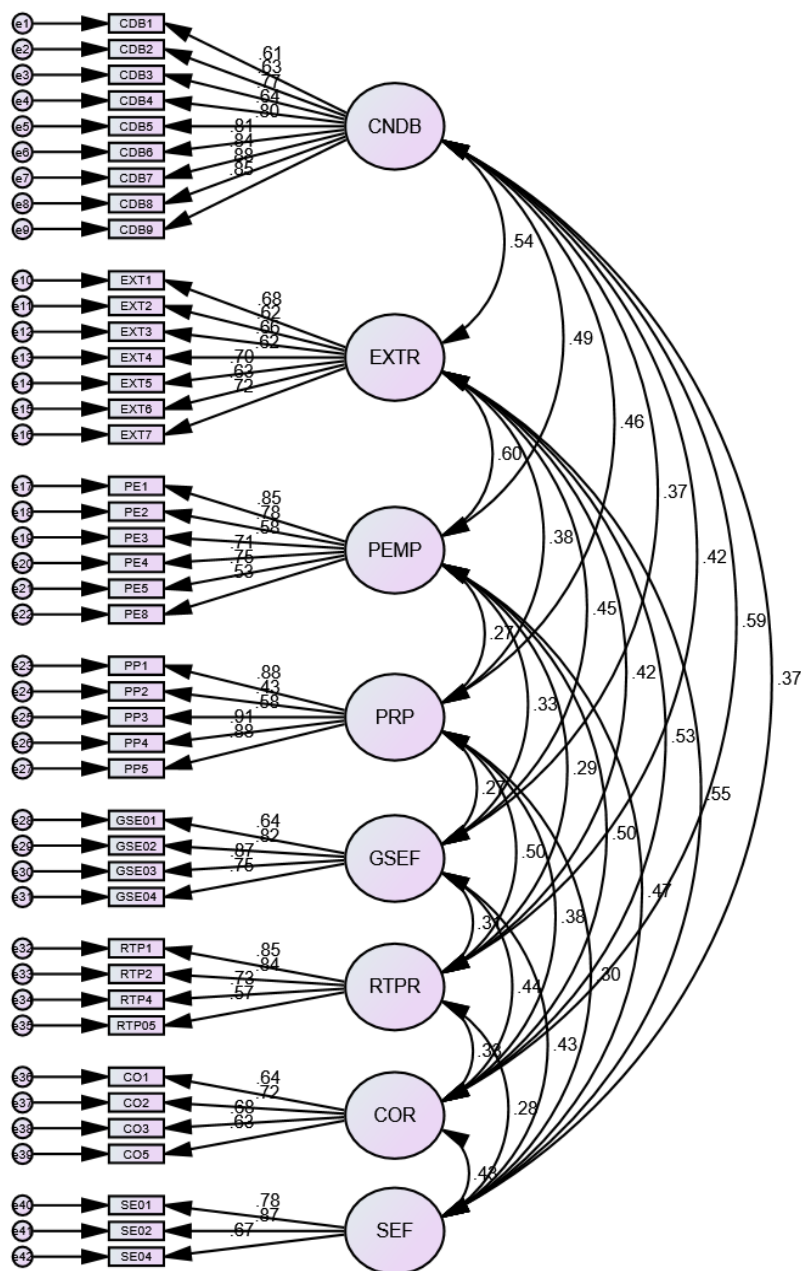


Figure 6. Measurement model of Model 2

4.14 Factor Loadings (Model 2)

Table 14 shows the factor loadings for the factors of all the constructs. The loadings shows that all the factors or indicators were significant at the significance level of 0.05 (t value > 1.96) and none of the loading value of the factors or indicators was low up to the extent that it needed to be deleted. All the indicators are significantly related to their specified constructs and established the hypothesised relationship between indicators and constructs.

4.15 Model Fitness (Model 2)

Table 15 displays the goodness of fit indices of the measurement model for Model 2. The value of CMIN/DF was 3.17 was not much higher than 3 which is the threshold value as per the suggestion of Hair et al. (2006). Moreover other indices showed good fit with the data such as GFI=0.828, AGFI=0.915, CFI=0.923 and RMSEA=0.062 all were in acceptable range of values as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 15. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	2507	
d.f	791	
$\chi^2/d.f$ (CMIN/DF)	3.170	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	0.828	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0.915	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.923	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.062	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.15 Model 3 Measurement Model

Figure 7 present the measurement model of model 3 having 4 constructs i.e. CDB, EIP, ECP and Perceptions of Organizational Politics. The measurement model figure shows the constructs, the correlation between them and the indicators of constructs with their loadings.

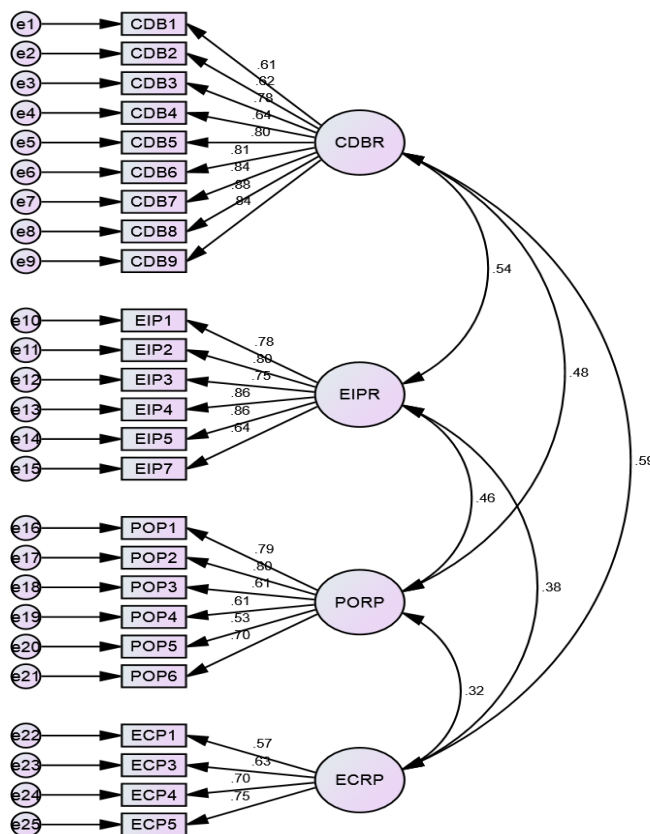


Figure 7. Measurement model of Model 4

4.16 Factor Loadings or Standardized Regression Weights (Model 3)

Table 16 shows the factor loadings for the factors of all the constructs. The loadings shows that all the factors or indicators were significant at the significance level of 0.05 (t value > 1.96) and none of the loading value of the factors or indicators was low up to the extent that it needed to be deleted. All the indicators are significantly related to their specified constructs and established the hypothesised relationship between indicators and constructs.

Table 16. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	Rotated Component Matrix ^a			
	1	2	3	4
CDB1	.585			
CDB2	.609			
CDB3	.784			
CDB4	.649			
CDB5	.793			
CDB6	.801			
CDB7	.767			
CDB8	.812			
CDB9	.805			
ECP1				.744
ECP3				.703
ECP4				.698
ECP5				.718
POP1			.767	
POP2			.804	
POP3			.622	
POP4			.653	
POP5			.591	
POP6			.776	
EIP1		.796		
EIP2		.775		
EIP3		.802		
EIP4		.772		
EIP5		.810		
EIP7		.734		

4.17 Model Fitness (Model 3)

Table 17 presents the goodness of fit indices of the measurement model for Model 3. The value of CMIN/DF was 3.89 was not much higher than 3 which is the threshold value as per the suggestion of Hair et al. (2006). Other values such as GFI=0.866 and AGFI=0.839 were not very short of the recommended value of 0.9 recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Moreover, the values of RMSEA=0.072 and CFI=902 were in acceptable range of values as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 17. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	1048	
d.f	269	
χ^2 /d.f (CMIN/DF)	3.89	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	0.866	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0.839	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.902	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.072	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.18 Measurement Models/Factor Loadings of all constructs

Separate measurement model of all the constructs have also been developed which shows the factor loadings of all the constructs which shows that all the factor loadings of constructs were significant at 0.05 and none of factor loadings of indicators were so low to be deleted. The factor loadings of all the constructs are shown in Figure 8 and 9.

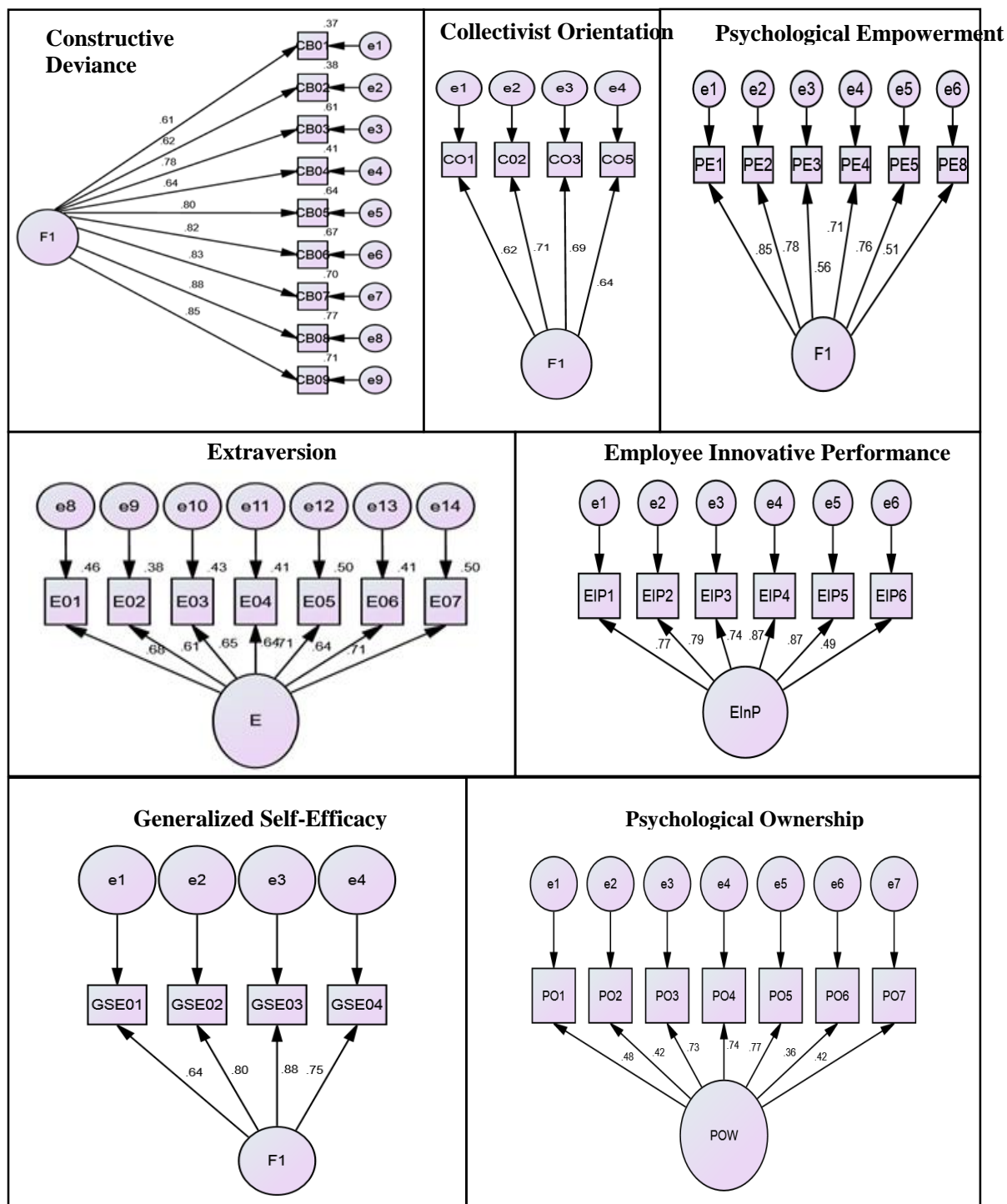


Figure 8. Measurement model showing factor loads of CDB, CO, PE, EX, EIP, GSE and PO

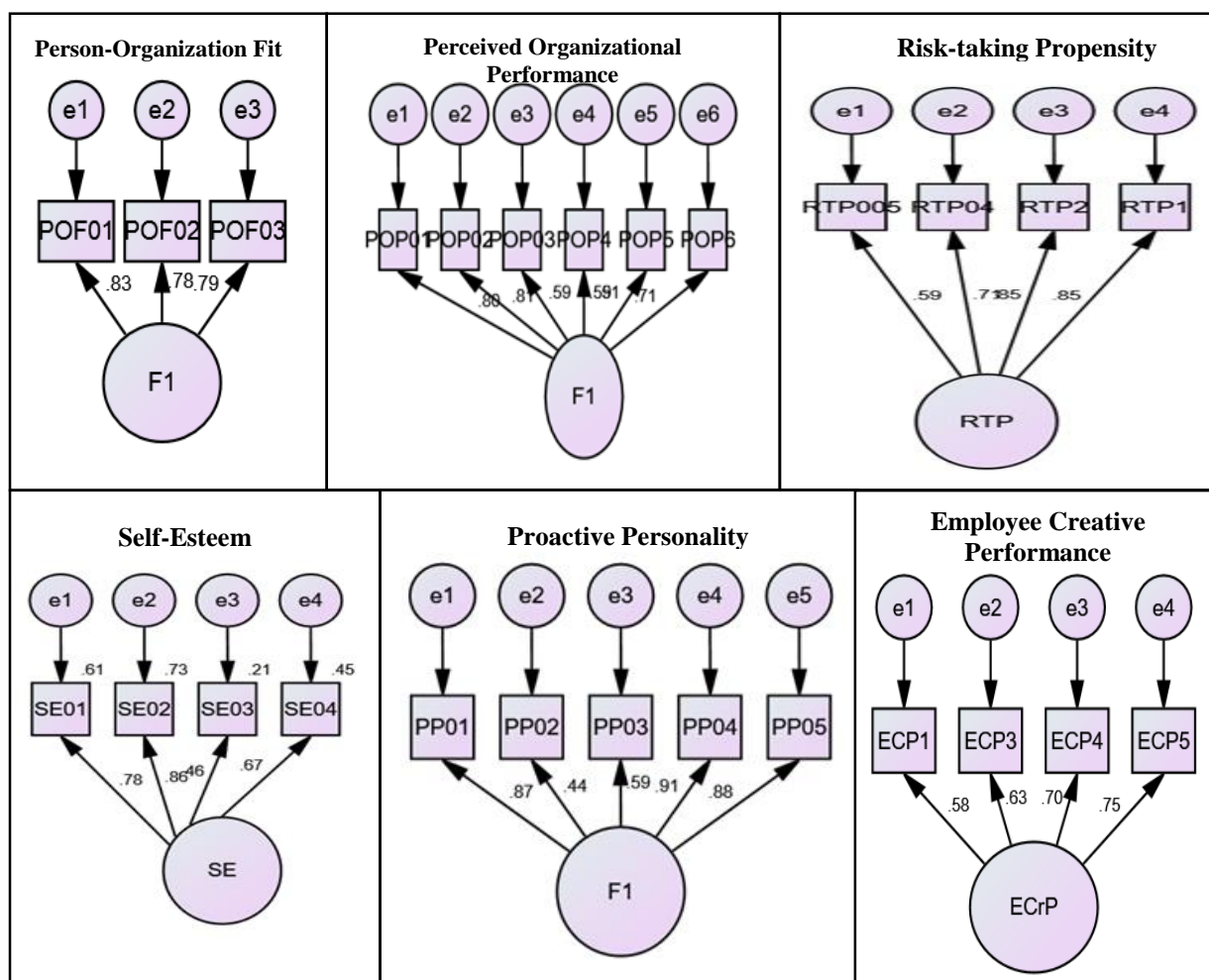


Figure 9. Measurement models showing factor loadings of POF, SE, PP, ECP, POP and RTP

4.19 Correlations among constructs

Table 18 presents the correlation among the constructs and verifies the presence of a significant correlation between all the constructs and shows that all constructs were correlated with each other at 0.01 significance level. None of the correlation values was found more than 0.80, hence there was no problem of multicollinearity. Hair et al (2006) argued that correlation value exceeding 0.80 creates problem of multicollinearity and value more than 0.90 must be examined.

Table 18. Correlations

	ECP	PO	EXT	SE	PE	CO	POF	GSE	POP	RTP	PP	EIP	CDB
ECP	1												
PO	.346**	1											
EXT	.393**	.519**	1										
SE	.301**	.413**	.591**	1									
PE	.384**	.377**	.544**	.509**	1								
CO	.352**	.286**	.429**	.454**	.439**	1							
POF	.170**	.303**	.254**	.263**	.177**	.217**	1						
GSE	.177**	.321**	.389**	.472**	.316**	.364**	.343**	1					
POP	.252**	.417**	.451**	.472**	.370**	.429**	.343**	.468**	1				
RTP	.190**	.288**	.361**	.352**	.268**	.278**	.250**	.287**	.398**	1			
PP	.234**	.275**	.291**	.301**	.192**	.263**	.256**	.180**	.310**	.382**	1		
EIP	.324**	.312**	.403**	.429**	.290**	.428**	.297**	.383**	.428**	.387**	.482**	1	
CDB	.499**	.395**	.492**	.431**	.481**	.509**	.256**	.338**	.438**	.363**	.369**	.525**	1

**p<0.01

4.20 Structural Model

Following the suggestion of Cheng (2001), in the first step of SEM the measurement models have been developed and their goodness of fit has been assessed, after this the second step of analysis through SEM according to Cheng (2001) is the assessment of the relationships between constructs and examining the coefficients, which according to Hair et al (2006) is called as assessment of structural model. Cheng (2001) also argued that the assessment of structural model is also a two-step approach. In the first step the model fitness of the structural model has been evaluated and then the relationships among the constructs have been estimated by the researcher. This whole process is called as structural model fit.

4.21 Measures of Structural Model Fitness

The evaluation of goodness of fit measures for the structural model also known as structural model fit determines the rejection or acceptance of the structural model being tested. The four main types of measures of model fitness are incremental fit measures, absolute fit measures, parsimonious fit measures and non-centrality based measures. It was suggested by

Hair et al; and Reisinger and Mavondo in 2006 and 2007 respectively that all the goodness of fit measures should not be reported but from all of these four type of measures, a few indices should be reported for the evaluation of the model fitness. The same method has been adopted in the present study.

4.21.1 Absolute fit measures.

According to Hair et al (2006), the absolute fit measure indicates the extent to which the model fits the data without adjustment for over fitting. In absolute fit measures, two measures χ^2 and GFI are of importance and should be reported. The value of χ^2 should be between 1 and 3, while the value of GFI should be above 0.90, however above 0.80 is also marginally acceptable (Hair et al., 2006). However, Cheng (2001) argued that chi-square is not an effective measure of model fitness because it is very hard to get a non-significant chi-square.

4.21.2 Incremental fit measures.

According to Reisinger and Mavondo (2007), this measure compared the hypothesised model with a baseline model also called as a null model. According to Hoe (2008), the NNFI, TLI, IFI and NFI measures all compares the structural model with a null model. Hair et al (2006) suggested that the accepted value for all of these measure is 0.90 or above to establish model fitness.

4.21.3 Non-centrality Based Measures.

Hoe (2008) considers the measures of RMSEA and CFI important for the assessment of model fitness. The acceptable value for RMSEA is 0.080 or less and 0.90 or less for CFI (Hair et al. 2006).

4.21.4 Parsimonious Fit Measures.

According to Hair et al (2006), Parsimonious Fit Measures assess the number of estimated coefficients required to achieve this level of fit. In this measure, the value of RFI is important and its value should be 0.90 or more (Hair et al., 2006).

4.22 Structural model for mediation of Model 1:

To test Psychological Ownership's mediating role between the connection of P-O fit and CDB, first the direct relationship between P-O fit and CDB has been examined and then in

the second step the mediating role of Psychological Ownership between the connection of P-O FIT and CDB has been tested. The path model of the mediation for model 1 has been presented in figure 10.

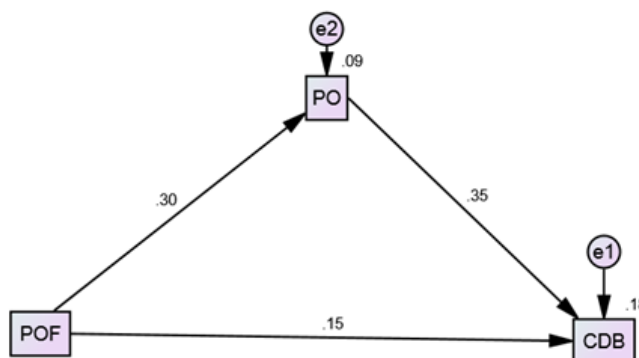


Figure 10. Mediation Model 1

Table 19. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	0	
d.f	0	
$\chi^2/d.f$ (CMIN/DF)	0	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	0	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0	≥ 0.90
CFI	1	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.308	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

The value of fit indices proved that there was problem with the model fitness. For solving the problem of model fitness, the method of modification indices has been adopted.

4.23 Structural Model for Model-1 after Modification indices

In modification indices, the error terms with the highest values of the same construct were correlated, after which the model fitness improved as evident from the values of indices in the table 20. A figure/AMOS diagram of Model 1 after modification indices has also been shown in figure 5.

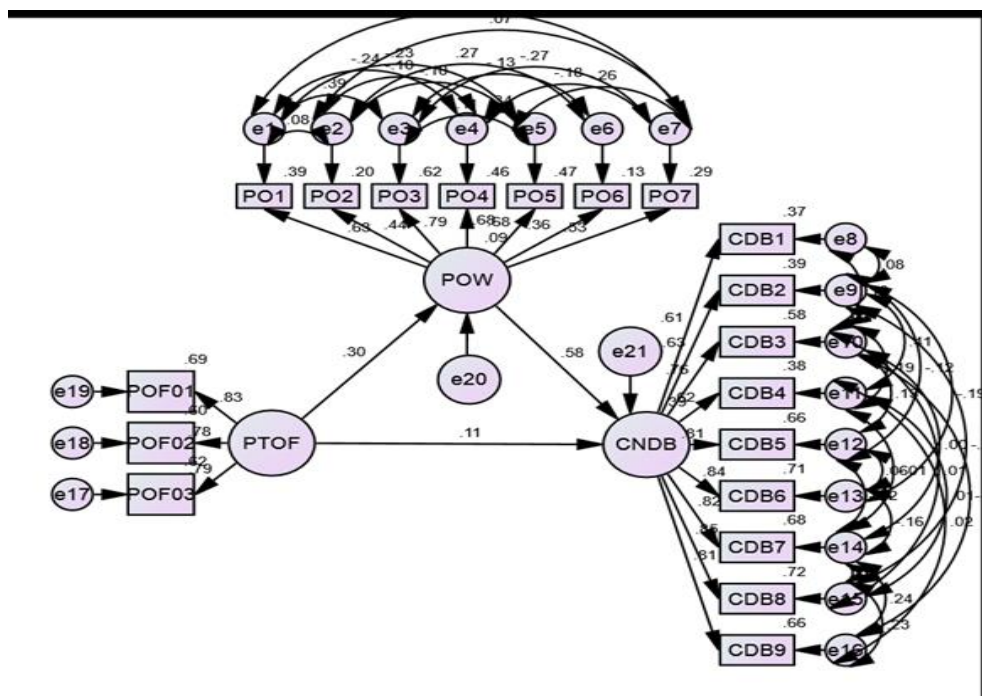


Figure 11. Structural Model of Model 1

Table 20 shows the fit indices of the structural model for Model 1 after modification indices. The value of CMIN/DF was 2.161 which is inside the range of 1 and 3 as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Moreover other fit indices showed good fit with the data such as GFI=0.957, AGFI=928, CFI=0.977 and RMSEA=0.046 all were in acceptable range of values as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 20. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	244	
d.f	113	
$\chi^2/d.f$ (CMIN/DF)	2.161	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	0.957	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0.928	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.977	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.046	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.24 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)

The standardized direct and indirect effects with their respective p-values have been presented in the table 21.

Table 21. Standardized Direct/Indirect Effect

Relationship (s)	Estimate (β)	P Value	Significance
Standardized Direct Effect			
PO <--- POF	0.303**	0.001	Significant
CDB <--- POF	0.110**	0.023	Significant
CDB <--- PO	0.580**	0.001	Significant
Standardized Indirect Effect			
CDB <--- POF	0.175**	0.001	Significant

Notes: **p<0.01, CDB, Constructive Deviance Behaviors; POF, Person-Organization Fit; PO, Psychological Ownership

The standardized direct effect values shown in table 21 shows that all the constructs i.e. P-O fit, PO (Psychological Ownership) and CDB (CDB) had significant standard regression weights and were correlated with each other and showed that P-O FIT had a significant effect on the mediating variable i.e. PO (Psychological Ownership) and similarly PO had a significant impact on the dependent variable CDB (CDB). The direct path i.e. the impact of P-O FIT on CDB was also significant. However, the indirect effect between P-O FIT and CDB was significant as the P value was below 0.05 as shown in the table 21. Therefore, it proved that mediation occurs and that PO (Psychological Ownership) mediated between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB. The type of mediation was partial because the direct relationship of P-O FIT and CDB was still significant, however the effect of P-O FIT on CDB increased from 0.110 (direct effect) to 0.175 as shown in the indirect standardized regression effect.

According to Preacher & Hayes (2007), to establish mediation, the indirect path should be significant. If the indirect path is significant, no need to focus on the direct path as they do not talk about partial mediation.

4.25 Path model for mediation of Model 2:

For determining the mediating role of Psychological empowerment between the relationship of Self-Esteem, Extraversion, RTP, Proactive Personality, GSE and CDB. The mediation model for Model 2 has been shown in Figure 12.

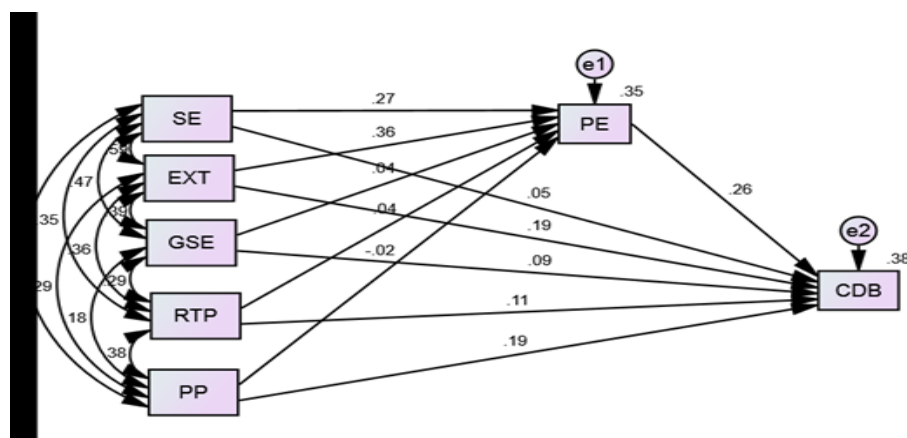


Figure 12. Mediation Model for Model 2

4.26 Path Model Fitness of Model 2 (Fit Indices)

The value of fit indices as shown in Table 22 proved that there was problem with the model fitness of the path model. For solving the problem of model fitness, the method of modification indices has been adopted.

Table 22. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	0	
d.f	0	
$\chi^2/d.f$ (CMIN/DF)	0	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	1	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0	≥ 0.90
CFI	1	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.307	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.27 Structural Model for Model-1 after Modification indices

In modification indices, the error terms with the highest values of the same construct were correlated, after which the model fitness improved as evident from the values of indices in the table 23. A figure/AMOS diagram of Model 1 after modification indices has also been shown in figure 13.

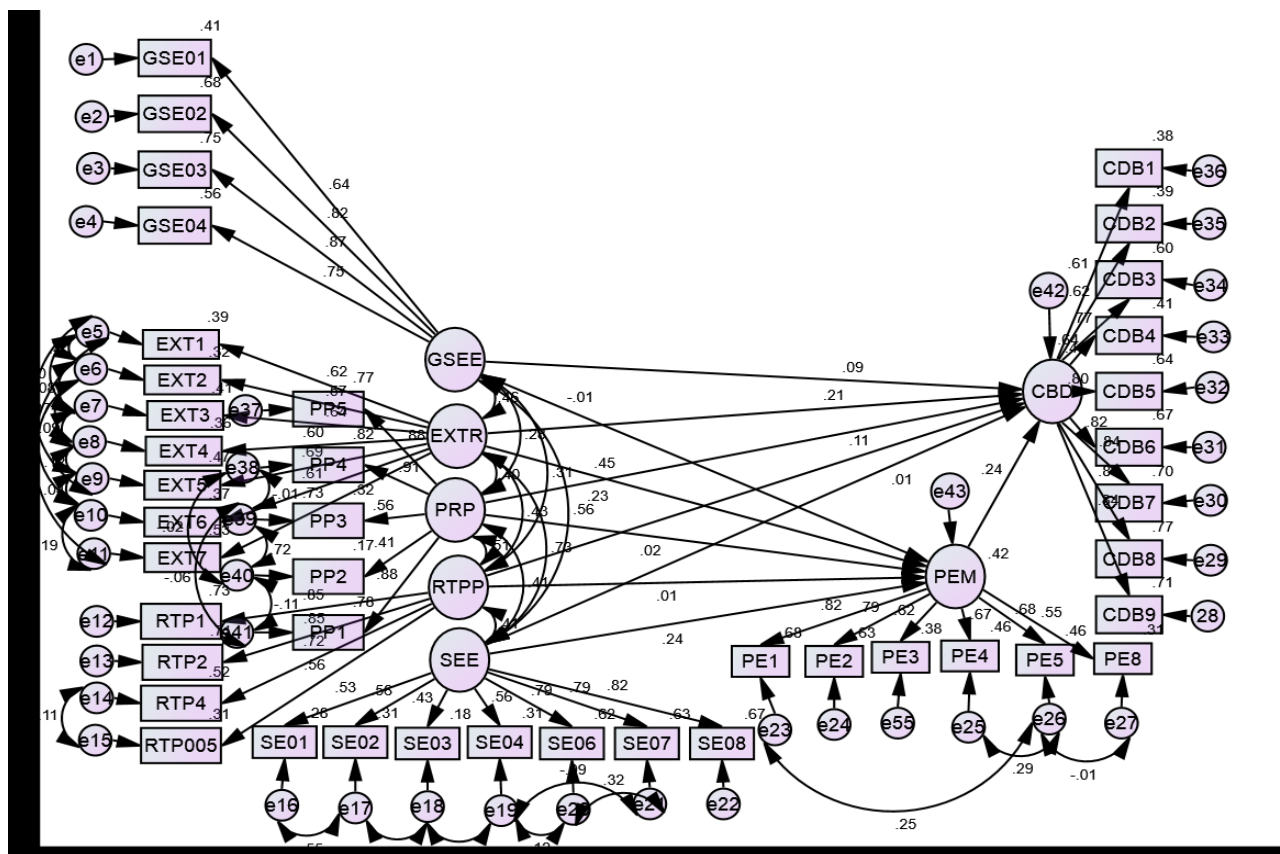


Figure 13. Model fitness of Structural Model of Model 2 after Modification indices

Table 23 shows the fit indices of the structural model for Model 2 after modification indices and has shown improvement after modification indices. The value of CMIN/DF was 2.799 which is inside the range of 1 and 3 as recommended by Hair et al. (2006). Values of GFI=0.846, AGFI=0.820 are somewhat below the recommended level of 0.90, but the different was not too high and has marginal acceptability (Hair et al. 2006). Moreover, the values of CFI=0.900 and RMSEA=0.057 all were in acceptable range of values as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 23. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
χ^2	2160	
d.f	772	
$\chi^2/d.f$ (CMIN/DF)	2.799	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.00	≤ 0.05
GFI	0.846	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0.820	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.900	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.057	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.28 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)

The standardized direct effect and the standardized indirect effect values have been presented in Table 24.

Table 24. Standard Regression, Direct/Indirect Effect

Relationship (s)	Estimate (β)	P Value	Significance
Standardized Direct Effect			
PE<--- GSE	.033	0.588	Insignificant
PE<--- EXT	.410**	0.001	Significant
PE<--- RTP	.049	0.464	Insignificant
PE<--- SE	.327**	0.001	Significant
PE<--- PP	.049	0.380	Insignificant
CDB<--- GSE	0.105	0.074	Insignificant
CDB<--- EXT	0.196**	0.005	Significant
CDB<--- RTP	0.137**	0.045	Significant
CDB<--- SE	0.076	0.262	Insignificant
CDB<--- PP	0.263**	0.001	Significant
CDB<--- PE	0.245**	0.001	Significant
Standardized Indirect Effect			
CDB<--- GSE	0.009	0.516	Insignificant
CDB<--- EXT	0.107**	0.000	Significant
CDB<--- RTP	0.013	0.385	Insignificant
CDB<--- SE	0.086**	0.000	Significant
CDB<--- PP	0.013	0.314	Insignificant

Notes: ** $p < 0.01$, CDB, Constructive Deviance Behaviors; GSE, Generalized Self-Efficacy; PE, Psychological Empowerment; SE, Self-Esteem; EXT, Extraversion; RTP, Risk-Taking Propensity; PP, Proactive Personality

The standardized direct effect values shown in table 24 shows that EXT (Extraversion) had a positive and significant impact with beta values of 0.410 on PE (Psychological Empowerment) and 0.107 on CDB. This means that a change of 1 standard deviation in EXT will result in 0.410 deviations in PE and 0.107 deviations in CDB. Similarly SE (Self Esteem) had a positive and significant impact of 0.327 on PE (Psychological Empowerment), and a 1 standard deviation change in SE will result in 0.327 deviations in PE, while the SE had an insignificant impact on CDB. Other than this all the remaining constructs viz-a-viz GSE (Generalized Self-Efficacy), RTP (Risk-taking Propensity) and PP (Proactive Personality) had insignificant impact on PE (Psychological Empowerment) and CDB (CDB). PE (Psychological empowerment) also had a significant impact on CDB.

Only SE (Self-Esteem) and EXT (Extraversion) had a positive and significant indirect standardized effect on CDB. The indirect impact of SE on CDB was 0.086, while the indirect effect of EXT on CDB was 0.107, the p-values of both of which were less than 0.05. So this

means that PE (Psychological Empowerment) mediated between the relationship of SE and CDB and the relationship of EXT and CDB because the p value of the indirect effect of SE and EXT on CDB through PE were less than 0.05 as evident in the table ----. The type of mediation between SE and CDB was full mediation because the direct relationship between SE and CDB (Path c) became insignificant with beta value of 0.076 with its p value of 0.262 which is greater than 0.05, while type of mediation between EXT and CDB is partial mediation because the standardized direct effect of EXT on CDB was still significant. However, according to Preacher & Hayes (2007), to establish mediation, the indirect path should be significant. If the indirect path is significant then there is no need to focus on the direct path as these scholars do not talk about partial mediation.

Other than SE and EXT, all the other constructs such as GSE (Generalized Self-Efficacy), RTP (Risk-taking Propensity) and PP (Proactive Personality) had no relationship with the mediating variable PE (Psychological Empowerment) as the p-values of their direct effect on PE were greater than 0.05 and were all insignificant. So PE did not mediate between GSE, RTP, PP and CDB, because these constructs were not significantly related with PE as shown in Table 24.

4.29 Path Model for Model 3 (Mediation)

Figure 14 shows the structural model of Model 3 showing the mediational roles of Employees Creative Performance and Employees Innovative Performance between the relationship of CDB and POP.

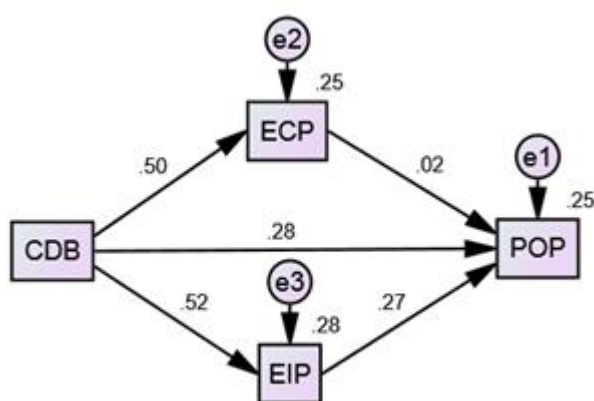


Figure 14. Path Model for Model 3 (Mediation)

4.30 Model fitness of Path Model of Model 3:

Table 25 shows the fit indices of the structural model for Model 3 after modification indices and has shown improvement after modification indices. The value of CMIN/DF was 3.196 which is not very high from the recommended of 3 by Hair et al. (2006). Values of GFI=0.997, AGFI=0.965 are somewhat below the recommended level of 0.90, but the different was not too high and has marginal acceptability (Hair et al. 2006). Moreover, the values of CFI=0.994 and RMSEA=0.072 all were in acceptable range of values as suggested by Hair et al. (2006).

Table 25. Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices	Values	Threshold values
(CMIN) χ^2	3.196	
d.f	1	
χ^2 /d.f (CMIN/DF)	3.196	$\geq 1 \leq 3$
P value	0.046	≤ 0.05
GFI	0.997	No established threshold, the higher the better fit
AGFI	0.965	≥ 0.90
CFI	0.994	≥ 0.90
RMSEA	0.072	≤ 0.08

Notes: d.f, degree of freedom; GFI, Goodness of Fit Index; RFI, Relative Fit Index; CFI, Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.31 Standardized Parameter Estimates (Mediation Results)

The standardized direct effect and the standardized indirect effect values have been presented in Table 26.

Table 26. Standard Regression, Direct/Indirect Effect

Relationship (s)	Estimate (β)	P Value	Significance
Standardized Direct Effect			
EIP<--- CDB	.525**	0.001	Significant
ECP<--- CDB	.499**	0.002	Significant
POP<--- CDB	.285**	0.001	Significant
POP<--- EIP	.271**	0.001	Significant
POP<--- ECP	.022	0.640	Insignificant
Standardized Indirect Effect			
POP<--- CDB	0.153	0.001	Significant

Notes: **p<0.01; CDB, Constructive Deviance Behaviors; EIP, Employee Innovative Performance; ECP, Employee Creative Performance; POP, Perceived Organizational Performance

The standardized direct effect values shown in table 26 shows that CDB had a positive and significant impact with beta values of 0.525 on EIP, 0.499 on ECP and 0.285 on POP with

p-value of 0.001, 0.002 and 0.001 respectively, all of which are less than 0.05. Which means that a change of 1 standard deviation in CDB will result in 0.525, 0.499 and 0.285 deviations respectively in EIP, ECP and POP. Similarly EIP had a significant impact on POP with beta value of 0.271 and a significant p-value of 0.001, which means that change of 1 standard deviation in EIP, will result in 0.271 standard deviations in POP. However, ECP had an insignificant impact on POP with beta value of 0.022 and p-value of 0.644 which is greater than 0.05.

The indirect effect of CDB on POP was significant with beta value of 0.153 and p-value of 0.001, which proved that mediation occurs between CDB and POP. As the relationship between EIP and CDB is significant, therefore EIP mediated between the relationship of CDB and POP. However, ECP did not mediate between CDB and POP because ECP had an insignificant relationship with POP.

As the indirect path between CDB and POP through EIP was significant that's why mediation occurs and as according to Preacher & Hayes (2007), to establish mediation, the indirect path should be significant and if the indirect path is significant then there is no need to focus on the direct path, as these scholars does not talk about partial mediation.

4.32 Moderated Mediation results

The results of moderated mediation have been present in Table 27 for Model 1. Process software developed by Preacher and Hayes (2017) has been used for conditional process analysis. There were two places in Model 2 where moderated mediation occurred i.e. the moderating effect of CO on the mediational influence of PE on the association of SE and CDB and the moderating effect of CO on the mediational influence of PE on the association of EXT and CDB. The results of these moderated mediations have been presented in Table 27 and Table 28.

4.32.1 Moderated Mediation for Model 1.

Table 27 presents the moderated mediation results for model 1, where the moderator variable CO (Collectivistic Orientation) moderated the mediating influence of PO (Psychological Ownership) in the connection of P-O FIT and CDB. Figure 15 shows the moderated mediation model of the Model 1.

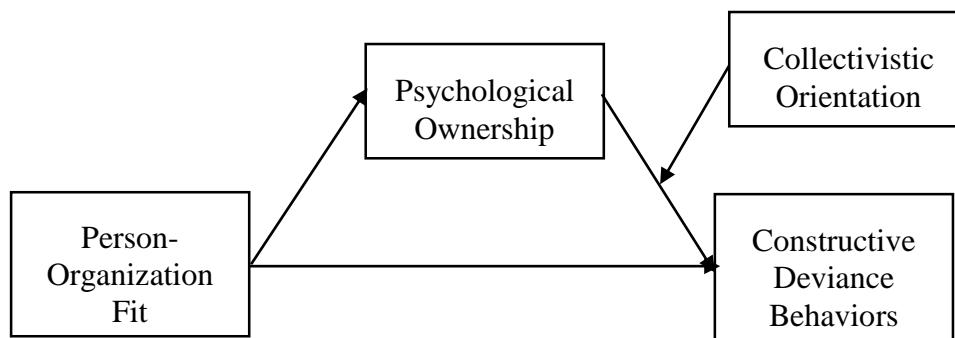


Figure 15. Moderated Mediation (Model 1)

Table 27. Moderated Mediation (Model 1)

Relationship	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	t	p
CDB<---POF	.092**	.030	.031	.152	2.978	.003
CDB<---PO	.693**	.133	.430	.956	5.177	.000
CDB<---CO	.807**	.125	.561	1.053	6.438	.000
CDB<---	-	.027	-.146	-.036	-3.274	.001
Int_1 (PO×CO)	.091**					
Direct Effect						
CDB<---POF	.092**	.030	.031	.152	2.978	.003
Indirect Effect at the values of the moderator						
	CO	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
	(Moderator)					
POF-->PO-->	3.500	.085	.017	.054	.122	
CDB	4.750	.059	.014	.034	.088	
	6.000	.033	.015	.004	.064	

Notes: **p<0.01

Table 27 shows the results of moderated mediation for model 1, which shows that POF (Independent Variable), PO (Mediating Variable) and CO (Moderating Variable) all had a significant impact on CDB (Dependent Variable) with p-values less than 0.05 and t-values greater than 2. The results of that the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PO×CO) also had a significant but negative impact with beta value of -0.091, t-value of -3.274 and p-value of 0.001, which shows that CO (Collectivist Orientation) moderates the relationship of PO (Psychological Ownership) and CDB.

For moderated mediation, the indirect effect at the values of moderator in Table 27 shows that the moderator CO negatively moderates the mediational effect of PO on the

relationship of POF (Person-Organizational Fit) and CDB. The indirect effect at the values of moderator shows that the indirect effect (i.e. beta values reduces from 0.085 to 0.059 and to 0.033 with the increasing moderator (CO) values of 3.5, 4.7 and 6.0 respectively) reduces with the increasing value of moderator (i.e. CO).

4.32.2 Moderated Mediation for Model 2 (1).

Table 28 presents the moderated mediation results of Model 2 where the moderated variable CO (Collectivist Orientation) moderated the mediating effect of PE (Psychological Empowerment) on the connection of SE (Self-Esteem) and CDB. Figure 16 shows the moderated mediation model for Model 2 (1).

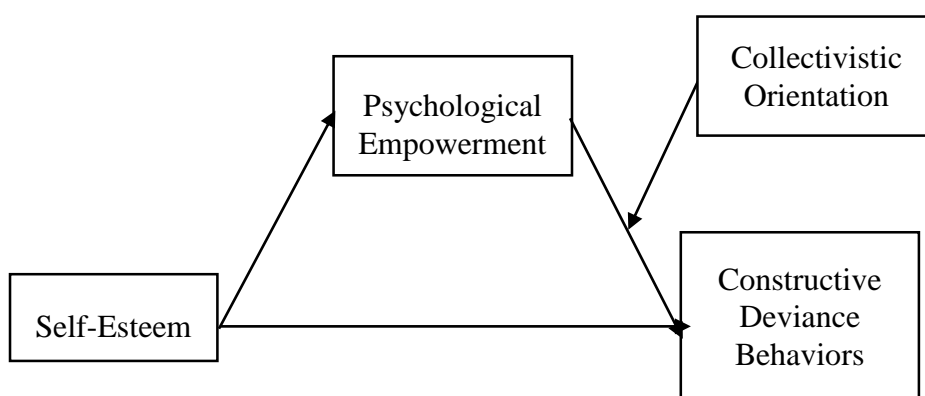


Figure 16. Moderated Mediation Model 2(1)

Table 28. Moderated Mediation Model 2(1)

Relationship	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	t	p
CDB<---SE	.151**	.041	.068	.233	3.615	.000
CDB<---PE	.664**	.120	.428	.899	5.530	.000
CDB<---CO	.755**	.129	.500	1.011	5.816	.000
CDB<--- Int_1 (PE×CO)	-.089**	.025	-.1396	-.039	-3.495	.000
Direct Effect						
CDB<---SE	.151**	.041	.068	.233	3.615	.000
Indirect Effect at the values of the moderator						
	CO	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
	(Moderator)					
SE-->PE--> CDB	3.500	.176	.034	.110	.242	
	4.750	.120	.028	.066	.177	
	6.000	.064	.034	.001	.135	

Notes: **p<0.01

Table 28 shows the moderated mediation results for model 2 (1), which shows that SE (Independent Variable), PE (Mediating Variable) and CO (Moderating Variable) all had a significant impact on CDB (Dependent Variable) with p-values less than 0.05 and t-values greater than 2. The results of the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PE×CO) also had a significant but negative impact with beta value of -0.089, t-value of -3.495 and p-value of 0.000, which shows that CO (Collectivist Orientation) moderates the association of PE (Psychological Empowerment) and CDB.

For establishing moderated mediation, the indirect impact at the values of moderator in Table 28 shows that the moderator (CO) negatively moderates the mediational influence of PE on the association of SE (Self Esteem) and CDB. The indirect effect at the values of moderator shows that the indirect effect (i.e. beta values reduces from 0.176 to 0.120 and to 0.064 with the increasing moderator (CO) values of 3.5, 4.7 and 6.0 respectively) reduces with the increasing value of moderator (i.e. CO).

4.32.3 Moderated Mediation for Model 2(2).

Table 29 presents the moderated mediation results of the model 2 where the moderating variable CO (Collectivist Orientation) is moderating the mediational impact of PE (Psychological Empowerment) on the association of EXT (Extraversion) and CDB. Figure 17 presents the moderated mediation model of Model 2 (2).

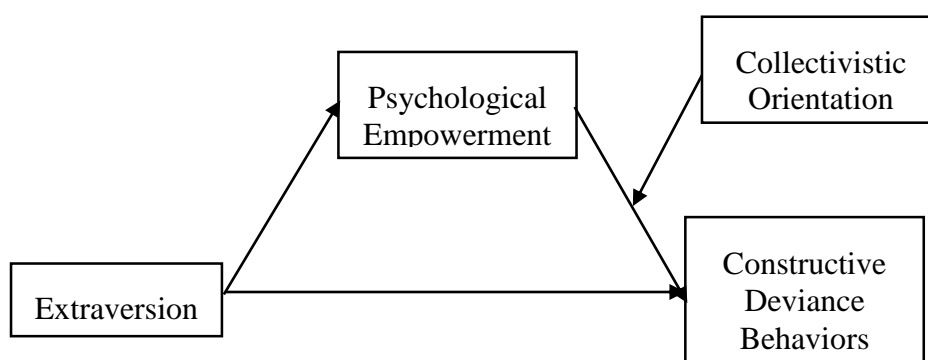


Figure 17. Moderated Mediation Model 2 (2)

Table 29. Moderated Mediation Results for Model 2 (2)

Relationship	Effect	SE	LLCI	ULCI	t	p
CDB<---EXT	.258**	.044	.170	.346	5.748	.000
CDB<---PE	.579**	.119	.344	.814	4.847	.000
CDB<---CO	.703**	.128	.451	.955	5.481	.000
CDB<--- Int_1 (PE×CO)	-.081**	.025	-.130	-.031	-3.221	.001
Direct Effect						
CDB<---EXT	.258**	.044	.170	.346	5.748	.000
Indirect Effect at the values of the moderator						
	CO (Moderator)	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI	
EXT-->PE--> CDB	3.500	.171	.036	.100	.241	
	4.750	.112	.029	.056	.172	
	6.000	.053	.036	-.016	.127	

Notes: **p<0.01

Table 29 shows the moderated mediation results for model 2 (1), which shows that EXT (Independent Variable), PE (Mediating Variable) and CO (Moderating Variable) all had a significant impact on CDB (Dependent Variable) with p-values less than 0.05 and t-values greater than 2. The results of the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PE×CO) also had a significant but negative impact with beta value of -0.081, t-value of -3.221 and p-value of 0.001, which shows that CO (Collectivist Orientation) moderates relationship the PE (Psychological Empowerment) and CDB.

For establishing moderated mediation, the indirect effect at the values of moderator in Table 29 shows that the moderator (CO) negatively moderated the mediational impact of PE on the connection of EXT (Extraversion) and CDB. The indirect impact at the values of moderator shows that the indirect effect (i.e. beta values reduced from 0.171 to 0.112 and to 0.053 with the increasing moderator (CO) values of 3.5, 4.7 and 6.0 respectively) reduced with the increasing value of moderator (i.e. CO).

4.33 Summary of hypothesis

Table 30 shows the summary of the accepted or rejected hypothesis.

Table 30. Summary of hypotheses

Hypothesis Number	Hypothesis	Accepted /Rejected
H1	Psychological Ownership mediates between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB.	Accepted

H2	Collectivist Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Ownership and CDB.	Accepted
H3	Collectivist orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of psychological ownership between P-O FIT and CDB.	Accepted
H4	The relationship of GSE and CDB is mediated by Psychological Empowerment.	Rejected
H5	Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB.	Accepted
H6	Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of RTP and CDB.	Rejected
H7	Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Extraversion and CDB.	Accepted
H8	Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Proactive Personality and CDB.	Rejected
H9	Collective Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Empowerment and CDB.	Accepted
H10	Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between GSE and CDB.	Rejected
H11	Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Self-Esteem and CDB.	Accepted
H12	Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between RTP and CDB.	Rejected
H13	Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Extraversion and CDB.	Accepted
H14	Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Proactive Personality and CDB.	Rejected
H15	ECP mediates the relationship of CDB and POP.	Rejected
H16	EIP mediates the relationship of CDB and POP.	Accepted

Table 30 shows that the total number of accepted hypotheses was 9 out of total 16 hypotheses however; the total number of rejected hypothesis was 7.

Chapter 5

Discussions and Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study, discussion on results of hypotheses, limitations and delimitation of the study, academic and practical implications of the study. Lastly the chapter presents the future research recommendations of the study.

The main objective of the current study was to investigate the antecedents and consequences of CDB i.e. to check the mediating role of psychological ownership between P-O FIT and CDB, and to analyse the mediating effect of psychological empowerment between the association of variables (i.e. self-esteem, extraversion, RTP, GSE and proactive personality) with CDB and then examine the mediating roles of ECP and EIP between CDB and POP. To achieve this objective a number of hypothesis have been suggested after reviewing the literature, which have been tested and the detailed discuss related to these hypothesis have been given below.

5.2 Hypothesis 1

H1: Psychological Ownership mediates between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB.

5.2.1 Result summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H1) shows that psychological ownership significantly and positively mediates between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB. So the hypothesis (H1) was accepted.

5.2.2 Discussion.

The result of H1 shows that P-O FIT, CDB and Psychological Ownership were positively and significantly related to each other. Moreover, Psychological Ownership mediated between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB, which means that the more there is a good fit between the organization and the individual's characteristics; the more the individual psychologically owns the organization and can perform CDB. Although studies on the direct association of P-O FIT and CDB are very scarce, however the result of H1 of the current study confirms the result of the study of Chung & Moon (2011) which also argued that psychological ownership and CDB are positively correlated with each other. Yildiz et al. (2015) also proposed

the positive mediational role of psychological ownership between P-O FIT and CDB. Moreover other studies (Vanderwelle et al., 1995; Van Dayne & Peirce, 2009; Avey et al., 2009) argued that psychological ownership was positively correlated to extra-role behaviours and Organizational Citizenship Behavior which are also types of CDB and also violate the norms of the organization or their job descriptions for the betterment of the organization. Moreover, according to Yildiz et al. (2015), individuals with high psychological ownership are likely to act more responsible and perform CDB such as reporting the wrongdoings of co-workers. Hence Stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman, and Donaldson, 1997) supports the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB, because individuals with high psychological ownership consider themselves as stewards of the organization and act for the betterment of the organization.

5.3 Hypothesis 2

H2: Collectivist Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Ownership and CDB.

5.3.1 Result Summary.

After statistically testing the hypothesis the above hypothesis, the results shows that collectivist orientation significantly and negatively moderated the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB. So the hypothesis (H2) was accepted.

5.3.2 Discussion.

The result of H2 shows that Collectivistic Orientation, Psychological Ownership and CDB were significantly correlated with each other. However, the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PO×CO) had a negative and significant impact on CDB. Which means that collectivist orientation negatively moderated the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB? I.e. Collectivist Orientation reduces the strength of the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB. So the more there is collectivistic orientation in organization, the more there will be less CDB, because CDB violates the organizational norms and values while collectivist do not violate the norms of the organization and do not separate their selves from their team or group (Kitayama, Markus, & Lieberman, 1995). Moreover the study of Chung and Moon (2011) also reported that collectivist orientation negatively moderates the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB, which confirms the result of the current study.

5.4 Hypothesis 3 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H3: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of psychological ownership between P-O FIT and CDB.

5.4.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H3) shows that collectivist orientation negatively and significantly moderated the mediational influence of psychological ownership between the connection of P-O FIT and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H3) was accepted.

5.4.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation (H3) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating role of psychological ownership in the association of P-O fit and CDB shows that collectivist orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of psychological ownership between person-organization and CDB. This shows that collectivist orientation reduces the mediation effect of psychological ownership on the association of P-O fit and CDB. This shows that the more there is a good fit between the person's characteristics and the organization, the more the individual will psychologically own the organization and the more the individual will be willing to take risks (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001) and the more the individual will engage in CDB (Chung & Moon, 2011). However, if the orientation of the organization is collectivist, it will reduce the mediational influence of psychological ownership between the P-O FIT and CDB, because collectivist individuals engage only in those behaviours which are beneficial for the organization like organization citizenship behaviours (Van Dyne et.al, 2000), strictly adhere to organizational norms, policies and values (Kim et al., 1994) and do not engage in CDB because the CDB violates the norms and values of the organization. So the more there is collectivist orientation in organization the more the psychological ownership will not result in deviance behaviours and vice versa. This also confirms the result of the study of Chung and Moon, (2011) which also established that collectivist orientation buffer the association between psychological ownership and CDB.

5.5 Hypothesis 4

H4: Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of GSE and CDB.

5.5.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H4) shows that Psychological empowerment does not mediate between GSE and CDB. So the hypothesis (H4) was rejected.

5.5.2 Discussion.

The result of the mediational effect of Psychological Empowerment among GSE and CDB shows that GSE had an insignificant impact on Psychological Empowerment. That's why psychological empowerment does not mediate between GSE and CDB. Moreover, the mediational influence of psychological empowerment between the link of GSE and CDB have not been tested before and the explicit theoretical support be not be found to check for the comparison of the result of the current study. However, the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of GSE and CDB has been implicitly discussed in previous studies (e.g. Park & Blekinsopp, 2009; Withey & Cooper, 1989) and suggested the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the association of GSE and CDB.

5.6 Hypothesis 5

H5: Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB.

5.6.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H5) shows that psychological empowerment significantly and positively mediates between the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB. So the hypothesis (H5) was accepted.

5.6.2 Discussion.

The result of H5 shows that Self-Esteem, Psychological Empowerment and CDB were significantly and positively associated with each other. Moreover, Psychological Empowerment mediated between the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB, which means that the more an individual has self-esteem, the more the individual will feel psychologically empowered (Spreitzer, 1995; Judge & Hurst, 2007) and the more he will perform CDB (Spreitzer, 2008). Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of self-esteem and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of the mediational effect of psychological empowerment

between the association of self-esteem and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g. Morrison & Phelp, 1999; Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of self-esteem and CDB.

5.7 Hypothesis 6

H6: Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of RTP and CDB.

5.7.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H6) shows that Psychological empowerment does not mediate between RTP and CDB. So the hypothesis (H6) was rejected.

5.7.2 Discussion.

The result of the mediational effect of Psychological Empowerment between RTP and CDB shows that RTP had an insignificant impact on Psychological Empowerment. That's why psychological empowerment does not mediate between RTP and CDB. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g. Madjar, Greenberg & Chen, 2011; Morrison, 2006) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB.

5.8 Hypothesis 7

H7: Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Extraversion and CDB.

5.8.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H7) shows that psychological empowerment significantly and positively mediates between the relationship of Extraversion and CDB. So the H7 was accepted.

5.8.2 Discussion.

The result of H7 shows that Extraversion, Psychological Empowerment and CDB were significantly and positively associated with one another. Moreover, Psychological Empowerment mediated between the relationship of Extraversion and CDB, which means that the more an individual is social, enthusiastic and talkative, the more the individual will feel psychologically empowered (Ford et al., 1995; Rodriguez-llewell, 2008) and the more the individual will engage in CDB (Spreitzer, 2008). Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g. Taggar, 2002; Crant et al., 2011) which suggested the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the association of extraversion and CDB.

5.9 Hypothesis 8

H8: Psychological Empowerment mediates the relationship of Proactive Personality and CDB.

5.9.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H8) shows that Psychological empowerment does not mediate among Proactive Personality and CDB. So the hypothesis (H4) was rejected.

5.9.2 Discussion.

The result of the mediational effect of Psychological Empowerment among Proactive Personality and CDB shows that Proactive Personality had an insignificant impact on Psychological Empowerment. That's why psychological empowerment does not mediate between Proactive Personality and CDB. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the connection of proactive personality and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of proactive personality and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies

(e.g Miceli, Near & Rehg, 2001; Crant et al., 2011) which suggested the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of Proactive personality and CDB.

5.10 Hypothesis 9

H9: Collective Orientation moderates the relationship of Psychological Empowerment and CDB.

5.10.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H9) shows that Collectivist Orientation moderates the relationship of psychological empowerment and CDB.

The results of the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PE×CO) also had a significant but negative impact with beta value of -0.089, t-value of -3.495 and p-value of 0.000, which shows that CO (Collectivist Orientation) moderates the relationship of PE (Psychological Empowerment) and CDB. So the Hypothesis H9 was accepted.

5.10.2 Discussion.

The result of H9 shows that Collectivistic Orientation, Psychological empowerment and CDB were significantly correlated with each other. However, the interaction term i.e. Int_1 (PE×CO) had a negative and significant impact on CDB. Which means that collectivist orientation negatively moderated the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB? I.e. Collectivist Orientation lessens the magnitude of the association of psychological empowerment and CDB. So the more there is collectivistic orientation in organization, the more there will be less CDB, because CDB violates the organizational norms and values while collectivist do not violate the norms of the organization and do not separate their selves from their team or group (Kitayama, Markus, & Lieberman, 1995) and engage only in those behaviours which are beneficial for the organization like organization citizenship behaviours (Van Dyne et.al, 2000). Moreover, the result of moderating impact of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological empowerment and CDB of the current study also confirm the result of Cho and Faerman (2010) which also established that collectivist orientation negatively moderates the relationship of psychological empowerment and CDB.

5.11 Hypothesis 10 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H10: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between GSE and CDB.

5.11.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H10) shows that collectivist orientation did not moderate the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of GSE and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H10) was rejected.

5.11.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation (H10) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating effect of psychological Empowerment in the relationship of person-GSE and CDB shows that collectivist orientation did not moderate the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between GSE and CDB. The reason for this is that Psychological empowerment did not mediate between GSE and CDB. Moreover, the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of GSE and CDB have not been tested before and the explicit theoretical support be not be found to check for the comparison of the result of the current study. However, the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of GSE and CDB has been implicitly discussed in previous studies (e.g. Park & Blekinsopp, 2009; Withey & Cooper, 1989) and suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of GSE and CDB.

5.12 Hypothesis 11 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H11: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Self-Esteem and CDB.

5.12.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H11) shows that Collectivist Orientation negatively and significantly moderated the mediational impact of psychological empowerment between the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H11) was accepted.

5.12.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation hypothesis (H11) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating effect of psychological Empowerment in the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB shows that collectivist orientation negatively moderates the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between Self-Esteem and CDB. This shows that collectivist orientation reduces the mediation effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship of Self-Esteem and CDB. This shows that the more an individual has high self-esteem or self-worth, the more the individual will feel psychologically empowered (Spreitzer, 1995; Judge & Hurst, 2007) and the more the individual will engage in CDB (Spreitzer, 2008). However, if the orientation of the organization is collectivist, it will reduce the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the self-esteem and CDB, because collectivist individuals engage only in those behaviours which are beneficial for the organization like organization citizenship behaviours (Van Dyne et.al, 2000), strictly adhere to organizational norms, policies and values (Kim et al., 1994) and do not engage in CDB because the CDB violates the norms and values of the organization. So the more there is collectivist orientation in organization the more the psychological empowerment will not result in deviance behaviours and vice versa. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the moderating effect of collectivistic Orientation on mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of self-esteem and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of moderating effect of Collectivist Orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of self-esteem and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrision & Phelp, 1999; Liao, Liu & Loi, 2010) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of self-esteem and CDB.

5.13 Hypothesis 12 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H12: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between RTP and CDB.

5.13.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H12) shows that Collectivist Orientation did not moderate the mediational effect of psychological

empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H12) was rejected.

5.13.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation (H12) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating role of psychological Empowerment in the relationship of RTP and CDB shows that collectivist orientation did not moderate the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the moderating effect of collectivistic Orientation on mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of moderating effect of Collectivist Orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g Madjar, Greenberg & Chen, 2011; Morrison, 2006) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of RTP and CDB.

5.14 Hypothesis 13 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H13: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Extraversion and CDB.

5.14.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H13) shows that Collectivist Orientation negatively and significantly moderated the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of Extraversion and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H13) was accepted.

5.14.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation (H13) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating role of psychological Empowerment in the relationship of Extraversion and CDB shows that collectivist orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of psychological empowerment between Extraversion and CDB. This shows that collectivist orientation reduces the mediation effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship of Extraversion and CDB. This shows that the more an individual is social, enthusiastic and talkative, the more the individual will feel psychologically empowered (Ford

et al., 1995; Rodriguez-Illuel, 2008) and the more the individual will engage in CDB (Spreitzer, 2008). However, if the orientation of the organization is collectivist, it will reduce the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the self-esteem and CDB, because collectivist individuals engage only in those behaviours which are beneficial for the organization like organization citizenship behaviours (Van Dyne et.al, 2000), strictly adhere to organizational norms, policies and values (Kim et al., 1994) and do not engage in CDB because the CDB violates the norms and values of the organization. So the more there is collectivist orientation in organization the more the psychological empowerment will not result in deviance behaviours and vice versa. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the moderating effect of collectivistic Orientation on mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of moderating effect of Collectivist Orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g LePine & Van Dyne, 2001; Taggar, 2002; Crant et al., 2011) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB.

5.15 Hypothesis 14 (Moderated Mediation Hypothesis)

H14: Collectivist Orientation negatively moderates the mediational role of Psychological Empowerment between Proactive Personality and CDB.

5.15.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H14) shows that Collectivist Orientation did not moderate the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of Proactive Personality and CDB. So the Hypothesis (H14) was rejected.

5.15.2 Discussion.

The result of moderated mediation (H14) having collectivist orientation as moderating variable on the mediating role of psychological Empowerment in the relationship of Proactive Personality and CDB shows that collectivist orientation did not moderate the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of Proactive Personality and CDB. Moreover, no explicit theoretical support on the moderating effect of collectivistic Orientation on mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of proactive

personality and CDB could be found to check for comparison of the results of moderating effect of Collectivist Orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the relationship of proactive personality and CDB of the current study. However, only implicit theoretical support was found in previous studies (e.g. Miceli, Near & Rehg, 2001; Crant et al., 2011) which suggested the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of Proactive personality and CDB.

5.16 Hypothesis 15

H15: ECP mediates the relationship of CDB and POP.

5.16.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H15) shows that ECP did not mediate between the relationship of CDB and POP. So the Hypothesis (H15) was rejected.

5.16.2 Discussion.

The result of the mediational effect of ECP between the relationship of CDB and POP shows that ECP did not mediate between CDB and POP, and the reason for this is that result shows that ECP has an insignificant relationship with POP. Despite of the importance of creativity for improving the performance of the organization, work on the relationship of creativity and organizational performance is very scarce (Gilson, 2008). The result of the current study of the relationship of ECP and POP confirms the result of the previous (e.g. Harper & Becker, 2004; Von Nordenflycht, 2007) which reported insignificant relationship between Employee Creativity and Organizational Performance.

5.17 Hypothesis 16

H16: EIP mediates the relationship of CDB and POP.

5.17.1 Result Summary.

The above hypothesis has been tested and the statistical results of the hypothesis (H16) shows that EIP mediates between the relationship of CDB and POP. So the Hypothesis (H16) was accepted.

5.17.2 Discussion.

The result of the mediational effect of EIP among the relationship of CDB and POP shows that EIP mediated between the relationship of CDB and POP. This means that the more the employees of the organization are innovative, the more CDB will result in increased organizational performance, because previous studies (e.g Zahra, de Belardino & Box, 1988; Damanpour, Zsabat & Evan, 1989; Damanpour & Evan, 1984; Khan & Manopichetwattana, 1989) reported positive relationship between EIP and CDB. Hence, CDB of employee enhance the innovative performance, which consequently improves the performance of the organization because employee's ability to engage in innovation-related behaviours is critically important for the success of the organization (Ng & Feldman, 2010).

5.18 Discussion on the concept of moderated mediation or conditional indirect effect.

The concept of moderated mediation can be found in literature. The term moderated mediation was first introduced by James and Brett in 1984, for the purpose of explaining the situation in which a moderator is introduced in a mediation model. The basic concept of moderated mediation is the moderation of mediational effect/indirect effect or it occurs when an indirect effect between two variables is moderated by another variable. Due to the addition of a moderating variable in the indirect effect, the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependant variable changes with the values of the moderator being added i.e. the Strength of the indirect effect is dependent on the values of the moderator. The combination of mediation and moderation are not new and has been discussed by many scholars in the past. Scholars such as Judd and Kenny (1981) and Baron and Kenny (1986) were among the early scholars who discussed the concept of moderated mediation. But a more comprehensive methodology for the analysis of such concepts have been provided in recent studies (such as Langfred, 2004; Muller, Judd & Yzerbyt, 2005; Hayes, 2013 and Hayes & Preacher, 2013).

Langfred (2004) was the first scholar who provided a comprehensive approach on conceptualizing moderated mediation, classification of different moderated mediation models and on the statistical analysis of such models. He also gave a comprehensive answer of the question of how to make logic for the statistical analysis of such models. Muller et al. (2005) introduced different models of moderated mediation and mediation moderation and explained the steps to analyse such models. Edwards and Lambert (2007) worked on the path analysis method of moderated mediation. The term conditional indirect effect was first coined by Preacher, Rucker & Hayes (2007) who provided formal definition and formulas for the analysis

of conditional indirect effects. They also introduced bootstrap approach and five different models to estimate and test the moderated mediation hypothesis. Similarly Fairchild and Mackinnon (2009) also worked on different analytical approaches to estimate different hypothesis of moderated mediation and mediated moderation. However, Hayes (2013) and Hayes & Preacher (2013) used the SEM technique to analyse the models of mediated moderation and moderated mediation and introduced the term “conditional process modelling”.

5.19 Discussion on moderated mediation results of the current study.

Results of the study shows that psychological empowerment mediates the association of self-esteem and CDB because the more the individual has self-esteem/self-worth; the more he/she will be psychologically empowered which will give him/her the confidence and courage of engaging in CDB. However, collectivist orientation buffers or reduces the mediational effect of psychological empowerment on the association of self-esteem and CDB because collectivist individuals prefer to behave according the norms, policies and values of the organization and do not engage in deviance behaviours as they violate the organizational norms, policies and values. So in the presence of collectivist orientation, psychological empowerment will less likely result in the performance of CDB even if the individual has a high self-esteem. Similarly, the result of the study also confirms that collectivist orientation reduces the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of extraversion and CDB.

5.20 Practical Implications of the study

The current study presents various important implications for the managers and organizations as a whole. Deviance behaviours by its very nature indicate negative behaviours which can be detrimental for the organization. The study creates awareness about the concept of CDB and its benefit for the organization. The study presents the benefits of allowing the employees to be constructively deviant by establishing its relationship with creative and innovative performance of employees and then consequently to organizational performance.

It is a general observation that employee who show deviation and do not show conformity are the most critically important members of the organization. The deviance behaviour of the employees on any organizational related decision gives an indication that those employee at-least think on the matters or decisions of the organization and do not always ignore what happens in the organization. This CDB is becoming an important and unavoidable reality of the organizations and is becoming important day by day for the organization who

want to enhance their performance and do better than their competitors because the pressure of conformity do not let the employees to showcase their skills for which they need to violate organizational policies, rules and regulations. Therefore, it is very important for organizations to break out of the barrier of conformity and let their employee to innovate things. The employee who are deviant by nature also gives an indication that they always strive for challenging the status quo and do something different for the organization. Because it is mostly observed that employees who break the laws of the organization, challenge the status quo, can prove to be the greatest catalyst for the organizations to excel and do better.

The employee who deviates can also prove to be a good change agent for the organization and set a trend that can be for the betterment of the organization and can motivate and encourage other employees to do something new and extra for the organization. Moreover, the deviance behaviour of employees also gives an indication that the employee are not showing premature agreement on every matter of the organization and critically analyse and think over the matters of the organization. Secondly new ways of thinking and new ways of doing business can also be encourage through accommodating a litter deviance behaviours of employees which can be for the wellbeing of the organizations. Another need of the time is that instead of punishing them due to any non-conformity, the organizations need to properly channel the skills and abilities of those employees who are deviant by nature. The method of channelling these deviant behaviours of employees is to first identify those employee who show deviance behaviours and then should be properly supervised and guided for channelling their “out of the box” thinking and actions.

Despite of the fact that destructive deviance is one of the serious problems almost all the organizations are feeling and is very usual and pervasive in organizations. According to a report of National Institute of Occupational Health and Safety, US about deviance behaviour in US organizations, about 70% of the employees are engaged in some kinds of deviance behaviours (such as loosing temper), about 2 million people get affected due to these deviant and bully behaviours while about 4.2 billion dollars loss in productivity is reported in the year 2017. Apart from this other different costs can also be incurred to the organization. For example, any deviant behaviour can destroy the reputation of the organization if the matter reach public. Similarly, other employees may lose morale and as a result can lead to increased rate of absenteeism and turnover.

So destructive deviance behaviours is a reality but due to the changing nature of businesses, adoption of new ways and thinking is critical is very important for organizations to place themselves in the new world economy. For this creative and innovative thinking is desirable to lead the organizations and win the competition for the organizations in this new “creativity economy”. So this is very intricate and complex matter because of organizations utilize most of their time in identifying deviant individuals and then punishing them or through any means attempt to reduce deviance behaviours in the organization and do not differentiate CDB from destructive deviance and do not get benefit from CDB of employees they may lag behind in winning competition in the current situation due to lack of creativity and innovation. So the importance of decreasing destructive deviance and its potential harms and costs cannot be denied but at the same times it is equally important of organizations to focus their times and energies on the identification of constructively deviant employees and getting the most out of their unorthodox thinking and actions, because these are the people who can bring innovation and creativity in the organizations and play a major role for organizations in the present competitive times. Constructively deviant individuals have an adventurous spirit and unorthodox thinking, and this what they differentiate them for the normal employees, so these adventurous spirits and unorthodox thinking of these employees should be properly managed and utilized. So a balance should be maintained in discouraging the destructive deviance and guiding the constructively deviant members of the organization.

According to a study of Galperin (2012), individuals who are constructively deviant have the traits of extraversion, emotional intelligence, trust and empathy. Emotionally intelligent people have the ability to make connections with people and understand their feelings and emotions. Similarly extrovert people are good at sharing their views and are good in working with people in groups. Constructively deviant individuals also show their trust in people and have empathy to help others and meet their needs. So all these traits are for the benefit of the organization and are desirable traits of individuals working in organizations.

Therefore, managers of the organization should not be concerned about strict adherence to the rules regulations and policies of the organization and should give their employee some freedom to take initiative and do something from their own and something new which might violate the policies or rules regulations of the organization, but for the betterment of the organization. Because working according to the normal job description is not enough, employee have to work sometime beyond what is expected from them and should do something

extra for the benefit of the organization. Moreover, looking at the ranking of Pakistan on the Global Creativity Index (2015), which was 111 out of 139 countries, provides an insight to the managers of organizations about the benefits of CDB and to make them think about the way they manage their employees which eventually will encourage them to let their employees to be creatively deviant sometimes and show their creativity and work for the betterment of the organization.

5.21 Theoretical Implications

Empirical studies on the constructive side of deviance behaviors compared to destructive side have been sparse that's why this study can create further interest of the scholars. This study is the first to empirically test the mediating role of psychological empowerment between various independent variables (self-esteem, extraversion, risk-taking propensity, generalized self-efficacy and proactive personality) and constructive deviance behaviors. Secondly, this study also statistically tests the mediating role of psychological ownership between person-organization fit and constructive deviance behaviors. Since psychological ownership and psychological empowerment both may be considered in its emerging stages of research development, this study may initiate the interest of the scholars to further investigate psychological empowerment and psychological ownership as primary mechanisms to explain why various antecedents (self-esteem, extraversion, generalized self-efficacy, risk-taking propensity, proactive personality and person-organization fit) lead to constructive deviance behaviors.

Moreover, the study empirically tested the mediating role of employee innovative performance between constructive deviance behaviors and perceived organizational performance and proved that constructive deviance behaviors improve the performance of the organization, But constructive deviance behaviors may not always result in improvement of the organizational performance, that's why the other consequences of the constructive deviance behaviours must be considered because it can be proved to be a double edged sword.

5.22 Contribution of the Study

Compared to the research works on destructive deviance behaviours, research works on CDB and related issues have been very limited. That is why this study makes significant contribution on the topic of CDB by contributing in extensive review of literature and results of the study. The study contributes in the existing body of knowledge on the variables involved

in the study and findings of the relationships between variables. For example testing mediation of Psychological ownership between the employee characteristics (self-esteem, RTP, GSE, extraversion, proactive personality) and CDB, testing mediation of psychological ownership among P-O FIT and CDB, testing the moderating role of collectivist orientation on the relationship of psychological ownership and CDB and on the association of psychological empowerment and CDB. The study also contributed by testing mediating role of ECP and EIP between CDB and POP. Some of the contributions of the study are given as follows:

- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment among self-esteem and CDB, which was not empirically tested before.
- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment among GSE and CDB, which was not empirically tested before.
- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment among proactive personality and CDB, which was not empirically tested before.
- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment among extraversion and CDB, which was not empirically tested before.
- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological empowerment among RTP and CDB, which was not empirically tested before.
- The current study statistically examined the mediating effect of psychological ownership among the relationship of P-O fit and CDB.
- The current study estimated the moderating effect of collectivist orientation in the association of psychological ownership and CDB.
- The current study estimated the mediating effect of ECP among CDB and POP.
- The current study estimated the mediating effect of EIP among the association of CDB and POP.
- The current study estimated the moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the mediational effect of psychological empowerment among self-esteem and CDB.
- The current study estimated the moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment among extraversion and CDB.
- The current study estimated the moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between RTP and CDB.
- The current study estimated the moderating role of collectivist orientation on the mediational role of psychological empowerment between GSE and CDB.

- The current study estimated the moderating role of collectivist orientation on the mediational effect of psychological empowerment among proactive personality and CDB.
- The current study estimated the moderating effect of collectivist orientation on the mediational role of psychological ownership among P-O FIT and CDB.

5.23 Limitations of the study

Other than the limitations of time and cost, the current study has other limitations as well which should be considered before drawing any conclusion from the study. These limitations are as follows:

- The first limitation is about the generalizability of the study. The study has been conducted in only one industrial setting i.e. software houses. The present study can be conducted in other industrial settings such as banking, telecommunication and other governmental institutions which will increase the generalizability of the study.
- The population of the study included the software houses operating only in the twin cities of Rawalpindi and Islamabad and can be conducted in other big cities such as Lahore, Peshawar, Karachi, Faisalabad, Quetta etc. to enhance the generalizability of the research instrument.
- The study is cross-sectional in nature and could be conducted by collecting data in multiple different times as longitudinal studies produce more meaningful results.
- Other limitation of the study is collecting the data through a self-report research instrument, which could lead to a single method bias. However, self-report data does not necessarily report wrong results (Spector, 2006). However, data should be collected from multiple sources in future studies for minimization of biasness in results due to single method bias.

5.24 Recommendations

Due to the continuous increase in competition, creativity and innovation are the crucial aspects for winning against your competitors. In order to be creative and innovative, employee may sometime deviate from the norms of the organization. But the managers have to understand that those deviations are for the wellbeing of the organization. Such behavioural deviations which benefit the organization are Constructive Deviance Behavior.

There is no doubt that software development is one of the important strategic industries for the economic growth of any country. According to (Al-Jaghoub 2004, Heeks and Nicholson 2004, Kambhampati 2002), software can prove to act as a catalyst for the economic development of any country. The studies of Acs and Mueller (2006), Bosma (2006) and Stam (2007) also reported positive contribution of software firms in both the knowledge and conventional economies of the country. Software sector of India is excellent example of the positive contribution of software development in almost all industrial sectors of the country (Nasscom, 2006). According to Pakistan Software Export Board (PSEB), Pakistan's IT and ITes export remittances recording at \$1.231 billion during the year 2019, which is very less as compared to India's \$137 billion worth of software exports during the year 2019, which is a mere 5% of the total exports of the country in the year 2019 according to Pakistan Bureau of Statistics Report (2019). Though Pakistan's IT sector is showing growth but still the country is far behind from the regional countries in the field of IT.

So this is a reality that only those firms succeed which offers innovative and creative products and services, and software development firms are not exception. In-fact software development firms are more expected as compared to other industries to come up with innovative products. For this various studies reported positive relationship of constructive deviance behaviours with increased creativity and innovation (Vadera et al., 2013; Robbins & Galperin, 2010; Howell & Higgins, 1990). Similarly the current study also established a significantly positive relationship of constructive deviance behaviours with employee innovative performance and consequently to overall organizational performance, thus creating implication for software companies to produce innovative products by allowing their employees to be constructively deviant sometimes. For example, software companies may allow their employees to work from home which may be against the norms of the organizations but in doing so it develop a feeling of commitment and ownership in the employees and

consequently will work for the development of the organization. Moreover, the management of software companies is needed to guide the adventurous spirit of their employees and should encourage unorthodox thinking.

The constructive or positive side of deviance behaviour has been under-explored as compared to the negative side of deviance behaviour that's why more research work is needed in this area. The results of the study presents the underpinning phenomena and give the researchers an opportunity to work further on those underpinning phenomena. As a whole the study present many opportunities of exploring more and more in this area such as more antecedents (like networking, building coalition) can be used to predict CDB. Moreover other mediating variables such as felt obligation and intrinsic motivation should also be tested that may lead to other consequences of CDB. Other than these, various moderating variables can also be used to test the dynamic interplay of the various independent variable and CDB in the presence of a moderating variable. Moreover, further qualitative studies are also required to be undertaken to understand the phenomena of CDB and make and aware people especially managers about the difference between destructive and constructive deviance.

5.25 Conclusion of the study

Workplace deviance behaviour especially the constructive side of deviance behaviour is gaining considerable research attention recently and is one of the most important topics in the field of Organizational Behaviour. The topic of deviance behaviour is drawing the attention of not only the academician or researchers but also of practitioners as well (Nielsen & Einarsen, 2012; Tuckey & Neall, 2014). The reason behind this is that deviance behaviours are usually considered a part of organizations and are considered negative and discouraged at every level. But the constructive side of deviance behaviours and its positive effects on the total performance of the organization are a new and surprising fact for the researchers and practitioners. The present study attempted to advocate the benefits attached to CDB by proposing the relationship of variables used as antecedents in the present study and the CDB, psychological ownership and psychological ownership as mediating variables between these relationships. Moreover, the study also advocated the benefits of CDB by proposing the consequences (such as creative and innovative performance of employees and then consequently the whole performance of the organization) of CDB.

The study used the TPB (Ajzen, 1985) for model 2 and the theory of Social Exchange (Blau, 1964) for model 1 for justification of the relationships in the models of the current study. For data analysis, different techniques such as descriptive statistics, correlation, Confirmatory Factor analysis, and reliability test. Moreover, SEM technique has been used to test the relationships in the models and Process technique by Preacher and Hayes (2013) has been used to test the hypothesis related to conditional process analysis. Generally the results of the study show significant correlation among all the variables taken in the study. Result presents that P-O fit, Extraversion, RTP, Proactive-personality, psychological ownership and psychological empowerment had a significant and positive influence on CDB. However, between the antecedents of CDB only Self-esteem and GSE had no impact on CDB.

Result of model 1 show that psychological ownership mediates between the relationship of P-O FIT and CDB. Results of model 2 shows that psychological empowerment mediates the association of self-esteem and CDB because the more the individual has self-esteem/self-worth; the more he will be psychologically empowered which will give him the confidence of engaging in CDB. Similarly, psychological empowerment mediates the association of extraversion and CDB.

There are three places where the conditional process analysis or moderated mediation occurs. First in model 1 i.e. collectivist orientation moderate the mediational impact of psychological ownership between the association of P-O fit and CDB. Second in model 2 i.e. collectivist orientation moderate the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the association of self-esteem and CDB. And third in model 2 i.e. collectivist orientation moderate the mediational effect of psychological empowerment between the relationship of extraversion and CDB. The results of the conditional process analysis shows that collectivist orientation reduces the mediational impact of psychological ownership among the association of person-organization and CDB and proves that in the existence of collectivist orientation, psychological ownership will less likely result in the performance of CDB even if there is a good fit between the person and the organization. Moreover, collectivist orientation buffers the mediational impact of psychological empowerment on the association of self-esteem and CDB because collectivist individuals prefer to behave according the norms, policies and values of the organization and do not engage in deviance behaviours as they violate the organizational norms, policies and values. So in the presence of collectivist orientation, psychological empowerment will less likely result in the performance of CDB even if the

individual has a high self-esteem. Similarly, collectivist orientation reduces the mediational role of psychological empowerment between the association of extraversion and CDB. So the more there is collectivist orientation in the organization, the more psychological empowerment will less likely result in the performance of the CDB even if the employee is highly extrovert.

The results of model 3 which was based on consequences of CDB shows that CDB had a significant and positive impact on ECP, EIP and POP. Similarly, results of model 3 shows that EIP had a significant positive impact on POP. However, no significant impact of ECP on POP could be found in the current study. The results of model 3 also show that EIP mediates among the association of CDB and POP.

REFERENCES

- Abdul Rahman, A. R. (2008). Predictors of workplace deviance behaviour in Malaysia. *Unpublished PhD Dissertation, University Sains Malaysia.*
- Acs, Z. J., & Mueller, P. (2008). Employment effects of business dynamics: Mice, gazelles and elephants. *Small Business Economics, 30*(1), 85-100.
- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). Academic Press.
- Agnew, R. (1992). Foundation for a general strain theory of crime and delinquency. *Criminology, 30*(1), 47-88.
- Alias, M., Mohd Rasdi, R., Ismail, M., & Abu Samah, B. (2013). Predictors of workplace deviant behaviour: HRD agenda for Malaysian support personnel. *European Journal of Training and Development, 37*(2), 161-182.
- Alias, M., Rasdi, R. M., & Said, A. M. A. (2012). The impact of negative affectivity, job satisfaction and interpersonal justice on workplace deviance in the private organizations. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities, 20*(3), 829-846.
- Al-Jaghoub, S. (2004). *Building a knowledge-based economy: using ICTs for development and the role of the national state: a case study of Jordan* (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Manchester).
- Amabile, T. M. (1983). The social psychology of creativity: A componential conceptualization. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 45*(2), 357.
- Amabile, T. M., Barsade, S. G., Mueller, J. S., & Staw, B. M. (2005). Affect and creativity at work. *Administrative science quarterly, 50*(3), 367-403.
- Amabile, T. M. (1988). A model of creativity and innovation in organizations. *Research in organizational behavior, 10*(1), 123-167.
- Amabile, T. M. (1996). Creativity and innovation in organizations.
- Ambrose, M. L., Schminke, M., & Mayer, D. M. (2013). Trickle-down effects of supervisor perceptions of interactional justice: A moderated mediation approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(4), 678.
- Analoui, F., & Kakabadse, A. (1992). Unconventional practices at work: insight and analysis through participant observation. *Journal of managerial psychology, 7*(5), 2-31.

- Anderson, P., & Tushman, M. L. (Eds.). (2004). *Managing strategic innovation and change: A collection of readings*. Oxford University Press.
- Appelbaum, S. H., Iaconi, G. D., & Matousek, A. (2007). Positive and negative deviant workplace behaviors: causes, impacts, and solutions. *Corporate Governance: The international journal of business in society*, 7(5), 586-598.
- Aquino, K., Douglas, S., & Martinko, M. J. (2004). Overt anger in response to victimization: attributional style and organizational norms as moderators. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 9(2), 152.
- Aquino, K., Lewis, M. U., & Bradfield, M. (1999). Justice constructs, negative affectivity, and employee deviance: A proposed model and empirical test. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(7), 1073-1091.
- Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior*, 23(3), 267-285.
- Ashford, S. J. (1986). Feedback-seeking in individual adaptation: A resource perspective. *Academy of Management journal*, 29(3), 465-487.
- Ashforth, B. E. (1997). Petty tyranny in organizations: A preliminary examination of antecedents and consequences. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 14(2), 126-140.
- Avey, J. B., Wernsing, T. S., & Palanski, M. E. (2012). Exploring the process of ethical leadership: The mediating role of employee voice and psychological ownership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 107(1), 21-34.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1298-2>
- Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Crossley, C. D., & Luthans, F. (2009). Psychological ownership: Theoretical extensions, measurement and relation to work outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 30(2), 173-191.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.583>
- Azjen, I. (1980). Understanding attitudes and predicting social behaviour. *Englewood Cliffs*.
- Baer, M. (2012). Putting creativity to work: The implementation of creative ideas in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1102-1119.

- Bakker, A. B., Tims, M., & Derks, D. (2012). Proactive personality and job performance: The role of job crafting and work engagement. *Human relations*, 65(10), 1359-1378.
- Bandalos, D. L., & Finney, S. J. (2001). Item parceling issues in structural equation modeling. In *New developments and techniques in structural equation modeling* (pp. 289-316). Psychology Press.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*: Macmillan.
- Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American psychologist*, 44(9), 1175.
- Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. *Journal of social and clinical psychology*, 4(3), 359-373.
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological review*, 84(2), 191.
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. (1977). *Social learning theory* (Vol. 1). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-hall.
- Barling, J. (1996). The Prediction, Experience and Consequences of Workplace Violence. In VendenBos, G.R., & Bulatao, E. (Eds.), *Violence on the Job: Identifying Risks and Developing Solutions* (pp. 20-40). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Barney, J. B. (1986). Organizational culture: can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage?. *Academy of management review*, 11(3), 656-665.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: a meta-analysis. *Personnel psychology*, 44(1), 1-26.
- Baruah, B., & Ward, A. (2015). Metamorphosis of intrapreneurship as an effective organizational strategy. *International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 11(4), 811-822.
- Bateman, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 14(2), 103-118.

- Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological bulletin*, 117(3), 497.
- Beggan, J. K. (1992). On the social nature of nonsocial perception: The mere ownership effect. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 62(2), 229.
- Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Development of a measure of workplace deviance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(3), 349.
- Bergeron, D. M., Schroeder, T. D., & Martinez, H. A. (2014). Proactive personality at work: Seeing more to do and doing more?. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 29(1), 71-86.
- Berkowitz, A. D., & Perkins, H. W. (1986). Problem drinking among college students: A review of recent research. *Journal of American College Health*, 35(1), 21-28.
- Bernstein, P. (1976). *Workplace democratization: Its internal dynamics*. Kent State University Press, Comparative Administration Research Institute.
- Berry, C. M., Ones, D. S., & Sackett, P. R. (2007). Interpersonal deviance, organizational deviance, and their common correlates: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, 92(2), 410.
- Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., & Kramer, R. M. (1997). At the breaking point. *Antisocial behavior in organizations*, 18-36.
- Bindl, U. K., & Parker, S. K. (2011). Proactive work behavior: Forward-thinking and change-oriented action in organizations. In *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, Vol 2: Selecting and developing members for the organization*. (pp. 567-598). American Psychological Association.
- Blau, P. (1964). *Power and exchange in social life*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.
- Block, P. (1987). *The empowered manager*: San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bodankin, M., & Tziner, A. (2009). Constructive deviance, destructive deviance and personality: how do they interrelate?. *Amfiteatru Economic Journal*, 11(26), 549-564.
- Bontempo, R., & Rivero, J. C. (1992). Individualism-collectivism and global variation in decision making: a meta-analysis. In *Academy of Management Meeting at Las Vegas*.
- Borman, W. C., Penner, L. A., Allen, T. D., & Motowidlo, S. J. (2001). Personality predictors of citizenship performance. *International journal of selection and assessment*, 9(1-2), 52-69.

- Bosma, N., Stam, E., & Schutjens, V. (2006). Creative destruction and regional competitiveness. *EIM SCALES--paper N, 200206*.
- Bowling, N. A. (2010). Effects of job satisfaction and conscientiousness on extra-role behaviors. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 25*(1), 119-130.
- Bowling, N. A., & Eschleman, K. J. (2010). Employee personality as a moderator of the relationships between work stressors and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 15*(1), 91.
- Boye, M. W., & Jones, J. W. (1997). Organizational culture and employee counterproductivity. *Antisocial behavior in organizations, 172-184*.
- Brief, A. P., Buttram, R. T., & Dukerich, J. M. (2001). Collective corruption in the corporate world: Toward a process model. *Groups at work: Theory and research, 471, 499*.
- Brief, A. P., & Motowidlo, S. J. (1986). Prosocial organizational behaviors. *Academy of management Review, 11*(4), 710-725.
- Brockhaus, R. H. (1980). Risk taking propensity of entrepreneurs. *Academy of Management Journal, 23*(3), 509-520.
- Bulut, C., & Culha, O. (2010). The effects of organizational training on organizational commitment. *International Journal of Training and Development, 14*(4), 309-322.
- Bulut, Ç., & Alpkan, L. (2006). Behavioral Consequences of an Entrepreneurial Climate within Large Organizations: An Integrative Proposed Model. *South East European Journal of Economics & Business (1840118X), (2)*.
- Burke, W. (1986). Leadership as empowering others. *Executive power, 51-77*.
- Burnette, J. L., & Williams, L. J. (2005). Structural equation modeling (SEM): An introduction to basic techniques and advanced issues. *Research in organizations: Foundations and methods of inquiry, 143-160*.
- Burns, A. C., & Bush, R. F. (2001). *Marketing Research*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Burris, E. R., Detert, J. R., & Chiaburu, D. S. (2008). Quitting before leaving: the mediating effects of psychological attachment and detachment on voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(4), 912.
- Buss, A. H., & Finn, S. E. (1987). Classification of personality traits. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 52*(2), 432.

- Caliendo, M., Fossen, F. M., & Kritikos, A. S. (2009). Risk attitudes of nascent entrepreneurs—new evidence from an experimentally validated survey. *Small business economics*, 32(2), 153-167.
- Calori, R., & Sarnin, P. (1991). Corporate culture and economic performance: A French study. *Organization studies*, 12(1), 049-74.
- Cangiano, F., Bindl, U. K., & Parker, S. K. (2016). The Hot Side of Proactivity: Exploring an Aect-Based Perspective on Proactivity in Organizations. *In Proactivity at Work* (pp. 373-402). Routledge.
- Caplan, R. D. (1987). Person-environment fit theory and organizations: Commensurate dimensions, time perspectives and mechanisms. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 31(3), 248-267.[http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(87\)90042-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90042-X)
- Chekroun, P., & Brauer, M. (2002). The bystander effect and social control behavior: The effect of the presence of others on people's reactions to norm violations. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 32(6), 853-867.
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a New General Self-Efficacy Scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4(1), 62-83. Retrieved from: <http://orm.sagepub.com/content/4/1/62.full.pdf+html>
- Chen, Z., Takeuchi, R., & Shum, C. (2013). A social information processing perspective of coworker influence on a focal employee. *Organization Science*, 24(6), 1618-1639.
- Chi Keung Chan, T., Yong Ngee Ng, K., & Casimir, G. (2010). The diminished effect of psychological empowerment on the self-empowered. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 20(6), 531-543.
- Chisholm, R. F., & Vansina, L. S. (1993). Varieties of participation. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 291-315.
- Chiu, C., & Kwan, L. (2010). YY. Culture and Creativity: A Process Model. *Management and Organization Review*, 6(3), 447-461.
- Cho, T., & Faerman, S. R. (2010). An integrative model of empowerment and individuals' in-role and extra-role performance in the Korean public sector: Moderating effects of organizational individualism and collectivism. *International Public Management Journal*, 13(2), 130-154.

- Choi, J. N., & Price, R. H. (2005). The effects of person–innovation fit on individual responses to innovation. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 78(1), 83-96.
- Chullen, C. L., Dunford, B. B., Angermeier, I., Boss, R. W., & Boss, A. D. (2010). Minimizing deviant behavior in healthcare organizations: The effects of supportive leadership and job design. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 55(6), 381-397.
- Chung, Y. W., & Moon, H. K. (2011). The moderating effects of collectivistic orientation on psychological ownership and constructive deviant behaviour. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 6(12), 65.
- Coffin, B. (2003). Breaking the silence on white collar crime. *Risk Management*, 50(9), 8-9.
- Cohen-Charash, Y. & Mueller, J. S. (2007). Does perceived unfairness exacerbate or mitigate interpersonal counter productive work behaviours. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 666-680.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Judge, T. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2006). Justice and personality: Using integrative theories to derive moderators of justice effects. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 100(1), 110-127.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1988). The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of management review*, 13(3), 471-482.
- Converse, P. D., Pathak, J., DePaul-Haddock, A. M., Gotlib, T., & Merbedone, M. (2012). Controlling your environment and yourself: Implications for career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 80(1), 148-159.
- Cooper, D. R., Schindler, P. S., & Sun, J. (2006). Business research methods (Vol. 9). New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Costa, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (1992). Professional manual: revised NEO personality inventory (NEO-PI-R) and NEO five-factor inventory (NEO-FFI). Odessa, FL: *Psychological Assessment Resources*, 61.
- Cotton, J. L. (1993). Employee involvement: Methods for improving performance and work attitudes. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crant, J. M., Hu, J., & Jiang, K. (2016). Proactive personality: A twenty-year review. *In Proactivity at work*, 211-243.

- Crant, J. M., Kim, T.-Y., & Wang, J. (2011). Dispositional antecedents of demonstration and usefulness of voice behaviour. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 26(3), 285-297.
- Crant, J. M., & Bateman, T. S. (2000). Charismatic leadership viewed from above: The impact of proactive personality. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, 21(1), 63-75.
- Crant, J. M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of management*, 26(3), 435-462.
- Crant, J. M. (1996). The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of small business management*, 34, 42-49.
- Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2017). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11(1), 479-516.
- Cropanzano, R., & Rupp, D. E. (2008). Social exchange theory and organizational justice: Job performance, citizenship behaviors, multiple foci, and a historical integration of two literatures. *Research in social issues in management: Justice, morality, and social responsibility*, 63, 99.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of management*, 31(6), 874-900.
- Cullen, M. J., & Sackett, P. R. (2003). Personality and counterproductive workplace behavior. *Personality and work: Reconsidering the role of personality in organizations*, 14(2), 150-182.
- Dahling, J. J., Chau, S. L., Mayer, D. M., & Gregory, J. B. (2012). Breaking rules for the right reasons? An investigation of pro-social rule breaking. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(1), 21-42.
- Dalal, R. S. (2005). A meta-analysis of the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, 90(6), 1241.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.6.1241>
- Dansereau Jr, F., Graen, G., & Haga, W. J. (1975). A vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership within formal organizations: A longitudinal investigation of the role making process. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 13(1), 46-78.

- Dastgeer, G., & ur Rehman, A. (2012). Effectiveness of management development in Pakistani corporate sector: Testing the D'Netto model. *Journal of Management Development, 31*(8), 740-751.
- De Stobbeleir, K. E., Ashford, S. J., & Buyens, D. (2011). Self-regulation of creativity at work: The role of feedback-seeking behavior in creative performance. *Academy of management journal, 54*(4), 811-831.
- Delaney J.T. & Huselid M. A. (1996). The impact of human resource management practices on perceptions of organizational performance. *Academy of Management journal, 39*(4), 949-969. Retrieved from: <http://amj.aom.org/content/39/4/949.full.pdf+html>
- Demerouti, E. (2006). Job characteristics, flow, and performance: The moderating role of conscientiousness. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 11*(3), 266.
- Deshpandé, R., Farley, J. U., & Webster Jr, F. E. (1993). Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in Japanese firms: a quadrad analysis. *Journal of marketing, 57*(1), 23-37.
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of management journal, 50*(4), 869-884.
- Dirks, K.T., Cummings, L.L., & Pierce, J.L. (1996). Psychological ownership in organizations: Conditions under which individuals promote and resist change. In R.W. Woodman & W.A. Pasmore (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development, 9*, 1-23: Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Dittmar, H. (1992). *The social psychology of material possessions: To have is to be*. Hemel Hempstead: Harvester Wheatsheaf.
- Doty, D. H., & Glick, W. H. (1998). Common methods bias: does common methods variance really bias results? *Organizational research methods, 1*(4), 374-406.
- Duffy, M. K., Ganster, D. C., & Pagon, M. (2002). Social undermining in the workplace. *Academy of management Journal, 45*(2), 331-351.
- Dukerich, J., Kramer, R. M., & Parks, J. M. (1998). The dark side of organizational identification. In D. Whetten & R. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations: Developing theory through conversations: 245-256*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Earley, P. (1989). Social loafing and collectivism: A comparison of the United States and the People's Republic of China. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36, 319-348.<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2393567>
- Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: a general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological methods*, 12(1), 1.
- Eisenberger, R., Lynch, P., Aselage, J., & Rohdieck, S. (2004). Who takes the most revenge? Individual differences in negative reciprocity norm endorsement. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 30(6), 787-799.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 71(3), 500.
- Eisenhardt, K., & Tabrizi, B. (1995). Accelerating adaptive processes: Product innovation in the global computer industry. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 40, 84-110.<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/2393701>
- Elçi, m., lütfihak, a. L. P. K. A. N., & çekmecelioğlu, g. H. (2008, june). The Influence of Person Organization Fit On the Employee's Perception of Organizational Performance. In 4th International Strategic Management Conference, Sarajevo, Bosnia-Herzegovnia (pp. 587-593).
- Erdheim, J., Wang, M., & Zickar, M. J. (2006). Linking the Big Five personality constructs to organizational commitment. *Personality and individual differences*, 41(5), 959-970.
- Erez, M., & Nouri, R. (2010). Creativity: The influence of cultural, social, and work contexts. *Management and Organization Review*, 6(3), 351-370.
- Ergun, E., Bulut Ç., Alpkın, L., Demircan, N. (2004). Connecting the link between corporate entrepreneurship and innovative performance, Global Business and Technology Association, Cape Town, South Africa.
- Etzioni, A. (1975). Comparative analysis of complex organizations, rev. Simon and Schuster.
- Farmer, S. M., Tierney, P., & Kung-Mcintyre, K. (2003). Employee creativity in Taiwan: An application of role identity theory. *Academy of management Journal*, 46(5), 618-630.

- Ferris, D. L., Brown, D. J., Lian, H., & Keeping, L. M. (2009). When does self-esteem relate to deviant behavior? The role of contingencies of self-worth. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(5), 1345.
- Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., Douglas, C., & Frink, D. D. (2005). Development and validation of the political skill inventory. *Journal of management, 31*(1), 126-152.
- Folger, R., Cropanzano, R., & Goldman, B. (2005). Justice, accountability, and moral sentiment: The deontic response to "foul play" at work. *Handbook of organizational justice, 215-245*.
- Ford, R. C., & Fottler, M. D. (1995). Empowerment: A matter of degree. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 9*(3), 21-29.
- Formanek, R. (1991). Why they collect: Collectors reveal their motivations. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality, 6, 275-286*.
- Foster-Fishman, P. G., & Keys, C. B. (1995, August). The Inserted Pyramid: How a Well Meaning Attempt to Initiate Employee Empowerment Ran Afoul of the Culture of a Public Bureaucracy. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 1995, No. 1, pp. 364-368). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of vocational behavior, 59*(3), 291-309.
- Fox, S., & Spector, P.E. (1999). A Model of Work Frustration-Aggression. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 20, 915-931*.
- Frese, M., & Fay, D. (2001). 4. Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in organizational behavior, 23, 133-187*.
- Frey, R. (1993). Empowerment or else. *Harvard Business Review, 71*(5), 80-88.
- Fulford, M. D., & Enz, C. A. (1995). The impact of empowerment on service employees. *Journal of managerial issues, 161-175*.
- Fuller Jr, J. B., Hester, K., & Cox, S. S. (2010). Proactive personality and job performance: Exploring job autonomy as a moderator. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 35-51*.

- Fuller Jr, B., & Marler, L. E. (2009). Change driven by nature: A meta-analytic review of the proactive personality literature. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 75(3), 329-345.
- Galperin, B. L. (2012). Exploring the nomological network of workplace deviance: Developing and validating a measure of constructive deviance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(12), 2988-3025.
- Galperin, B. L., & Burke, R. J. (2006). Uncovering the relationship between workaholism and workplace destructive and constructive deviance: An exploratory study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(2), 331-347.
- Galperin, B. L. (2003). Determinants of deviance in the workplace: An empirical examination in Canada and Mexico.
- Gao, L., Janssen, O., & Shi, K. (2011). Leader trust and employee voice: The moderating role of empowering leader behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(4), 787-798.
- Gentina, E., Tang, T. L. P., & Gu, Q. (2017). Does bad company corrupt good morals? Social bonding and academic cheating among French and Chinese teens. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 146(3), 639-667.
- George, J. M. (2007). 9 Creativity in organizations. *The academy of management annals*, 1(1), 439-477.
- George, J. M., & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: an interactional approach. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 513.
- Geralis, M., & Terziovski, M. (2003). A quantitative analysis of the relationship between empowerment practices and service quality outcomes. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 14(1), 45-62.
- Geroski, P. A. (2000). The growth of firms in theory and in practice'in Foss and Mahnke. *New Directions in Economics Strategy Research*.
- Giacalone, R. A., & Greenberg, J. (Eds.). (1997). *Antisocial behavior in organizations*. Sage.
- Gilson, L. L. (2008). Why be creative: A review of the practical outcomes associated with creativity at the individual, group, and organizational levels. *Handbook of organizational creativity*, 303-322.

- Gino, F., & Wiltermuth, S.S. (2014). Evil genius? How dishonesty can lead to greater creativity. *Psychological Science*, *15*, 973–981.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797614520714>
- Gist, M. E., & Mitchell, T. R. (1992). Self-efficacy: A theoretical analysis of its determinants and malleability. *Academy of management review*, *17*(2), 183-211.
- Gist, M. E. (1987). Self-efficacy: Implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. *Academy of management review*, *12*(3), 472-485.
- Goldberg, L. R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, *4*, 26-42. Retrieved from: http://ipip.ori.org/New_IPIP-50-item-scale.htm
- Gong, Y., Huang, J. C., & Farh, J. L. (2009). Employee learning orientation, transformational leadership, and employee creativity: The mediating role of employee creative self-efficacy. *Academy of management Journal*, *52*(4), 765-778.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The leadership quarterly*, *6*(2), 219-247.
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in organizational behavior*, *28*, 3-34.
- Greenberg, J., & Scott, K. S. (1996). Why do workers bite the hands that feed them? Employee theft as a social exchange process. In B. M. Staw & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behaviour* (Vol. 18, pp. 111-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Greenberger, D. B., & Strasser, S. (1991). The role of situational and dispositional factors in the enhancement of personal control in organizations. *Research in organizational behavior*, *13*, 111-145.
- Griffin, M., & McDermott, M. R. (1998). Exploring a tripartite relationship between rebelliousness, openness to experience and creativity. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, *26*(4), 347-356.
- Griffin, R. W., O'Leary, A.M., & Collins, J. (1998). Dysfunctional Work Behaviours in Organizations. In Cooper, C.L., & Rousseau, D. M. (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behaviours*(pp. 65-82). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

- Grinnell Jr, R. M., & Unrau, Y. A. (2010). *Social work research and evaluation: Foundations of evidence-based practice*. Oxford University Press.
- Hackman, J. R. and G. R. Oldham. (1980). *Work Redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2009). *Análise multivariada de dados*. Bookman Editora.
- Hair, J. F., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). *Research methods for business*. Education+ Training.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2006). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.
- Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., Anderson, R. E., & Tatham, R. L. (2006). Multivariate data analysis 6th Edition. *Pearson Prentice Hall. New Jersey humans: Critique and reformulation. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87*, 49-74.
- Hair J. F., Babin, B., Money, A. H., & Samouel, P. (2003). *Essentials of business research methods*. United States of America: Johns Wiley & Sons. Inc.[Google Scholar].
- Hall, A. T., & Ferris, G. R. (2011). Accountability and extra-role behavior. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 23*(2), 131-144.
- Harper, S. M., & Becker, S. W. (2004). On the leading edge of innovation: a comparative study of innovation practices. *Southern Business Review, 29*(2), 1.
- Harrison, T. M. (1985). Communication and participative decision making: An exploratory study. *Personnel Psychology, 38*(1), 93-116.
- Hayes, A. F., & Preacher, K. J. (2013). Conditional process modeling: Using structural equation modeling to examine contingent causal processes.
- Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. Guilford Publications.
- He, Z. L., & Wong, P. K. (2004). Exploration vs. exploitation: An empirical test of the ambidexterity hypothesis. *Organization science, 15*(4), 481-494.
- Heeks, R., & Nicholson, B. (2002). Software export success factors and strategies in developing and transitional economies. *Development Informatics Working Paper, (12)*.
- Heller, F. A. (1988). *Decisions in organizations: A three-country comparative study*. Sage Publications Ltd.

- Hempel, P. S., & Sue-Chan, C. (2010). Culture and the assessment of creativity. *Management and Organization Review*, 6(3), 415-435.
- Herrenkohl, R. C., Judson, G. T., & Heffner, J. A. (1999). Defining and measuring employee empowerment. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 35(3), 373-389.
- Hirschi, T. (1969). *Causes of Delinquency* University of California Press. Berkeley, CA.
- Hoe, S. L. (2008). Issues and Procedures in Adopting Structural Equation Modelling Technique. *Journal of Applied Quantitative Methods*, 3(1), 76-83.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values* (Vol. 5). Sage.
- Hollinger, R. C. (1986). Acts against the workplace: Social bonding and employee deviance. *Deviant Behavior*, 7(1), 53-75.
- Holtz, B. C., & Harold, C. M. (2013). Interpersonal justice and deviance: The moderating effects of interpersonal justice values and justice orientation. *Journal of Management*, 39(2), 339-365.
- Horning, D. N. (1970). Blue collar theft: Conceptions of property, attitudes toward pilfering, and work group norms in a modern industrial plant. *Crimes against bureaucracy*, 46-64.
- Howell, J. M., Shea, C. M., & Higgins, C. A. (2005). Champions of product innovations: defining, developing, and validating a measure of champion behavior. *Journal of business venturing*, 20(5), 641-661.
- Howell, J. M., & Higgins, C. A. (1990). Champions of technological innovation. *Administrative science quarterly*, 317-341.
- Hui, M. K., Au, K., & Fock, H. (2004). Empowerment effects across cultures. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35(1), 46-60.
- Huo, Y. J., & Molina, L. E. (2006). Is pluralism a viable model of diversity? The benefits and limits of subgroup respect. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 9(3), 359-376.
- Idrus, S., Alhabji, T., Al Musadieq, M., & Utami, H. (2015). The effect of psychological empowerment on selfefficacy, burnout, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and individual performance. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(8), 139-148.

- Jackson, J.L. Chamberlin, J. & Kroenke, K. (2001). Predictors of patient satisfaction. *Social Science and Medicine*. 52, 609-620.
- James, W. (1890). *The principles of psychology*. New York: Holt.
- Janssen, O. (2001). Fairness perceptions as a moderator in the curvilinear relationships between job demands, and job performance and job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(5).1039-1050. Retrieved from: <http://amj.aom.org/content/44/5/1039.full.pdf+html>
- Jessor, R., Chase, J. A., & Donovan, J. E. (1980). Psychosocial correlates of marijuana use and problem drinking in a national sample of adolescents. *American Journal of Public Health*, 70(6), 604-613.
- Jessor, R., & Jessor, S. L. (1977). Problem behavior and psychosocial development: A longitudinal study of youth.
- Johnson, P. R. (1993). Empowerment in a global economy. *Empowerment in Organizations*, 1(1).
- Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in treatment evaluations. *Evaluation review*, 5(5), 602-619.
- Judge, T. A., & Ilies, R. (2002). Relationship of personality to performance motivation: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 797-807.
- Judge, T. A. (1994). Person–organization fit and the theory of work adjustment: Implications for satisfaction, tenure, and career success. *Journal of Vocational behavior*, 44(1), 32-54.
- Judge, T. A., & Ferris, G. R. (1992). The elusive criterion of fit in human resource staffing decisions. *Human Resource Planning*, 15(4), 47-67.
- Kambhampati, U. S. (2002). The software industry and development: the case of India. *Progress in Development Studies*, 2(1), 23-45.
- Kanter, R. M. (1984). *Change masters*. Simon and Schuster.
- Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral science*, 9(2), 131-146.
- Kernaghan, K. (1992). Empowerment and public administration: revolutionary advance or passing fancy?. *Canadian public administration*, 35(2), 194-214.

- Kiefer, T., Hartley, J., Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. (2014). Feeling the squeeze: Public employees' experiences of cutback-and innovation-related organizational changes following a national announcement of budget reductions. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 25*(4), 1279-1305.
- Kim, U. E., Triandis, H. C., Kâğıtçıbaşı, Ç. E., Choi, S. C. E., & Yoon, G. E. (1994). Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management journal, 42*(1), 58-74.
- Kitayama, S., Markus, H. R., & Lieberman, C. (1995). The collective construction of self esteem. In *Everyday conceptions of emotion* (pp. 523-550). Springer, Dordrecht.
- Korman, A. K. (1976). Hypothesis of work behavior revisited and an extension. *Academy of Management Review, 1*, 50-63.
- Korman, A. K. (1970). Toward a hypothesis of work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 54*, 31-41.
- Krau, E. (2008). Work, creativity, inventions and society. *Man and Work, 16*, 46-54.
- Kreiner, G. E., & Ashforth, B. E. (2004). Evidence toward an expanded model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 25*(1), 1-27.
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals 'fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology, 58*(2), 281-342.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x>
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology, 49*(1), 1-49.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1996.tb01790.x>
- Landau, J. (2009). TO SPEAK OR NOT TO SPEAK: PREDICTORS OF VOICE PROPENSITY. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict, 13*(1).
- Langabeer, J., II. (2008). Hospital turnaround strategies. *Hospital Topics, 86*, 3-10.
- Langer, E. (1983). The psychology of control.

- Langfred, C. W. (2004). Too much of a good thing? Negative effects of high trust and individual autonomy in self-managing teams. *Academy of management Journal*, 47(3), 385-399.
- Lautenschlager, G. J., & Flaherty, V. L. (1990). Computer administration of questions: More desirable or more social desirability?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(3), 310.
- Leana, C. R. (1986). Predictors and consequences of delegation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(4), 754-774.
- Lee, C. (1995). Prosocial organizational behaviors: The roles of workplace justice, achievement striving, and pay satisfaction. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 10(2), 197-206.
- Lee, K., Ashton, M. C., & Shin, K. H. (2005). Personality Correlates of Workplace Anti-Social Behaviour. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 54(1), 81-98.
- Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behaviour and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(1), 131.
- Lehman, D. W., & Ramanujam, R. (2009). Selectivity in organizational rule violations. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(4), 643-657.
- LePine, J. A., Erez, A., & Johnson, D. E. (2002). The nature and dimensionality of organizational citizenship behavior: a critical review and meta-analysis. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(1), 52.
- LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (2001). Voice and cooperative behaviour as contrasting forms of contextual performance: evidence of differential relationships with big five personality characteristics and cognitive ability. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(2), 326.
- Lewis, D. (2004). Bullying at work: The impact of shame among university and college lecturers. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 32(3), 281-299.
- Liao, H., Liu, D., & Loi, R. (2010). Looking at both sides of the social exchange coin: A social cognitive perspective on the joint effects of relationship quality and differentiation on creativity. *Academy of management Journal*, 53(5), 1090-1109.
- Liao, H., Joshi, A., & Chuang, A. (2004). Sticking out like a sore thumb: Employee dissimilarity and deviance at work. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(4), 969-1000.

- Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-member exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. *Research in personnel and human resources management, 15*, 47-120.
- Lipponen, J., Olkkonen, M. E., & Myyry, L. (2004). Personal value orientation as a moderator in the relationships between perceived organizational justice and its hypothesized consequences. *Social Justice Research, 17*(3), 275-292.
- Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural equation modeling, 9*(2), 151-173.
- Liu, D., Chen, X. P., & Yao, X. (2011). From autonomy to creativity: A multilevel investigation of the mediating role of harmonious passion. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(2), 294.
- Liu, J., Wang, H., Hui, C., & Lee, C. (2012). Psychological ownership: How having control matters. *Journal of Management Studies, 49*(5), 869-895.
- Long, R. J. (1978). The effects of employee ownership on organizational identification, employee job attitudes, and organizational performance: A tentative framework and empirical findings. *Human Relations, 31*(1), 29-48.
- Longshore, D., Chang, E., Hsieh, S. C., & Messina, N. (2004). Self-control and social bonds: A combined control perspective on deviance. *Crime & Delinquency, 50*(4), 542-564.
- Love, M. S., & Dustin, S. L. (2014). An investigation of coworker relationships and psychological collectivism on employee propensity to take charge. *The international journal of human resource management, 25*(9), 1208-1226.
- Madjar, N., Greenberg, E., & Chen, Z. (2011). Factors for radical creativity, incremental creativity, and routine, noncreative performance. *Journal of applied psychology, 96*(4), 730.
- Madjar, N., Oldham, G. R., & Pratt, M. G. (2002). There's no place like home? The contributions of work and non-work creativity support to employees' creative performance. *Academy of Management journal, 45*(4), 757-767.
- Mainemelis, C. (2010). Stealing fire: Creative deviance in the evolution of new ideas. *Academy of Management Review, 35*, 558-578.

- Mainemelis, C., & Ronson, S. (2006). Ideas are born in fields of play: Towards a theory of play and creativity in organizational settings. *Research in organizational behaviour*, 27, 81-131.
- Major, D. A., Turner, J. E., & Fletcher, T. D. (2006). Linking proactive personality and the Big Five to motivation to learn and development activity. *Journal of applied psychology*, 91(4), 927.
- Malhotra, N., & Birks, D. (2007). *Marketing Research: an applied approach: 3rd European Edition*. Pearson education.
- March, J. G. & Shapira, Z. (1987). Managerial perspectives on risk and risk taking. *Management Science*, 33(11), 1404-1418.
- Marchington, M., Wilkinson, A., Ackers, P., & Goodman, J. (1994). Understanding the meaning of participation: Views from the workplace. *Human relations*, 47(8), 867-894.
- Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological review*, 98(2), 224.
- Maron, B. A., Fein, S., Maron, B. J., Hillel, A. T., Baghdadi, M. M. E., & Rodenhauer, P. (2007, January). Ability of prospective assessment of personality profiles to predict the practice specialty of medical students. In *Baylor University Medical Center Proceedings* (Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 22-26). Taylor & Francis.
- Martinko, M. J., Gundlach, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. (2002). Toward an integrative theory of counterproductive workplace behavior: A causal reasoning perspective. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 10(1-2), 36-50.
- Mas, A., & Moretti, E. (2009). Peers at work. *American Economic Review*, 99(1), 112-45.
- Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management journal*, 43(4), 738-748.
- Mayer, D., Nishii, L., Schneider, B., & Goldstein, H. (2007). The precursors and products of justice climates: Group leader antecedents and employee attitudinal consequences. *Personnel Psychology*, 60(4), 929-963.

- Mayhew, M. G., Ashkanasy, N. M., Bramble, T., & Gardner, J. (2007). A study of the antecedents and consequences of psychological ownership in organizational settings. *The Journal of social psychology, 147*(5), 477-500.
- McCaffrey, D. P., Faerman, S. R., & Hart, D. W. (1995). The appeal and difficulties of participative systems. *Organization Science, 6*(6), 603-627.
- McCardle, J. G. (2007). Organizational justice and workplace deviance: The role of organizational structure, powerlessness, and information salience.
- Meertens, R. M., & Lion, R. (2008). Measuring an Individual's Tendency to Take Risks: The Risk Propensity Scale 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 38*(6), 1506-1520.
- Meertins, R. M., & Lion, R. (2008). Measuring an individual's tendency to take risks: The risk propensity scale. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 38*(6), 1506-1520.
- Mellahi, K., Budhwar, P. S., & Li, B. (2010). A study of the relationship between exit, voice, loyalty and neglect and commitment in India. *Human Relations, 63*(3), 349-369.
- Merton, R.K. (1968). *Social theory and social structure*. New York: Free Press.
- Messara, L., & Dagher, G. K. (2010). Proactive personality: Organization vs. career commitment. *Business Studies Journal, 2*(2), 117-127.
- Meyerson, D. E., & Scully, M. A. (1995). Crossroads tempered radicalism and the politics of ambivalence and change. *Organization Science, 6*(5), 585-600.
- Miceli, M. P., Near, J. P., & Dworkin, T. M. (2008). *Whistle-blowing in organizations*. Psychology Press.
- Miceli, M. P., Near, J. P., Rehg, M. T., & Van Scotter, J. R. (2012). Predicting employee reactions to perceived organizational wrongdoing: Demoralization, justice, proactive personality, and whistle-blowing. *Human relations, 65*(8), 923-954.
- Mitchell, M. S., Cropanzano, R. S., & Quisenberry, D. M. (2012). Social exchange theory, exchange resources, and interpersonal relationships: A modest resolution of theoretical difficulties. In *Handbook of social resource theory* (pp. 99-118). Springer, New York, NY.
- Mitchell, M. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2007). Abusive supervision and workplace deviance and the moderating effects of negative reciprocity beliefs. *Journal of applied psychology, 92*(4), 1159.

- Molm, L. D. (1994). Is punishment effective? Coercive strategies in social exchange. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 75-94.
- Moon, H., Kamdar, D., Mayer, D. M., & Takeuchi, R. (2008). Me or we? The role of personality and justice as other-centered antecedents to innovative citizenship behaviors within organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 84.
- Morris, M. W., & Leung, K. (2010). Creativity east and west: Perspectives and parallels. *Management and Organization Review*, 6(3), 313-327.
- Morris, M. H., Avila, R. A., & Alien, J. (1993). Individualism and the modern corporation: Implications for innovation and entrepreneurship. *Journal of management*, 19(3), 595-612.
- Morrison, E. W. (2006). Doing the job well: An investigation of pro-social rule breaking. *Journal of Management*, 32(1), 5-28.
- Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *Academy of Management annals*, 5(1), 373-412.
- Mount, M., Ilies, R., & Johnson, E. (2006). Relationship of personality traits and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating effects of job satisfaction. *Personnel psychology*, 59(3), 591-622.
- Muchinsky, P. M., & Monahan, C. J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 31(3), 268-277. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(87\)90043-1](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90043-1)
- Muller, D., Judd, C. M., & Yzerbyt, V. Y. (2005). When moderation is mediated and mediation is moderated. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 89(6), 852.
- Nasscom (2006), Fact sheet. available at http://www.nasscom.in/upload/5216/Indian_IT_Industry_Factsheet_2006.doc.
- Nemeth, C. J. (1986). Differential contributions of majority and minority influence. *Psychological review*, 93(1), 23.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (1998). Workplace violence and workplace aggression: Evidence concerning specific forms, potential causes, and preferred targets. *Journal of management*, 24(3), 391-419.

- Nuttin Jr, J. M. (1987). Affective consequences of mere ownership: The name letter effect in twelve European languages. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 17(4), 381-402.
- Nyhan, R. C. (1994). The interrelationships of organizational commitment trust and participatory decision making practices in public organizations (Doctoral dissertation, Florida Atlantic University).
- O'Driscoll, M. P., Pierce, J. L., & Coghlan, A. M. (2006). The psychology of ownership work environment structure, organizational commitment, and citizenship behaviours. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(3), 388-416. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601104273066>
- O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Griffin, R. W., & Glew, D. J. (1996). Organization-motivated aggression: A research framework. *Academy of management review*, 21(1), 225-253.
- Oliva, T. A., Oliver, R. L., & MacMillan, I. C. (1992). A catastrophe model for developing service satisfaction strategies. *Journal of marketing*, 56(3), 83-95.
- Onyishi, E. I. (2006). The role of organizational support, psychological empowerment and employment status on organizational citizenship behaviour. Department of Psychology, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, unpublished doctoral dissertation.
- O'Reilly III, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of management journal*, 34(3), 487-516.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2005). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Sage Publications.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). A restatement of the satisfaction-performance hypothesis. *Journal of management*, 14(4), 547-557.
- Örücü, E., & Yildiz, H. (2014). İşyerinde Kişisel İnternet ve Teknoloji Kullanımı: Sanal Kaytarma. *Ege Academic Review*, 14(1).
- Oyserman, D., Coon, H. M., & Kemmelmeier, M. (2002). Rethinking individualism and collectivism: evaluation of theoretical assumptions and meta-analyses. *Psychological bulletin*, 128(1), 3.

- Özler, H., Yilmaz, A., & Ozler, D. (2008). Psychological ownership: An empirical study on its antecedents and impacts upon organizational behaviours. *Problems and Perspectives in Management, 6*(3), 38-47.
- Paine, J. B., & Organ, D. W. (2000). The cultural matrix of organizational citizenship behavior: Some preliminary conceptual and empirical observations. *Human resource management review, 10*(1), 45-59.
- Parker, S. K., & Bindl, U. K. (2016). Proactivity at work: A big picture perspective on a construct that matters. In *Proactivity at work* (pp. 19-38). Routledge.
- Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of management, 36*(3), 633-662.
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of management, 36*(4), 827-856.
- Parker, S. K., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *Journal of applied psychology, 91*(3), 636.
- Parsons, T. (1951). *The Social System*. Toronto: Ontario: Collier-Macmillan, Canada.
- Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). Workplace incivility.
- Penney, L. M., Hunter, E. M., & Perry, S. J. (2011). Personality and counterproductive work behaviour: Using conservation of resources theory to narrow the profile of deviant employees. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 84*(1), 58-77.
- Petter, J., Byrnes, P., Choi, D. L., Fegan, F., & Miller, R. (2002). Dimensions and patterns in employee empowerment: Assessing what matters to street-level bureaucrats. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory, 12*(3), 377-400.
- Pfeffer, J., & Salancik, G. R. (1978). Social control of organizations. The external control of organizations: A resource dependence perspective.
- Pierce, J. L., O'driscoll, M. P., & Coghlan, A. M. (2004). Work environment structure and psychological ownership: The mediating effects of control. *The Journal of social psychology, 144*(5), 507-534.
- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The state of psychological ownership: Integrating and extending a century of research. *Review of general psychology, 7*(1), 84-107.

- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2001). Toward a theory of psychological ownership in organizations. *Academy of management review*, 26(2), 298-310.
- Pierce, J. L., Van Dyne, L., & Cummings, L. (1992). Psychological ownership: A conceptual and operational exploration. *In Southern management association proceedings* (Vol. 203, p. 211).
- Pierce, J. L., Rubenfeld, S. A., & Morgan, S. (1991). Employee ownership: A conceptual model of process and effects. *Academy of Management review*, 16(1), 121-144.
- Pratt, M. G. (2000). The good, the bad, and the ambivalent: Managing identification among Amway distributors. *Administrative science quarterly*, 45(3), 456-493.
- Pratt, M. G., Fiol, C. M., O'Connor, E. J., & Panico, P. (2012). Promoting Positive Change in Physician-Administrator Relationships: The Importance of Identity Security in Managing Intractable Identity Conflicts. *Using a positive lens to explore social change and organizations: Building a theoretical and research foundation*, 267.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate behavioural research*, 42(1), 185-227.
- Redmond, M. R., Mumford, M. D., & Teach, R. (1993). Putting creativity to work: Effects of leader behavior on subordinate creativity. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 55(1), 120-151.
- Reisinger, Y., & Mavondo, F. (2007). Structural equation modeling: Critical issues and new developments. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 21(4), 41-71.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 698.
- Riggle, R. J., Edmondson, D. R., & Hansen, J. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of the relationship between perceived organizational support and job outcomes: 20 years of research. *Journal of business research*, 62(10), 1027-1030.
- Robbins, D. L., & Galperin, B. L. (2010). Constructive deviance: striving toward organizational change in healthcare. *Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 5, 1.

- Robert, C., & Wasti, S. A. (2002). Organizational individualism and collectivism: Theoretical development and an empirical test of a measure. *Journal of Management*, 28(4), 544-566.
- Robinson, S. L., & O'Leary-Kelly, A. M. (1998). Monkey see, monkey do: The influence of work groups on the antisocial behavior of employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(6), 658-672.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of management journal*, 38(2), 555-572.
- Rodriguez-Llewellyn, Y. (2008). Affective commitment and citizenship behavior: The role of LMX and personality and the mediating effects of empowerment (Doctoral dissertation, The University of Waikato).
- Rosenberg, M. (2015). *Society and the adolescent self-image*: Princeton university press.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton
- Rusbult, C. E., Farrell, D., Rogers, G., & Mainous III, A. G. (1988). Impact of exchange variables on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect: An integrative model of responses to declining job satisfaction. *Academy of Management journal*, 31(3), 599-627.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American psychologist*, 55(1), 68.
- Sagie, A., & Koslowsky, M. (1999). *Participation and empowerment in organizations: Modeling, effectiveness, and applications*. Sage Publications.
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative science quarterly*, 224-253.
- Sartre, J.P. (1969). *Being and nothingness: A phenomenological essay on ontology*. New York: Philosophical Library.
- Schattner, A., Rudin, D., & Jellin, N. (2004). Good physicians from the perspective of their patients. *BMC health services research*, 4(1), 26.
- Seibert, S., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta-analytic review. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(5): 981-1003.

- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel psychology, 54*(4), 845-874.
- Seibert, S. E., Crant, J. M., & Kraimer, M. L. (1999). Proactive personality and career success. *Journal of applied psychology, 84*(3), 416.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*: John Wiley & Sons.
- Sekaran, U. (2009). *Research methods for business 4th edition*. Hoboken.
- Sekaran, U. (2006). *Research Methods for Business*. India: Wiley India Pvt. Ltd.
- Sekaran, U., (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Shahzad, A., & Mahmood, Z. (2012). The mediating-moderating model of organizational cynicism and workplace deviant behavior: Evidence from banking sector in Pakistan. *Middle-East Journal of Scientific Research, 12*(5), 580-588.
- Shalley, C. E., Gilson, L. L., & Blum, T. C. (2009). Interactive effects of growth need strength, work context, and job complexity on self-reported creative performance. *Academy of Management journal, 52*(3), 489-505.
- Shalley, C. E., Zhou, J., & Oldham, G. R. (2004). The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here? *Journal of management, 30*(6), 933-958.
- Sharma, P., Chrisman, J. J., & Chua, J. H. (1997). Strategic management of the family business: Past research and future challenges. *Family business review, 10*(1), 1-35.
- Shin, S. J., & Zhou, J. (2003). Transformational leadership, conservation, and creativity: Evidence from Korea. *Academy of management Journal, 46*(6), 703-714.
- Sieger, P., Zellweger, T., & Aquino, K. (2013). Turning agents into psychological principals: Aligning interests of non-owners through psychological ownership. *Journal of Management Studies, 50*(3), 361-388.<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/joms.12017>
- Sieger, P., Bernhard, F., & Frey, U. (2011). Affective commitment and job satisfaction among non-family employees: Investigating the roles of justice perceptions and psychological ownership. *Journal of Family Business Strategy, 2*(2), 78-89.

- Siegrist, J. (1996). Adverse health effects of high-effort/low-reward conditions. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 1*(1), 27.
- Sims, R. L. (2002). Ethical rule breaking by employees: A test of social bonding theory. *Journal of business ethics, 40*(2), 101-109.
- Singelis, T. M. (1994). The measurement of independent and interdependent self-construals. *Personality and social psychology bulletin, 20*(5), 580-591.
- Somech, A., & Drach-Zahavy, A. (2000). Understanding extra-role behaviour in schools: The relationships between job satisfaction, sense of efficacy, and teachers' extra-role behaviour. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 16*(5-6), 649-659.
- Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. I. (2002). Work-group characteristics and performance in collectivistic and individualistic cultures. *The Journal of social psychology, 142*(1), 5-23.
- Sparrowe, R. T., & Liden, R. C. (2005). Two routes to influence: Integrating leader-member exchange and social network perspectives. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 50*(4), 505-535.
- Spector, P. E. (1992). A consideration of the validity and meaning of self-report measures of job conditions. *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. West Sussex, England: John Wiley, 123.
- Spector, P. E. (1987). Method variance as an artifact in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: myth or significant problem?. *Journal of applied psychology, 72*(3), 438.
- Speier, C., & Frese, M. (1997). Generalized self efficacy as a mediator and moderator between control and complexity at work and personal initiative: A longitudinal field study in East Germany. *Human performance, 10*(2), 171-192.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (2008). Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. *Handbook of organizational behavior, 1*, 54-72.
- Spreitzer, G. M., & Sonenshein, S. (2004). Toward the construct definition of positive deviance. *American behavioral scientist, 47*(6), 828-847.
- Spreitzer, G. M., De Janasz, S. C., & Quinn, R. E. (1999). Empowered to lead: The role of psychological empowerment in leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior, 20*(4), 511-526.

- Spreitzer, G. M. (1996). Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of management journal*, 39(2), 483-504.
- Spreitzer, G. M., & Quinn, R. E. (1996). Empowering middle managers to be transformational leaders. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*, 32(3), 237-261.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). An empirical test of a comprehensive model of intrapersonal empowerment in the workplace. *American journal of community psychology*, 23(5), 601-629.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of management Journal*, 38(5), 1442-1465.
- Stahl, G. K., Maznevski, M. L., Voigt, A., & Jonsen, K. (2010). i in.(2009), Unraveling the effects of cultural diversity in teams: A meta-analysis of research on multicultural work groups,". *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41(4).
- Stam, E., Suddle, K., Hessels, J., & Van Stel, A. (2009). High-growth entrepreneurs, public policies, and economic growth. In *Public policies for fostering entrepreneurship* (pp. 91-110). Springer, New York, NY.
- Stansbury, J. M., & Victor, B. (2009). Whistle-blowing among young employees: A life-course perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 85(3), 281-299.
- Suárez-Mendoza, M. J., & Zoghbi-Manrique-de-Lara, P. (2007). The impact of work alienation on organizational citizenship behavior in the Canary Islands. *International journal of organizational Analysis*.
- Sutherland, E. H., & Cressey, D. R. (1947). *Principles of Criminology*. Philadelphia: J. B. P Lippincott.
- Taggar, S. (2002). Individual creativity and group ability to utilize individual creative resources: A multilevel model. *Academy of management Journal*, 45(2), 315-330.
- Taleghani, G. H., Divandari, A., & ShirMohammadi, M. (2009). Effects of Organizational Perceived Support on the Organizational Commitment and Organizational Performance: A Case Study of Bank Mellat Branches in Tehran. *Journal of Management*, 4(16), 1-25.
- Tashakkori, A., and Creswell, J. W (2007) Editorial: The new era of mixed methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1, 3-7.

- Taylor, E. Z., & Curtis, M. B. (2010). An examination of the layers of workplace influences in ethical judgments: Whistle blowing likelihood and perseverance in public accounting. *Journal of Business Ethics, 93*(1), 21-37.
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of management, 33*(3), 261-289.
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of abusive supervision. *Academy of management journal, 43*(2), 178-190.
- Thau, S., & Mitchell, M. S. (2010). Self-gain or self-regulation impairment? Tests of competing explanations of the supervisor abuse and employee deviance relationship through perceptions of distributive justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(6), 1009.
- Thau, S., Aquino, K., & Poortvliet, P. M. (2007). Self-defeating behaviors in organizations: The relationship between thwarted belonging and interpersonal work behaviors. *Journal of applied psychology, 92*(3), 840.
- Thomas, J. P., Whitman, D. S., & Viswesvaran, C. (2010). Employee proactivity in organizations: A comparative meta-analysis of emergent proactive constructs. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology, 83*(2), 275-300.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of management review, 15*(4), 666-681.
- Thorlakson, A. J., & Murray, R. P. (1996). An empirical study of empowerment in the workplace. *Group & Organization Management, 21*(1), 67-83.
- Tierney, P., & Farmer, S. M. (2011). Creative self-efficacy development and creative performance over time. *Journal of applied psychology, 96*(2), 277.
- Tierney, P., & Farmer, S. M. 2004. The Pygmalion process and employee creativity. *Journal of Management, 30*, 413-432.
- Tiessen, J. H. (1997). Individualism, collectivism, and entrepreneurship: A framework for international comparative research. *Journal of Business Venturing, 12*(5), 367-384.
- Triandis, H. C., & Suh, E. M. (2002). Cultural influences on personality. *Annual review of psychology, 53*(1), 133-160.

- Triandis, H. C. (1993). Collectivism and individualism as cultural syndromes. *Cross-cultural research, 27*(3-4), 155-180.
- Triandis, H. C. (1989). The self and social behavior in differing cultural contexts. *Psychological review, 96*(3), 506.
- Tucker, S., Chmiel, N., Turner, N., Hershcovis, M. S., & Stride, C. B. (2008). Perceived organizational support for safety and employee safety voice: The mediating role of coworker support for safety. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 13*(4), 319.
- Turner, J. C., & Tajfel, H. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. *Psychology of intergroup relations, 5*, 7-24.
- Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. (1987). Rediscovering the social group: A self-categorization theory. Basil Blackwell.
- Tziner, A., Fein, E. C., Sharoni, G., Bar-Hen, P., & Nord, T. (2010). Constructive deviance, leader-member exchange, and confidence in appraisal: how do they interrelate, if at all?. *Revista de Psicología del Trabajo y de las Organizaciones, 26*(2), 95-100.
- Tziner, A., Goldberg, S., & Or, R. (2006). Counterproductive behavior at work and some individual characteristics. *Journal of Academy of Business and Economics, 6*(1), 128-39.
- Ungson, G. R., Steers, R. M., & Park, S. H. (1997). *Korean enterprise: The quest for globalization*. Harvard Business Press.
- Vadera, A. K., Pratt, M. G., & Mishra, P. (2013). Constructive deviance in organizations: Integrating and moving forward. *Journal of Management, 39*(5), 1221-1276.
- Vadera, A. K., Aguilera, R. V., & Caza, B. B. (2009). Making sense of whistle-blowing's antecedents: Learning from research on identity and ethics programs. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 19*(4), 553-586.
- Vakola, M., & Bouradas, D. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of organizational silence: an empirical investigation. *Employee Relations, 27*(5), 441-458.
- Valentine, S., Godkin, L., & Lucero, M. (2002). Ethical context, organizational commitment and person-organization fit. *Journal of Business Ethics, 41*(4), 349-360.

- Van Dyne, L., Kamdar, D., & Joireman, J. (2008). In-role perceptions buffer the negative impact of low LMX on helping and enhance the positive impact of high LMX on voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(6), 1195.
- Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: Three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 25*, 439-459. Retrieved from: <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/job.249/pdf>
- Van Dyne, L., Vandewalle, D., Kostova, T., Latham, M. E., & Cummings, L. L. (2000). Collectivism, propensity to trust and self-esteem as predictors of organizational citizenship in a non-work setting. *Journal of organizational behavior, 21*(1), 3-23.
- Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviours: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of management Journal, 41*(1), 108-119.
- Van Knippenberg, D. (2000). Work motivation and performance: A social identity perspective. *Applied psychology, 49*(3), 357-371.
- Van Rijswijk, W., & Ellemers, N. (2002). Context effects on the application of stereotype content to multiple categorizable targets. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(1), 90-101.
- Vandewalle, D., Van Dyne, L., & Kostova, T. (1995). Psychological ownership: An empirical examination of its consequences. *Group & Organization Management, 20*(2), 210-226.
- Venkataramani, V., & Tangirala, S. (2010). When and why do central employees speak up? An examination of mediating and moderating variables. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(3), 582.
- Von Nordenflycht, A. (2007). Is public ownership bad for professional service firms? Ad agency ownership, performance, and creativity. *Academy of Management Journal, 50*(2), 429-445.
- Wagner III, J. A., & Gooding, R. Z. (1987). Shared influence and organizational behavior: A meta-analysis of situational variables expected to moderate participation-outcome relationships. *Academy of management Journal, 30*(3), 524-541.
- Wagner, S. H., Parker, C. P., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Employees that think and act like owners: Effects of ownership beliefs and behaviours on organizational effectiveness.

- Personnel Psychology*, 56(4), 847-871. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00242.x>
- Walumbwa, F. O., Hartnell, C. A., & Oke, A. (2010). Servant leadership, procedural justice climate, service climate, employee attitudes, and organizational citizenship behaviour: a cross-level investigation. *Journal of applied psychology*, 95(3), 517.
- Warren, D.E. (2003). Constructive and Destructive Deviance in Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(4), 622-632.
- Weick, K. E. (2002). Puzzles in organizational learning: an exercise in disciplined imagination. *British journal of management*, 13(S2), S7-S15.
- Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work.
- Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Pierce, J. R. (2008). Effects of task performance, helping, voice, and organizational loyalty on performance appraisal ratings. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 125.
- Wilkinson, A. (1998). Empowerment: theory and practice. *Personnel review*, 27(1), 40-56.
- Williams, S., & Luthans, F. (1992). The impact of choice of rewards and feedback on task performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 13(7), 653-666.
- Wirtz, J., Heracleous, L., & Pangarkar, N. (2008). Managing human resources for service excellence and cost effectiveness at Singapore Airlines. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 18(1), 4-19.
- Withey, M. J., & Cooper, W. H. (1989). Predicting exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Administrative science quarterly*, 521-539.
- Wong, S. C. K., & Ladkin, A. (2008). Exploring the relationship between employee creativity and job-related motivators in the Hong Kong hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(3), 426-437.
- Woodman, R. W., Sawyer, J. E., & Griffin, R. W. (1993). Toward a theory of organizational creativity. *Academy of management review*, 18(2), 293-321.
- Wright, B. E. (2002). Work motivation: A study of the motivational context in public sector organizations. PhD diss., University at Albany, State University of New York.

- Yamaguchi, S. (1994). Collectivism among the Japanese: A perspective from the self. In Kim, U. E., Triandis, H. C., Kâğıtçıbaşı, Ç. E., Choi, S. C. E., & Yoon, G. E. (1994). *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Yıldız, B., & Alpkan, L. (2015). A theoretical model on the proposed predictors of destructive deviant workplace behaviours and the mediator role of alienation. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 210, 330-338.
- Yıldız, b., & Yıldız, h. (2015). İş yaşamındaki sanal kaytarma davranışlarının hukuki yönden incelenmesi. *Yönetim ve Ekonomi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 13(3), 1-17.
- Yıldız, B., Alpkan, L., Ateş, H., & Sezen, B. (2015). Determinants of constructive deviance: the mediator role of psychological ownership. *International Business Research*, 8(4), 107-121.
- Yuan, F., & Woodman, R. W. (2010). Innovative behavior in the workplace: The role of performance and image outcome expectations. *Academy of management journal*, 53(2), 323-342.
- Zellars, K. L., Tepper, B. J., & Duffy, M. K. (2002). Abusive supervision and subordinates' organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(6), 1068.
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of management journal*, 53(1), 107-128.
- Zheng, C., & Prislin, R. (2012). Beyond risk propensity-the influence of evaluation period and information relevance on risk taking behavior. *Academy of Entrepreneurship Journal*, 18(1), 1.
- Zhou, J., & Shalley, C. E. (2011). Deepening our understanding of creativity in the workplace: A review of different approaches to creativity research.
- Zhou, J., Shin, S. J., Brass, D. J., Choi, J., & Zhang, Z. X. (2009). Social networks, personal values, and creativity: Evidence for curvilinear and interaction effects. *Journal of applied psychology*, 94(6), 1544.
- Zhou, J., & Shalley, C. E. (2003). Research on employee creativity: A critical review and directions for future research. In *Research in personnel and human resources management* (pp. 165-217). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

- Zhou, J., & George, J. M. (2001). When job dissatisfaction leads to creativity: Encouraging the expression of voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 682-696. Retrieved from: <http://amj.aom.org/content/44/4/682.full.pdf+html>
- Zhou, J. (1998). Feedback valence, feedback style, task autonomy, and achievement orientation: Interactive effects on creative performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(2), 261.
- Ziaaddini, M., & Farasat, E. (2013). Perceived organizational support and deviant behavior. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research*, 3(5), 517-528.

Appendix

Questionnaire

This questionnaire is a requirement of the academic research. Your inputs are vital towards this research and will play an important role in shaping the results and drawing conclusion. The information provided would be keep confidential and will be used only for academic research.

Name (optional): _____ **Post:** (a) Managerial (b) Non-managerial
Organization: _____ **Gender:** (a) Male (b) Female
Your age: (a) 15-25 years (b) 26-35 years. (c) 36-45 years. (d) 45+years
Qualification: (a) Bachelor (b) Master (c) MS (d) PhD

1.	<u>Constructive deviance Behaviours</u> Read the following sentences carefully and rate the extent to which you exhibit the following behaviours.	Daily	Usually	Frequently	Sometimes	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
1	Wanted to bend or break the rules in order to perform your job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Violated company procedures in order to solve a problem.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Departed from organizational procedures to solve a customer’s problem.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Bent a rule to satisfy a customer’s needs.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Departed from dysfunctional organizational policies or procedures to solve a problem.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Reported a wrong-doing to co-workers to bring about a positive organizational change.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Did not follow the orders of your supervisor in order to improve work procedures.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Disagreed with others in your work group in order to improve the current work procedures.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Disobeyed your supervisor’s instructions to perform more efficiently.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2.	<u>Collectivist Orientation</u> Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Management and supervisors are protective of and generous to loyal workers.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Decisions about changes in work methods are taken jointly by supervisors and employees.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Employees are taken care of like members of a family.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Everyone shares responsibility for the organizations’ failure as well as success.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Regardless of hierarchical level, employees take each other’s views into consideration.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Once someone is hired, the organization takes care of that person’s overall welfare.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Everyone is kept informed about major decisions that affect the success of this organization.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3.	<u>Self-esteem</u> Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

2	At times I think I am no good at all. (R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I feel I do not have much to be proud of. (R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I certainly feel useless at times. (R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I wish I could have more respect for myself. (R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	<u>Employee self-reported Innovative Performance</u>							
4.	How often your subordinate perform the following innovative behaviors on a response format ranging from never (1) to Daily (7)?	Daily	Usually	Frequently	Sometimes	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
1	Creating new ideas for improvements.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Searching out new working methods, techniques, or instruments.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Generating original solutions to problems.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Mobilizing support for innovative ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Acquiring approval for innovative ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Making important organizational members enthusiastic for innovative ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Transforming innovative ideas into useful applications.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Introducing innovative ideas into the work environment in a systemic way.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Evaluating the utility of innovate ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	<u>Creative Performance</u>							
5.	Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement about your subordinate.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Suggest new ways to achieve goals or objectives.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques and/or product ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Suggest new ways to increase quality.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Is a good source of creative ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Is not afraid to take risks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Promotes and champions ideas to others.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Often has new and innovative ideas.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	Comes up with creative solutions to problems.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	Often has fresh approach to problems.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13	Suggest new ways of performing work tasks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	<u>Psychological Ownership</u>							
6.	Think about the home, boat or cabin that you own or co-own with someone, and the experiences and feelings associated with the statement 'THIS IS MY (OUR) HOUSE!' The following questions deal with the 'sense of ownership' that you feel for the organization that you work for. Indicate the degree to which you personally agree or disagree with the following statements.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	This is MY organization.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

2	I sense that this organization is OUR company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I feel a very high degree of personal ownership for this organization.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I sense that this is MY Company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	This is OUR Company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Most of the people that work for this organization feel as though they own the company.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	It is hard for me to think about this organization as MINE.(R)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7.	<u>Proactive Personality</u> Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I excel at identifying opportunities.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I am always looking for better ways to do things.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8.	<u>Psychological Empowerment</u> Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	The work I do is very important to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	The work I do is meaningful to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I am confident about my ability to do my job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	My impact on what happens in my department is large.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12	I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9.	<u>Perceived Org. Performance</u> How would you compare the organization performance over the past 3 years to that of other organizations that do the same kind of work? What about:	Much Better	Better	Somewhat Better	Neither better nor bad	Somewhat Bad	Bad	Worse
1	Quality of products, services or programs?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Development of new products, services and programs?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Ability to attract the essential employees?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Ability to retain the essential employees?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Satisfaction of customer and clients?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

6	Relations between managers and other employees?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Relations among employees in general?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Marketing?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	Growth in sales?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Profitability?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11	Market share?	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10.	<u>Extraversion</u> Please read each statement carefully and tick the box at the right that best indicates how accurate each statement describes you.	Very Accurate	Moderately Accurate	Somewhat Accurate	Neither Accurate nor Inaccurate	Somewhat Inaccurate	Moderately Inaccurate	Very Inaccurate
1	Talk to a lot of different people at parties.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	Start conversations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	Don't mind being the centre of attention.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	Feel comfortable around people.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	Am quite around strangers.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	Keep in the background.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Don't like to draw attention to myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Don't talk a lot.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9	I'm the life of the party.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10	Have little to say.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11.	<u>Risk-taking Propensity</u> Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements by putting a circle around the option you prefer. Please do not think too long before answering; usually your first inclination is also the best one.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Safety first. R	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	I do not take risks with my health. R	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	I prefer to avoid risks. R	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I take risks regularly. R	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I really dislike not knowing what is going to happen.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I usually view risks as a challenge.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	I view myself as a risk seeker.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12.	<u>General Self-Efficacy</u> Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5	I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8	Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13.	<u>Person-Organization Fit</u> Please tick in the relevant column that best matches how much you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Slightly Agree	Neutral	Slightly Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

1	I feel that my personal values are good fit with this organization.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2	This organization has the same values as I do with regard to concern for others.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3	This organization has the same values as I do with regard to honesty.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4	This organization has the same values as I do with regard to fairness.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Thanks for your cooperation!

Kamil Hussain

PhD Scholar at National University of Modern Languages (NUML), Islamabad

Email: kamilhussain87@yahoo.com