

THE EFFECTS OF RECEIVING AND OBSERVING
DYSFUNCTIONAL HELP AT WORK

By

SHERRY (QIANG) FU

Bachelor of Science in Business Administration
Tianjin University of Finance and Economics
Tianjin, China
2013

Master of Science in Organizational Management
City University of Hong Kong
Hong Kong, China
2014

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
May, 2022

THE EFFECTS OF RECEIVING AND OBSERVING
DYSFUNCTIONAL HELP AT WORK

Dissertation Approved:

Dr. Nikolaos Dimotakis

Dissertation Adviser

Dr. Federico Aime

Dr. Lindsey Greco

Dr. Karen E. Flaherty

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am grateful for the many people who have supported me throughout my dissertation and doctoral studies.

First and foremost, I would like to thank Nikos Dimotakis, my advisor and dissertation chair. Beyond the incredible academic training and professional guidance that I received as your student, I owe a debt of gratitude for your genuine consideration and care as a person—you have been an excellent mentor, friend, and a great inspiration for me. I also would like to express my appreciation to the other members of my dissertation committee, Federico Aime, Lindsey Greco, and Karen Flaherty. I appreciate your valuable feedback and suggestions as I have developed and improved my dissertation. Furthermore, I feel fortunate to have worked with you and learned so much through other research projects.

Second, I want to express appreciation to the wonderful faculty in the Management Department at Oklahoma State University and University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I wanted to thank James Pappas and Bryan Edwards for their generous support, as well as the recognition from Phillips Dissertation Fellowship Grant and Pappas Family Scholarship.

Third, I wish to express my gratitude to the fellow doctorate students and friends I have made at both universities. I have spent the most enjoyable time with you. Thank you for always being there for me.

Lastly, I want to thank my parents for their unconditional love and support in every decision I made, especially for quitting my job and applying for a PhD. Thank you for the endless love and support!

Name: SHERRY (QIANG) FU

Date of Degree: MAY, 2022

Title of Study: THE EFFECTS OF RECEIVING AND OBSERVING
DYSFUNCTIONAL HELP AT WORK

Major Field: BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Abstract: Helping behaviors at work are often seen as beneficial and effective for both employees and organizations. In this study, I examine when a helping experience at work could be dysfunctional in terms of its utility and incivility. In doing so, I integrate exchange-based justice and affect-based justice as theoretical frameworks. First, I focus on help recipients' experiences in receiving help by examining two parallel processes—a cognitive process involves distributive justice and interpersonal justice perceptions, and an affective process with affective responses. Second, I propose that observers form their justice perceptions and affective responses separately when observing the interacting dyad. Finally, I expect that observers may develop either positive or negative reactions toward help recipients depending on their exclusion beliefs. In summary, I propose when help can be dysfunctional, and that this dysfunction will operate through justice perceptions and affective responses for both help recipients and observers. To test the proposed relationships, I gathered data to test the hypotheses in a lab experiment.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	6
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	6
Organizational Justice	10
Third-party Justice Perceptions.....	15
Behavioral Responses of Help Recipients.....	16
Behavioral Responses of Third-parties	19
III. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT.....	22
Utility of Helping and Distributive Justice.....	22
The Social Interaction of Helping and Interpersonal Justice	25
Conditional Indirect Effects of Distributive Justice on Behaviors via Social Exchange Quality.....	26
Conditional Indirect Effects of Interpersonal Justice on Behaviors via Affect.....	29
Justice Perceptions for Third Parties	35
Affective Responses for Third Parties	37
Behavioral Responses for Third Parties	39
IV. METHODOLOGY	41
Sample	41
Procedure	41
Measures	43
Supplemental Analysis.....	46
Analytical Approach.....	46
V. RESULTS	49

Chapter	Page
Supplemental Analysis.....	60
VI. DISCUSSION.....	63
Overview of Results	63
Theoretical and Practical Implication.....	56
Limitations and Future Directions.....	60
Conclusion.....	63
REFERENCES	65
APPENDICES	85
APPENDIX A: Tables	85
APPENDIX B: Supplemental Analysis Tables	97
APPENDIX C: Figures	104
APPENDIX D: Measures	107
APPENDIX E. IRB Approval.....	112

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables.....	85
2. Mean Distributive Justice Perceptions for Help Recipients in Each Condition ...	87
3. Mean Interpersonal Justice Perceptions for Help Recipients in Each Condition .	88
4. Mean Distributive Justice Perceptions for Observers in Each Condition	89
5. Mean Interpersonal Justice Perceptions for Observers in Each Condition	90
6. ANOVA Summary Table for Help Recipients	91
7. ANOVA Summary Table for Observers.....	92
8. Full Path Model Results for Help Recipients	93
9. Full Path Model Results for Observers	95
B1. Guilt as an Additional Emotion.....	97
B2. Decision Making as an Outcome for Help Recipients	100
B3. Predicting Help Recipient Justice Perceptions from Different Attributions	103

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Conceptual Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Helping Experiences	104
2. Interaction between Interpersonal Justice and Distributive Justice on Anger	105
3. Interaction between Interpersonal Justice and Distributive Justice on Shame ...	106

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The benefits of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) for individuals and organizations are widely supported by previous research (Gabriel et al., 2018; Organ et al., 2005). OCB is thought to be beneficial for both individual accomplishment and organizational performance. Empirical studies have been supportive, finding that engaging in OCB is associated with both positive antecedents, such as job satisfaction and organizational justice (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Penner et al., 1997; Spector & Fox, 2002), and positive consequences, including group organizational effectiveness, managerial evaluations of employee job performance, and promotability (Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 1993). These benefits suggest that research and theory on understanding OCB is particularly important.

In terms of how employees experience their daily work, one important component of OCB is the provision of help in organizational settings (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002); such behaviors improve individual and group performance more than other forms of OCB do (Bowler & Brass, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Therefore, early research recognized that these discretionary behaviors are particularly important for organizational effectiveness (e.g., Katz, 1964). In sum, both theoretical and empirical work has been focused on promoting these behaviors, because the positive social climate they create makes the organization a more pleasant place to work (Bolino et al., 2015; Organ et al., 2006). However, far less research

has examined the experiences of the receiver of help. Receiving help is generally considered to be beneficial because of its usefulness in reducing occupational stress (Bowling et al., 2005).

The consensus around the assumption that assisting others at work is universally beneficial for all parties (Bolino et al., 2004; Organ et al., 2006) might be premature. First, assisting others represents an additional workplace demand, that sometimes comes at the expense of one's own in-role task accomplishment. For example, individuals may spend tremendous amount of time helping their colleagues in solving their problems and issues, leaving insufficient time for their own in-role tasks. As such, helping others can be frustrating and fatiguing for employees (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino & Turnley, 2005). In addition, even when individuals are not constrained by time in meeting their in-role demands, the resources that they spend on assisting others still could have been used in other duties (Koopman et al., 2016). Furthermore, sometimes helping others is informally rewarded or even externally compelled by organization or supervisor, such that employees may feel pressure to help. Recent research has started to more closely examine this “dark side” of citizenship behaviors such as helping.

It is perhaps not surprising that this research has indeed demonstrated that engaging in OCB (e.g., being helpful and taking on more responsibilities) is associated with negative affective states and depletion, especially when individuals feel pressured to engage in such behaviors (Matta et al., 2020). Furthermore, helpers can resent having to help others, or feel unnecessarily entitled to rewards for such behaviors, which can be frustrating if reciprocation does not materialize (Bolino et al., 2015; Gabriel et al., 2018; Yam et al., 2016). These experienced states and attitudes can even then ultimately lead to negative discretionary behaviors (Gabriel et al., 2018; Matta et al., 2020), to the detriment of the organization and employees. This shows that unquestioningly considering helping behavior to be universally good fails to consider important nuance around the helping context and can lead to erroneous conclusions in at least some cases.

While the aforementioned work has provided some invaluable insights that begin to address this issue on the part of the individuals engaged in helping, the core of this issue—the consensus

about the universal positivity of receiving help—has not been fully addressed (Chou & Stauffer, 2016). That is, *receiving* helping at work is still broadly considered to be purely beneficial to the recipients, who are thought to always feel happy and grateful when given help. However, receiving helping is still essentially an interpersonal interaction—as such, like any type of exchange between two individuals, the actual experience of it need not be always positive (Gray et al., 2020). For example, the help received itself might not be of any value to the individual, or it might be confusing or inaccurate (Bolino et al., 2004; Dalal & Sheng, 2019), which makes the experience, at the very least, a waste of the help receiver’s time.

In addition, the way in which help is given is important. Just as interpersonal interactions with supervisors and customers are not always positive, helping interactions among coworkers can also be unpleasant in nature. In fact, 98% of employees reported that they had experienced uncivil behaviors at work, and 50% reported being treated rudely at least once a week in 2011 (Porath & Pearson, 2013). Importantly, experiencing rudeness may happen during any interpersonal interaction, including helping. For example, while one employee might receive help (of any level of utility) with respect and patience on behalf of the helper, the other might experience condescension or disrespect; this can be true even of help that is in itself of high instrumental value. Thus, despite recent attention to the perspective of helpers, the actual experiences of help recipient remain relatively unexplored.

Importantly, the implications may go beyond the interacting dyad to others who might be observing this interpersonal interaction, because observers do not always perceive an event the same way as the participants of the event do. For example, help recipients may receive lower utility helping when it does not match their needs to solve the problem, whereas observers may not notice this issue as they are unaware of the exact needs of help recipients. In addition, observers of an interaction between a dyad might use their perceptions as information that might apply to them, and thus the particulars of this interaction may also impact observers. Past research has shown that witnessing uncivil behaviors has been shown to be associated with increased negative affect and fear (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), distress (Lim et al., 2008) and emotional exhaustion (Totterdell et al., 2012), and

any similar effects in a helping context can have a far-reaching influence that may bring potential negative consequences to employees.

In this work, I argue that a greater focus on help recipients and observers in a helping context is needed to establish a new consensus of helping as a multidimensional and nuanced context. By no longer overlooking the complexity of the experiences that recipients might have, I will contribute to the understanding of workplace helping as not always beneficial, and will show when, how and why it can be aversive. I further show that the potential negative consequences of helping may be experienced not only by those providing help but also by those receiving it. This expanded understanding considers both parties in a helping interaction as distinct individuals with their own needs, affective states, and perceptions of one another, all of which are important components of an interaction characterized by both instrumental and social elements.

The purpose of this dissertation is, therefore, twofold. First, I examine the consequences of receiving help with differential levels of utility and presented with differential levels of incivility. In particular, I investigate how help recipients' justice perceptions after receiving (un)helpful and (un)pleasant helping, how they cognitively and affectively experience it, and how they intend to behave in the future as a result. Second, I examine the consequences the different ways in which helping can manifest might have for observers, showing that both utility and incivility aspects of this interaction link to justice perceptions and affective experiences at the conclusion of the interaction, as well as future behavioral intentions and attitudes.

This study contributes to the organizational citizenship behavior and justice literatures in several ways. First, I theoretically show the potential unintended consequences of OCB by examining the experiences of help recipients. Specifically, I examine why help recipients may perceive unfairness, experience negative emotions, and produce negative behaviors after receiving assistance. Although past research has examined the potential negative issues associated with OCB, the focus was mainly on the helpers' personal and professional costs (Bolino et al., 2013). The current study expands this research by assessing the experiences of help recipients. Moreover, although the use of

social exchange theory has been a dominant lens for explaining justice perceptions, a focus on affect in the justice literature is relatively recent (Colquitt et al., 2013). This study thus provides a comprehensive approach by integrating the two processes. In addition, although violations of justice have been linked to negative affect, the relationship between justice and positive affect has been less clear (Cohen-Charash & Byrne, 2008). As a result, this study answers the call for an integrative framework of exchange-based justice and affect-based justice.

Second, this study adds to the literature on third-party justice perceptions. By drawing on social learning theory and the deontic model of justice, this study reveals that observers may develop different cognitive and affective processes from those of help recipients. Furthermore, this study shows not all observers will perceive the same event in the same way—instead, their perceptions of justice and affective responses depend on their exclusion beliefs (i.e., whether they perceive the help recipient deserving of mistreatments; Mitchell et al., 2015). As a result, this study expands the deontic model of justice for third-party observers by assessing the boundary conditions that relate to their perceptions and behaviors.

The remainder of this dissertation is structured as follows: Chapter 2 is a review of the literature on helping, justice perceptions, and behavioral responses for both the focal employee and the observer. Chapter 3 presents the overall model with hypotheses. In Chapter 4, I present the methods. Chapter 5 reports the results. Finally, I present a discussion and implications in Chapter 6. All of the lab experimental design and survey measures are presented in the Appendix D.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, I lay out a framework for understanding the phenomena and the theories involved in my model. In doing so, I first discuss why helping (as a core organizational citizenship behavior) can be dysfunctional. Second, I introduce research on justice and explain how receiving help impacts individual justice perceptions based on an integrative lens of social exchange and affect. Third, I discuss the deontic responses of third-party observers. Finally, I examine how different justice perceptions can lead to different behaviors on the part of both help recipients and third-party observers.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The original definition of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) by Organ (1988) is “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization”. OCB can improve organizational effectiveness because they may enhance coworker and managerial productivity (MacKenzie et al., 1991; Organ, 1988), increase coordination (Smith et al., 1983), and form an attractive working environment (George & Bettenhausen, 1990). Indeed, empirical research shows that OCB contributes to overall performance, operating efficiency, and customer satisfaction at the organizational level (Bergeron, 2007; Podsakoff et al., 1997).

A key assumption in Organ's original definition for OCB implies that such behaviors will generally promote the effective functioning of the organization, which was intuitively plausible but may not be universal across situations (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Using a resource allocation framework, Bergeron (2007) argued that while OCB may be beneficial at the workgroup and organizational level, they may come at the expense of individual task performance because of the tradeoff between these two at given points. A handful of studies that conducted empirical tests have found mixed support for the relationship between OCB and performance. As Van Dyne et al. (1995, p. 278) noted, "although Organ (1990) defines OCB as positive in terms of both intent and outcome, it is possible to imagine intendedly positive acts of extra-role behavior that have negative outcomes." To the extent that OCB is not always beneficial, organizational functioning and employee outcomes may not always benefit from more citizenship behaviors.

Research in this area has been identified different forms of OCB. For example, OCB has been conceptualized as 1) Altruism and 2) Generalized Compliance (Smith et al., 1983), 1) Altruism, 2) Courtesy, 3) Sportsmanship, 4) Conscientiousness, and 5) Civic Virtue (Organ, 1988), and 1) OCB-I and 2) OCB-O (Williams & Anderson, 1991). As Podsakoff (2000) pointed out in his review on the conceptual overlap between the constructs, *helping behavior* has been identified as an important component of OCB by virtually everyone in this domain; therefore I will focus specifically on helping as the core OCB of interest.

Helping as a core OCB

Because helping behavior is one of the most important citizenship behaviors (and identified as such by almost all researchers in the OCB literature; Podsakoff et al., 2000), for the remainder of this dissertation, I focus on interpersonal OCB or helping (see Koopman et al., 2016; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Conceptually, helping at work means voluntarily assisting

coworkers with work-related problems. This is also termed as interpersonal citizenship behavior (Bowler & Brass, 2006), OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991), or altruism (Smith et al., 1983). Helping at work facilitates organizational functioning because such behaviors can contribute to the development of social capital (Bolino et al., 2002). Empirically, however, helping behaviors are associated with both increased (Podsakoff et al., 1997) and decreased work-group performance (Podsakoff & Mackenzie, 1994). That is, the assumption that because helping behaviors are intended to be helpful does not mean that help is necessarily valuable, welcome, or even wanted. Building on the inconsistent consequences of helping, I will utilize the justice framework to explain what outcomes it may bring to help recipients as well as observers.

Related Literatures of Dysfunctional Helping

There are several lines of research in other domains that have examined phenomena similar to dysfunctional workplace helping, including unhelpful workplace social support, negative mentoring relationships, and dysfunctional helping in romantic relationships. Below I will give a brief review on each of these, discuss how they are relevant for my theoretical framework, and link them to other literatures.

A closely related literature to dysfunctional helping is unhelpful workplace social support. Although social support at work is thought to protect employees by reducing strains and buffering work stressors (Viswesvaran et al., 1999), not all studies reported beneficial effects. Unhelpful workplace social support may happen when an employee receives instrumental support at the cost of self-esteem (Deelstra et al., 2003), or when a specific form of social support is not wanted or needed by the employee (Beehr et al., 2010). In particular, researchers have shown that reverse buffering effects could happen when support has a harmful or exacerbating rather than a beneficial or mitigating moderation effect on stressor-criteria relationships (Mathieu et al., 2019). In a recent meta-analysis, Mathieu et al. (2019) compared the two types of workplace social

support (i.e., emotional support and instrumental support). In the twenty-five studies they identified that tested emotional support moderation effects (i.e., support and stressor interaction), they found that buffering effects were only marginally more common than reverse buffering effects (48% vs. 40%); for 23 studies testing instrumental support moderation, reverse buffering was actually slightly more common than buffering effects (43% vs. 30%). Therefore, just as unhelpful workplace social support sometimes becomes a job stressor instead of a job resource (Gray et al., 2020), workplace helping can be perceived as unhelpful or even harmful by help recipients regardless of helpers' (e.g., supervisor, coworker) intentions.

Likewise, in mentoring relationships, mentors typically provide career-related support and psychosocial support, both of which are intended to be beneficial but can end up being dysfunctional for protégé goal attainment and personal interaction quality (Scandura, 1998). For instance, when a mentor does not have job-related expertise to guide the protégé (technical competencies) or provides inaccurate information (overt deceit), the protégé's career-related support would be hindered; when a mentor has a negative attitude, or is generally bitter and unhappy, the protégé's psychosocial support would suffer. Although not all negative mentoring experiences involve a helping context, mentoring experiences are still related enough to such behaviors to shed some light on dysfunctional helping at workplace (Simon & Eby, 2003), because they are generally perceived as positive behaviors, and yet can have negative outcomes for the receiver.

Another area where helping has been found to have mixed results is social support in romantic relationships. Research on social support in marriage has focused on specific supportive interactions (Bradbury et al., 2000). An important source of support individuals expect to receive in stressful times is from their partners (Cutrona, 1996). However, not everyone in intimate relationships can provide responsive and sensitive care to the other, because responding to others' needs is not easy—it involves responsibility and utilization of considerable cognitive, emotional,

and tangible resources (Collins et al., 2010). Likewise, receiving dysfunctional helping at work may happen as those dysfunctional social support in romantic relationships.

In summary, a common thread in literatures examining failed social support is that although supportive action is typically considered beneficial, it is in essence a type of interpersonal interaction—as such, the outcome should not be assumed; instead, it depends on the specific communication and information exchange process. With an understanding of relevant literatures on failed social support, it is important to identify the possible outcomes associated with it. Past research has shown that employees appear to be sensitive to fairness issues in general in daily interactions at work (Bies, 2001; Miner & Cortina, 2016). When receiving dysfunctional support or mistreatment in daily interactions, individuals are likely to have negative experiences because of cues of unfairness and different emotions. Therefore, in the section below, I integrate social exchange and affect lenses in justice as a framework to illustrate how justice perceptions of both recipients and observers originate from helping and how different parties respond as a result.

Organizational Justice

The study of organizational justice in its current form can be traced to Adams (1965)'s equity theory that discusses workplace distributive justice. Early studies of distributive justice have been mostly focused distribution of monetary resources in workplace (Skitka & Tetlock, 1992), such as pay, promotions, fringe benefits, and rewards. Adams (1965) framed distributive justice as perceptions of fairness in terms of the ratio between an individual's outcomes and inputs in relation to the ratio of some comparison others, such that if an individual's own outcome/input ratio falls below that of the comparison other, he/she would feel injustice. Although equity is the most appropriate allocation norm in the context of distribution of monetary resources in organizations (Colquitt et al., 2012), there are two alternative norms that individuals may follow (Leventhal, 1976)—equality norms refer to the idea that recipients all get the same

regardless of inputs, and norms of responsiveness to need refer to the idea that recipients with greater need will be given more resources. However, the other two norms are seldom examined or included in justice measures (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005), probably because allocations of nonmonetary resources at the workplace are only rarely studied (Skitka & Tetlock, 1992). Importantly, distributive justice perceptions motivate people to “restore the balance,” including withdrawing from the relationship or altering one’s inputs or outcomes (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the procedures during a decision-making process (Cropanzano et al., 2002). Grounded in the pioneering work of Thibaut and Walker (1975), procedural justice was expanded by Leventhal (1980) with six procedural rules—consistency, bias suppression, accuracy, correctability, representativeness, and ethicality. For example, the procedures in a decision-making process should be open to voice, unbiased and consistent across people and time (Colquitt & Shaw, 2005). Greenberg and Folger (1983) introduced procedural justice to the organizational literature, applying it to various human resource management practices such as performance evaluation and compensation, most of which are implemented by an agent such as one’s supervisor. As a result, employees often attribute procedural justice to either the formal organization procedures themselves or the leaders who enact and apply the procedures (Cobb et al., 1997).

Supplementing and extending findings in distributive justice and procedural justice, the wave of interactional justice started in the mid-1980s. Bies (1986) added the social aspect of justice to capture the interpersonal treatment individuals receive, and identified four rules for fairness of interpersonal treatment—truthfulness, justification, respect, and propriety. Greenberg and Cropanzano (1993) further suggested that interactional justice could be meaningfully separated into two distinct types—interpersonal justice, which consists of respect and propriety rules and relates to how individuals are treated, and informational justice, which captures

truthfulness and justification rules and refers to the accuracy and quality of explanations people receive (Colquitt et al., 2005).

Over the years, research in justice has integrated other lenses in establishing its theoretical framework. In a meta-analysis, Colquitt et al. (2013) identified social exchange theory as the dominant lens for the past decade, and the affect lens as an emergent framework for understanding justice reactions, in spite of the intuitive affinity between justice and affect (Cropanzano et al., 2011; De Cremer, 2007). Providing help and receiving help are closely associated with both lenses, because giving and receiving resources often are involved in the process of reciprocity and may trigger a variety of affective responses. As such, I will review both lenses of justice below to discuss how helping becomes dysfunctional at work.

Exchange-based Justice

Social exchange in an organizational setting can be seen as a process in which employees return the benefits that they receive with those whom they have an exchange relationship with, whether it is supervisors, coworkers, organizations, or customers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Early integrations of social exchange and justice have been shown that perceptions of justice can foster trust, which then encourages the employee to engage in OCB as an exchangeable resource (Moorman, 1991; Organ, 1988). Indeed, Moorman et al. (1998) found that procedural justice is associated with OCB behaviors, including interpersonal helping, via perceived organizational support. Subsequent studies uncovered a series of social exchange quality indicators, and explored the relationship between different justice dimensions and these social exchange quality indicators (Colquitt et al., 2013). For example, Masterson et al. (2000) focused on two major social exchange relationships at work—LMX (social exchange relationship with the immediate supervisor), and perceived organizational support (POS, social exchange relationship with the organization) as mechanisms that explain the link from (in)justice perceptions to employee

attitudes and behaviors. In particular, they found that procedural justice was associated with responses directed toward organization (POS), and interactional justice was associated with response directed toward the supervisor (LMX). They speculated that this is because procedures are often established by organizations, whereas interactional justice is often enacted at the individual level, commonly by individuals' supervisors (Cropanzano et al., 2002).

Accordingly, Lavelle et al. (2007) proposed a target similarity model of justice, in which the relationship between three sources of justice (i.e., organizational, supervisory, and coworker) and target-specific citizenship behavior (i.e., citizenship toward organization, supervisor, and coworker, respectively) is mediated by target-specific social exchange indicators (i.e., perceived support, trust and exchange relationships from the organization, the supervisor, and coworkers separately). From a multifocal perspective, researchers can distinguish the sources or referents of the social exchange relationship, and are better able to explain employee behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 2016). These arguments are in line with previous work on procedural justice—while perceptions of procedural justice are formed from formal policies, they are also based on supervisors who are involved in their implementation (Cobb et al., 1997). Overall, social exchange-based justice provides an effective cognitive framework for understanding the relationship between justice and OCB (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994).

Affect-based Justice

Emerging research began recognizing the role of affect in justice literature. However, the integration between justice and affect “has been slower than one might expect.” (Cropanzano et al., 2011, p. 3), even though affect was implicit in the early conceptualization of justice. Adams (1965) in his equity theory proposed that individuals feel more distress the greater the inequity they perceive (either overreward or underreward), and as a result they will try to restore equity and reduce distress.

Early attempts on integration of justice and discrete emotions have adopted appraisal theories of emotions, in which a justice situation serves as an affective event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In the appraisal framework, individuals engage in a two-stage process in which events are seen as proximal causes for emotional reactions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In the primary stage, individuals evaluate whether an event is relevant to their goals and well-being. In the secondary stage, individuals further interpret the meaning of the event based on cues from the environment and evaluate whether they can reduce or avoid the threats, during which discrete emotional responses are elicited (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Lazarus, 1991).

Building on cognitive appraisal models, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) argue that work events are proximal causes of affective reactions. As such, employees would have affective reactions to justice because these events are relevant to goal progress (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2015). Meta-analysis showed that the justice–behavior relationship was indeed mediated by state affect (Colquitt et al., 2013), in particular, distributive and procedural justice are associated with task performance and OCB via state positive affect, and distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice are associated with CWB via state negative affect. In affective events that elicit an unfavorable outcome or an unfair process, a variety of discrete emotions are identified, including happiness, pride, joy, understanding, anger, disappointment and resentment (e.g., Clayton, 1992; Cropanzano & Folger, 1989; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Mikula, 1986; Rupp & Spencer, 2006; Weiss et al., 1999).

Yet despite scholars having examined justice perceptions from both cognitive and affective perspective, the integration of these two is lacking, and thus Colquitt et al. (2013) called for more research on integrating the two mechanisms (Colquitt & Zapata-Phelan, 2015). Integrating these two perspectives would generate more nuanced implications because both social exchange and affect are present and complement each other in workplace helping interactions.

As such, receiving help is beneficial when help recipients' need is satisfied in a friendly helping experience, and as a result help recipients may choose to reciprocate in return. Inversely, when the helping experience is an uncivil interpersonal interaction without outcomes of value, recipients may develop a sense of unfairness and negative affective reactions, and even reciprocate in negative ways. Indeed, justice and affect are the two most proximal outcomes to investigate in response to differentiated helping experiences.

Third-party Justice Perceptions

The section above discussed justice perception from focal employees' perspective. Seeking help and giving help, as many other events in workplace, do not exist in a vacuum. Employees often have coworkers work alongside and have social and task interactions on a daily basis (Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Fairlie, 2004, December); coworkers also form opinions on the workplace interactions that they witness. Whereas social exchange theory is used to examine how individuals evaluate and respond to their own experiences, the deontic model of justice (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Folger, 2001) focuses on the moral aspects of witnessing injustice from an observer's perspective. In particular, Folger et al. (2005) summarized five attributes of the deontic response, three of which are especially relevant to the helping context.

The first attribute is automaticity. Moral judgement, as other types of judgement, is part of a dual processing system (O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011). The dual process models suggest that individuals form judgement in two processes: the intuitive system involves fast, effortless, and automatic processing, whereas the reasoning system involves slow, effortful, and intentional processing (Epstein, 1994). Deontic reactions are described the product of moral intuitions, defined as "the sudden appearance in consciousness of a moral judgement, including an affective valence (good-bad, like-dislike), without any conscious awareness of having gone through steps of searching, weighting evidence or inferring a conclusion" (Haidt, 2001, p. 1029). As such,

justice judgement of others' behavior can occur in a relatively rapid, automatic and unconscious process (Bos et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2003; O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011). Second, individuals may seek vengeful actions in response to other individuals' injustice experiences (Folger et al., 2005). In particular, interactional injustice is the most prevailing antecedent, because it is often easier to identify the person to blame in an interactional injustice event than in a procedural injustice event (Bies et al., 1996). Finally, Folger et al. (2005) termed "deontic anger" to describe the angry responses of the third-party to people who violate the moral order. To the extent that third-party observers can develop strongly felt emotions and action tendencies when the injustice event does not have a direct consequence to themselves (Ellard & Skarlicki, 2002; Folger et al., 2005), the commitment to ethical standards need not to be associated with self-interest of benefits. It may even include self-sacrifice of the third-party (Turillo et al., 2002).

Therefore, individuals as neutral observers are likely to have negative emotional reactions and take retributive actions toward the transgressor in response to injustice perceptions (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Folger et al., 2005; Reich & Hershcovis, 2015). This is because a violation of normative standards and principles indicates that it is not moral or right (Cropanzano et al., 2003). As a result, a moral intuition on an injustice event triggers the third party's affective reactions in a relatively rapid and nonconscious process (O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011). Put differently, individuals care about others not only when an event arouses self-concerns, but also when it violates moral and social norms (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Given the emergence of third-parties' reactions in organizational justice context, observers' perspective is critical to be included in an integrated model.

Behavioral Responses of Help Recipients

The social exchanged-based justice framework describes a social exchange process in which individuals respond in kind with either positive or negative behaviors (Cropanzano et al.,

2016). Specifically, an organizational actor starts with either initial positive actions, such as justice and support (Cropanzano & Rupp, 2008; Riggle et al., 2009), or initial negative actions, such as abusive supervision or incivility (Pearson et al., 2005; Tepper et al., 2009). These initial actions transform into higher- or lower-quality social exchange relationships. The target, in response, can choose to respond with positive or negative behaviors—such behaviors are referred to as reciprocating responses (Cropanzano et al., 2016). Cropanzano et al. (2016) proposed a two-dimension space of social exchange relationship to organize initiating action and reciprocating responses—activity axis, which ranges from “active/exhibit” to “inactive/withhold” and hedonic value axis, which ranges from “desirable” to “undesirable”. For example, when an undesirable and active initiating action is high abusive supervision, target might respond with high distrust and CWB. As discussed above, to integrate social exchange and affect framework, I will review reciprocating responses from both lenses for help recipients.

Exchange and behavioral responses. Gouldner (1960) postulated that the concept of reciprocity can be examined from the equivalence, immediacy, and interest. For example, they suggest that people generally should help those who have helped them, and should not harm those who have helped them. Moreover, they pointed out that historically, the most prominent expression is negative norms of reciprocity, regarding a “return of harms”, as such principles are widespread in criminal laws and legal penalties (Helm et al., 1972). Research has examined several negative reciprocating responses, such as the spiraling effect of work incivility (Andersson & Pearson, 1999), supervisor-directed CWB (Liu et al., 2010) and displaced aggression (Marcus-Newhall et al., 2000). According to a meta-analysis on reciprocation of negative work behaviors, negative work behaviors are likely associated with negative work behaviors of similar severity or activity and directed back to the instigators (Greco et al., 2019).

In the management literature, scholars have examined both positive and negative norms of reciprocity in work relationships (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003). According to the general model

of social exchange (Cropanzano et al., 2016), the process begins when an organizational actor treats people in a positive or negative manner (Eisenberger et al., 2004), and the target choose to reciprocate with positive or negative behaviors in response to the initiating action (Eisenberger et al., 1987). As an exemplar of reciprocation in social exchange relationships, OCB has emerged as one of the earliest positive outcomes of justice (Moorman, 1991). Organ (1988) proposed that when supervisors treat employees fairly, employees may reciprocate with OCB, indicating a positive social exchange relationship. Research afterwards consistently supported the positive relationship between justice and OCB (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2002). This is because these organizational experiences “force a conscious appraisal of the type of the exchange—social or economic—that defines the relationship with the organization” (Organ, 1990, p. 66). In other words, employees are more likely to feel moral obligated to reciprocate with OCB because of the positive initial actions from organizations such as the receipt of organizational support (Cardona et al., 2004).

Affect and behavioral responses. Whereas social exchange theory has been used as a cognitive explanation for work behaviors, state affect can also drive a variety of behavioral responses. Recent research suggests that these two explanations are not as closely related as once thought (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Instead, cognitive and affective states can independently link the relationship between justice and behavioral responses (Colquitt et al., 2013).

From an affective perspective, Spector and Fox (2002)’s emotion-centered model views emotion as playing a central role in eliciting both OCB and CWB. They proposed that emotions induce action tendencies to behave, such that positive emotions tend to elicit altruistic behaviors, whereas negative emotions may prompt avoidance tendencies. However, this does not mean that emotions will automatically or immediately result in behaviors; instead, emotions elicit these action tendencies such that individuals may engage in certain behaviors when certain events

occur (Spector & Fox, 2002). Positive emotions such as joy, enthusiasm or pride are associated with OCB, whereas negative emotions such as anger or anxiety are associated with CWB.

Moreover, according to affective events theory, specific affective event elicits emotions and behaviors (Dimotakis et al., 2011; Wegge et al., 2006). Integrating the above theoretical framework, Matta et al. (2014) extended the between-individual approach to within-person work and found that stressors that are fairness related are likely to trigger negative emotions, which in turn elicit retaliation and avoidance behaviors conceptualized as CWB. In summary, differentiated work events trigger perceptions of justice and emotions, and as a result people respond with OCB and CWB accordingly.

Behavioral Responses of Third-parties

Accumulating research in a number of areas shows that third parties react to unfairness of other people with defined emotional and behavioral reactions (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Moral emotions, defined as emotions related to the welfare of others rather than one's own (Haidt, 2003), will promote behavioral consequences of a third party. For example, research on layoff survivors' reactions to coworker layoffs indicates that survivors may feel guilt, worry, anxiety or anger, produced by perceptions of fairness about layoff of fellow employees (Brockner, 1990; Brockner et al., 1986; Brockner et al., 1987; Brockner et al., 1995). Extant work on abusive supervision found that observers may experience deontic reactions (e.g., anger, outrage, or contentment) and engage in affect-driven behaviors (e.g., harm transgressors, help or support victims, or exclude them) as a response to witnessing abusive supervision depending on their justice perceptions (Chen et al., 2020; Mitchell et al., 2015; Priesemuth & Schminke, 2019).

Relatively little research has examined relatively weaker situations such as peer-to-peer mistreatment and customer-to-coworker mistreatment—though less salient than factors such as abusive supervision, such situations may happen more frequently at work (Reich & Hershcovis,

2015), and therefore could greatly impact employees' daily work. Similar to observers of factors such as abusive supervision, observers of peer-to-peer incivility or customer-to-coworker mistreatment are also likely to perceive unfairness and develop discrete emotions such as anger, hostility, guilt and contempt, which in turn motivate different action tendencies toward the mistreated individuals and the perpetrator (Mitchell et al., 2015; O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011; Spencer & Rupp, 2009).

Regarding observers' behavioral responses, Darley and Pittman (2003) proposed that there are two general impulses for observers—one directed toward the victim (i.e., to compensate for the victim) and the other directed toward the perpetrator (i.e., to punish the perpetrator). They termed these reactions as “impulses” because the people may not need to consciously involve in the elaborate analysis, but rather react based on automatic thinking.

Observers often lack complete information (Li et al., 2017), and therefore have to rely on information and social cues from other people for interpreting events and attributing blame (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Indeed, social information processing theory argues that individuals adapt their behaviors to their social context (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). In other words, social cues from one's social environment can affect his/her beliefs. In a similar vein, fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001) asserts that people use early judgement of fairness as a heuristic to guide their behaviors. O'Reilly et al. (2016) extend this notion and supplement with a deontic view (Folger, 2001), and they propose that third parties' responses are stronger in interactional injustice situations than other types of injustice events, because assessing violations of interactional justice is more intuitive and requires less information than distributive or procedural injustice, and thus individuals can easily recognize and respond to an ethical standards violation.

To summarize, “unaffected” third parties may choose to punish the perpetrator for violating the norm even when such actions are costly to them (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2004;

Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010). At the same time, observers may develop empathic emotion toward the victim of injustice (O'Reilly et al., 2016), which motivates a desire to help. In addition, drawing from the appraisal theories of emotion, Li et al. (2017) proposed that observers sometimes engage in passive mistreatment behaviors (e.g., withholding help, hiding information, and isolating) when they experience contentment, a pleasant emotion inducted by others' misfortunes (Chen et al., 2020). As such, while third-party observers have similar cognitive and affective processes when witnessing others' helping experiences, they develop distinct responses beyond the helping dyad.

CHAPTER III

HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

In this chapter, I draw from literatures discussed above to formulate specific hypotheses. My overall theoretical model is presented in Figure 1. Briefly, I utilize a justice theoretical framework to explain helping experiences. I propose that the utility of helping (as defined below) is positively related to distributive justice, and the incivility of helping is negatively related to interpersonal justice. Furthermore, help recipients perceive social exchange quality and generate affective responses for a combination of distributive justice and interpersonal justice. In addition, observers may develop nonmatching affective responses different from those of help recipients based on their exclusion beliefs. Lastly, I propose that help recipients and observers may engage in OCB or CWB as a result of their perceptions of social exchange quality and affect.

Utility of Helping and Distributive Justice

Helping occurs during almost all daily interactions at work and varies on a day-to-day basis as employees deal with their complex tasks at work (Gabriel et al., 2018; Lanaj et al., 2016). For example, employees may start a conversation during lunch or at the coffee station, seek help on a specific problem during office hours, or send emails to colleagues who are familiar with the issues. These events demonstrate that helping interactions “commonly begin when an individual seeks help” (Nadler, 1991, p. 290). Indeed, previous research suggests that the majority of helping at work is triggered in response to requests from others (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Bolino & Grant, 2016). However, as Nadler et al. (2003, p. 92) noted, “*Interestingly, although the*

need to call on colleagues for instrumental and socioemotional help is commonplace and important in organizations settings (Tyre & Hauptman, 1992), the issues of help seeking and help giving are seldom discussed in the organizational literature.” As a typical social interaction involving helping is often triggered by help seekers, I focus on evaluations and perceptions of helping experiences from the perspective of help recipients when they seek help.

Because help seeking at work is considered as a social process in which people acquire support from their colleagues (van der Rijt et al., 2013), it is strongly grounded in social exchange framework (as noted above). Prior work in social exchange theory integrated this view with organizational justice, suggesting that perceptions of fairness predict citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988). However, I extend this relationship and propose that receiving help itself is an antecedent of perceptions of fairness, which then predict citizenship behaviors, for two reasons.

The basis for the relationship between justice and helping behaviors, derived from equity theory (Adams, 1965), is the norm of equity. Drawing from this norm (the most often studied one), individuals will attempt to resolve the tension created by situations that involve inequity (Organ, 1988). In that vein, receiving help represents obtaining information and or service, thus reducing the amount of effort (i.e., “input”) employees need to put in to solve their problems. For example, the target employee who is declined for assistance should perceive a negative inequity compared to the other employee who receives a lot of help and support from coworkers, because he/she would have to put more effort and time than the other in solving the issues. Therefore, receiving help might be related to perceptions of distributive justice based on equity norm.

In addition, individuals may feel unfairness based on an alternative distributive norm besides equity—such as responsiveness to need. This is because help-seeking behavior itself indicates the need for help in solving work problems, and thus employees may feel that failing to get what they require is unfair. The norms of responsiveness to need become especially relevant

in cooperative relations in groups, in which the goal is to foster personal development and personal welfare (Deutsch, 1975). Just as in a family context, where a sick child tends to get more family resources because he/she is in need more than a healthy child (Deutsch, 1975), an employee in a group or an institution also expects to get help and support following their level of assistance needs. Thus, if individuals who are in need of help in solving a work problem get rejected by coworkers, it would be hard for them to perceive the organization as cooperative (Rawls, 2009). On the contrary, the norms of being responsive and responsible for the other party's needs impose each member in the solidary dyad to satisfy the requirements for assistance (Leventhal, 1976). Thus, both norm of equity and the norm of responsiveness to need operate together to form perceptions of distributive justice.

Taken together, receiving help is related to perceptions of distributive justice because functional helping can reduce the amount of effort employees need to solve the problem and justify the norms of responsiveness to need, creating a sense of fairness. That is not to say, however, that as long as help recipients receive any help whatsoever, they would perceive the same levels of distributive justice. To the extent that help recipients perceive the help as unlikely to resolve the problem they have, their judgments may not hold. The importance of this utility of help is emphasized by Dalal and Sheng (2019, p. 274), who defined unhelpful help as “help that fails to engender improved task performance and/or positive cognitive-affective reactions.” This may happen for many reasons. Bolino et al. (2004) pointed out that help recipients may need to work extra hours when they actually receive inaccurate advice (i.e., helping of low utility) as a result of helpers' lack of knowledge, skills, and abilities (Dalal & Sheng, 2019). Similarly, Eby et al. (2000) found that 17% of the negative mentoring experience was related to mentor's lack of expertise. In summarizing the categories of unhelpful workplace social support, Gray et al. (2020) qualitatively identified eleven types of unhelpful workplace social support. Moreover, they found that such events can act as stressors that lead to strain. Importantly, regardless of why the help is

unhelpful, employees who receive unhelpful help may develop a sense of unfairness because receipt of the support may lead to feelings of indebtedness (Gleason et al., 2003) or the pressure to reciprocate with support when the other person need so in the future.

In summary, receiving workplace help of low utility is related to distributive justice perceptions, because such help violates the norm of equity and responsiveness to needs. Therefore, I expect that during a helping episode, receiving unhelpful help will be negatively associated with help recipients' perceptions of distributive justice.

Hypothesis 1: During a helping episode, the utility of help is positively associated with help recipients' perception of distributive justice at work.

The Social Interaction of Helping and Interpersonal Justice

The section above discussed the perceptions of distributive justice result from the utility of helping in a continuum from no help to unhelpful (low utility) help, and to helpful (high utility) help. However, helping by its nature, involves an interpersonal interaction (Bamberger, 2009). In essence, helping occurs between two people in the dyad—the helper and the help recipient. The potential for incivility in such interactions, however, is generally understudied in management literature (Scandura, 1998). As (Duck, 1994, p. 6) noted, “...when it is considered that real lives are richly entwined with begrudging, vengeful, hostile, conflictive tensions and struggles, it will perhaps begin to be realized that one must also start to look at the ways in which people cope with them in life and then to theorize about them”.

Taken together, a helping scenario may be characterized by receiving help that is effective (high utility) but that is offered in an uncivil manner. For example, an employee may successfully solve work-related issues with the help of a coworker; however, he/she may still feel annoyed because the coworker spoke in a rude and irritated tone. For instance, a coworker may reply with “you just need to look at the document” or “seriously, these tasks are not difficult” as

if the help recipient is a low-capability individual for not being able to come to the solution on his/her own. As a result, help recipients may feel belittled and perceive a sense of unfairness, involving perceptions of rudeness, humiliation, abuse, disrespect, and inconsideration (Bies, 1986, 2001; Miner & Cortina, 2016). These feelings are closely related to perceptions of interpersonal justice, which refers to whether individuals believe that they are treated with dignity and respect (Greenberg & Cropanzano, 1993). In particular, Bies (1986) identified two rules that influence interpersonal fairness perceptions—respect (i.e., being sincere and showing dignity) and propriety (i.e., using appropriate, nonprejudicial language).

Empirical studies have been generally supported the relationship between interpersonal treatment and perceptions of justice in different organizational domains (Tyler & Bies, 1990). For example, Glass and Singer (1972) reported individuals felt that they received unfair treatment from “bureaucratic administrators” who acted arrogantly. Similarly, Stoverink et al. (2014) conceptualized interpersonal justice climate in teams when the supervisor treats the team with respect and dignity. In line with previous research, I expect that the utility of interpersonal interaction will be associated with help recipients’ perceptions of interpersonal justice. That is, receiving an uncivil interaction during a helping episode will be negatively associated with help recipients’ perceptions of interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 2: During a helping episode, the incivility of help is negatively associated with help recipients’ perception of interpersonal justice at work.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Distributive Justice on Behaviors via Social Exchange Quality

The two hypotheses above discussed that helping experiences that are defined by helpfulness and civility influence the perceptions of distributive justice and interpersonal justice, respectively. However, individuals may receive a wide range of helping experiences. For

instance, one can be rejected for assistance in a kind and friendly way, or a rude and disrespectful manner. Similarly, unhelpful help could be offered during a civil interaction with good intentions or with an arrogant and contemptuous attitude. As an example of one of these experiences, a helper may assist dealing with the problems effectively, but express unwillingness at the same time (e.g., “let’s try to get this painful experience of working together over as quickly as we can”). As depicted in the example above, even a helpful help may be delivered with humiliation and inconsideration. Therefore, whereas unhelpful help relates to distributive justice and uncivil help relates to interpersonal justice, distributive justice and interpersonal justice should jointly influence individuals’ cognitive and emotional responses.

Indeed, organizational justice research suggests that people make fairness judgments not only based on the outcomes they receive (i.e., distributive justice), but also in terms of the procedures involved during the decision-making process (i.e., procedural justice) (Cropanzano & Folger, 1989; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975) and social sensitivity such as whether they are treated with respect and dignity (i.e., interactional justice). The importance of understanding how different facets of justice interact can be found in several lines of research (Barclay et al., 2005), including studies on affirmative action (e.g., Heilman & Alcott, 2001) and Folger’s (1987, 1993) reference cognitions theory. Research on affirmative action demonstrates that women reported feeling unhappy and unsatisfied when they are aware that others viewed them as having been preferentially selected on the basis of their gender rather than merit, despite perceptions of fair outcomes. Reference cognitions theory suggests that people respond to two factors regarding mistreatment: 1) the severity of the loss, and 2) the inappropriateness of the conduct by a supervisor or other agent (Folger, 1993). Importantly, the inappropriateness involves either procedural or interactional unfairness (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

Empirical work has also been supportive of this. Skarlicki and Folger (1997) argued that the relationship between outcome fairness and retaliation is stronger under the influences of non-

outcome factors. In particular, they suggested that retaliation would be strongest when both interactional justice and procedural justice are low. Indeed, they found support for a three-way interaction among the three forms of justice (i.e., distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice). Specifically, they found that procedural and interactional justice can substitute for each other to predict retaliatory tendencies, such that at high levels of interactional justice, where supervisors show a high concern toward employees, employees are more willing to tolerate unfair pay distribution (distributive injustice) and unfair procedures (procedural injustice). In addition, Porath and Erez (2007) examined the influence of rude behaviors, showing that rudeness reduced task performance, creative performance, and helping behaviors.

Drawing from social exchange in helping and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), I propose that perceptions of distributive justice are positively associated with intentions to help via exchange processes, because individuals are likely to want to help those who have previously help them (reciprocation). Moreover, I expect that the effect between distributive justice and intentions to help will be stronger under higher levels compared with lower levels of interpersonal justice, because the help recipient may interpret the situation as they are inequitably advantaged (Dovidio, 1984) and develop higher social exchange quality with the helper. As a result, help recipients are more likely to return the favor motivated by reciprocity motives. In contrast, help recipients should have higher CWB intentions when they have higher levels of social exchange quality.

Hypothesis 3a: Help recipients' perception of interpersonal justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of distributive justice with helping intentions through social exchange quality, such that these positive indirect effects are weaker for lower (vs. higher) interpersonal justice.

Hypothesis 3b: Help recipients' perception of interpersonal justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of distributive justice with CWB intentions through social exchange quality, such that the negative indirect effects are stronger for higher (vs. lower) interpersonal justice.

Conditional Indirect Effects of Interpersonal Justice on Behaviors via Affect

Although justice has been dominantly considered as a cognitive concept, recent research has started to examine more explicitly individual feelings to (in)justice (e.g., Barclay et al., 2005; Goldman, 2003). In a meta-analysis, Colquitt et al. (2013) identified two primary explanations for justice effects—exchange-based justice and affect-based justice. In the latter framework, a typical justice situation is seen as an affective event (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, it can be considered as a special case of the appraisal models of emotions (Weiss et al., 1999). Consistent with this reasoning, help recipients may develop various affective responses determined by different affective events (i.e., justice situations in helping interactions).

From this perspective, the evaluations of justice can elicit discrete emotions (Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003), and these different emotions tend to activate different action tendencies (Lawler & Thye, 1999; Lazarus, 1991). Weiss et al. (1999) examined two justice types (i.e., distributive and procedural justice) and identified four discrete emotions based on specific and unique combinations of outcome favorability and procedural fairness—happiness, anger, guilt, and pride. Importantly, they found that different discrete emotions can be simultaneously experienced. For example, individuals felt happy, proud, and guilty at the same time when they received favorable outcomes and biased procedures in favor of themselves. In other words, emotions with different hedonic directions can be concomitantly experienced. However, this study is limited in that it does not include the interpersonal dimension of justice, which may be due to this dimension is the newest conceptualization in justice (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005). I will address this limitation by

incorporating interpersonal justice in helping interactions because experiencing interactional injustice has been described as “hot and burning” (Bies, 2001; Mikula, 1986), and thus form emotions accordingly.

In receiving helping at work, I expect that help recipients’ may have discrete emotions with different action tendencies, which then influence their behaviors. In particular, I will discuss gratitude, anger, and shame for different combinations of distributive justice and interpersonal justice perceptions, as these are the most relevant emotions as discussed below.

Gratitude

As discussed above, a civil interaction during help is likely to be associated with interpersonal justice. Gratitude is an emotion that arises when individuals perceive an improvement in their well-being due to other people’s good intentional actions (Emmons & Shelton, 2002). When help proves to be helpful, help recipients are likely to experience gratitude because this constitutes an improvement from which they benefit.

In addition, according to the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001), positive emotions have the ability to broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires (Fredrickson, 1998; Fredrickson, 2001). As such, positive emotions widen the modes of thinking or action by creating a variety of thought-action tendencies, such as to explore, to play, and to envision future achievement, leading to increases in emotional well-being (Fredrickson, 2001).

Consistent with this reasoning, the action tendency that elicited by gratitude is the urge to behave prosocially (McCullough et al., 2001) by considering a wide range of actions that may benefit others and promote the well-being of other people beyond the original benefactor (Fredrickson, 2004; McCullough et al., 2001). This is because feelings of gratitude motivate “giving back” as a way to support cooperation (Emmons, 2008). For example, helping a coworker who is overwhelmed by workload by sitting together and working on a task or two can be very

helpful to him/her. As a result, this coworker is more likely to cover the workload next time for the employee when needed.

As such, I hypothesize that help recipients are likely to have higher intentions to help and have lower levels of CWB intentions. However, when help recipients receive help that is less helpful, the positive relationship between interpersonal justice and gratitude will be weaker.

Hypothesis 4a: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice and helping intentions through gratitude, such that the positive indirect effect is weaker for lower (vs. higher) distributive justice.

Hypothesis 4b: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice with CWB intentions through gratitude, such that the negative indirect effect is weaker for lower (vs. higher) distributive justice.

Anger

The second emotion that help recipients may experience is anger. As emotions are generally elicited by external events or thoughts (Frijda, 1993), individuals may express anger as a response to unfair events. In that vein, affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggests that perception of interpersonal injustice caused by a lack of respect and politeness can be viewed as an adverse workplace event, which likely elicits negative emotions such as anger and frustration, which in turn can drive affect-laden behaviors, such as aggression (Glomb, 2002) and withdrawal (Spencer & Rupp, 2009).

The stressor-emotion model of CWB (Spector & Fox, 2005) suggests that job stressors (i.e., justice-related stressors, role stressors, and interpersonal conflict) may elicit a range of negative emotions, which in turn may encourage individuals to engage in CWB as a way of

coping the negative feelings. Empirical evidence has shown support for this emotion-centered model. For example, Yang and Diefendorff (2009) in a within-person study found that perceived supervisor interpersonal injustice is related to CWB-I through daily negative emotions and that customer interpersonal injustice is related to CWB-O through daily negative emotions.

Among a number of discrete negative emotions, anger is particularly relevant as a response to interpersonal injustice and as an antecedent of CWB. Indeed, a common consequence of perceptions of injustice is anger (Clayton, 1992; Krehbiel & Cropanzano, 2000; Mikula, 1986). First, people may feel anger or frustration because an injustice treatment prevents them from achieving a desired goal (Kulik & Brown, 1979), especially when the thwarting is also unexpected or illegitimate (Berkowitz, 1989). Second, an injustice instance represents the violation of social norms (Zhou et al., 2018). Indeed, anger has been found to be mediated the relationship between customer interactional mistreatment and employee emotional labor (Rupp & Spencer, 2006). Likewise, Zhou et al. (2018) found that anger mediated the relationship between daily stressor (i.e., daily illegitimate tasks) and next-day CWB.

In addition, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) suggested that the anger associated with perceptions of unfairness may lead individuals to engage in retaliation. In other words, anger may promote efforts to rectify an injustice or create discomfort for the offenders, thus is linked to active CWB (Le Roy et al., 2012). This is because the innate action tendency for anger is the impulse to attack (Lazarus, 1991), especially when individuals experience a demeaning offense and a threat to their self-esteem (Meier et al., 2013). Indeed, a meta-analysis reported that anger is positively associated with CWB and negatively associated with OCB (Shockley et al., 2012). Therefore, the most relevant negative emotion in this relationship is anger.

Distributive justice, however, is expected to moderate the relationship between interpersonal justice and anger. A lower distributive justice and a lower interpersonal justice

reflects a situation in which employees not only receive help that is low in utility but also are treated in an uncivil manner, leading to barriers to goal attainment as well as threats to self-esteem. However, in seeking and receiving help, employees may feel the need to suppress anger even when they feel it. Therefore, I propose that individuals will have higher levels of CWB intentions after perceiving a violation of interpersonal justice, with the negative relationship being stronger when distributive justice is also lower compared to when it is higher. At the same time, individuals will have lower intentions to help after they perceive a violation of interpersonal justice, with the positive relationship being stronger when the distributive justice is also lower.

Hypothesis 5a: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice with helping intentions through anger, such that the negative indirect effect is stronger for lower (vs. higher) distributive justice.

Hypothesis 5b: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice with CWB intentions through anger, such that the negative indirect effect is stronger for lower (vs. higher) distributive justice.

Shame

Lastly, an interpersonal injustice situation in receiving help may also elicit feelings of shame. Typically, shame is experienced by a failure to live up to an ego-ideal (Lazarus, 1991). For example, the lack of ability of performing a task at work represents the discrepancy between self and ideal, and thus is relevant to negative ego-ideal (Kaplan & Whitman, 1965). Hence, the central experience of shame is a threatened or damaged self (Lewis, 1971), and a typical way to cope with shame is to withdraw or to hide (Lazarus, 1991).

Recent research suggests that, in general, there are three categories related to organizational shame—morality, performance, and social norms (Daniels & Robinson, 2019). I propose that feelings of shame will be stronger when the help received is higher in utility (i.e.,

higher levels of distributive justice) compared to when it is lower in utility. High utility help indicates a performance failure for help recipients, in a way that those helping them seem to possess higher problem-solving skills in comparison. In other words, receiving helpful help represents a public exposure of one's shortcomings (Tangney et al., 1996), and therefore help recipients may feel that they are indeed unworthy and incompetent, especially if they are treated in a rude and disrespectful manner when receiving the help that nonetheless they have a need for. This is because when people receive negative and derogatory comments or gestures, they may feel diminished and inferior to others due to public disapproval (Hillebrandt & Barclay, 2020; Scherer & Wallbott, 1994). That is, shame will be more intense when help recipients perceive a higher level of distributive justice and lower levels of interpersonal justice.

Seen as a painful experience, the prevailing view of shame is that it is aversive and maladaptive (Fedewa et al., 2005), and as a result it often triggers self-defensive behaviors such as avoidance and withdrawal (Gausel et al., 2012). However, recent studies suggest that shame is sometimes associated with constructive or prosocial responses (Daniels & Robinson, 2019; Leach & Cidam, 2015). This is because one way to cope with a threatened self after a shame experience is to take actions to repair (Daniels & Robinson, 2019). Research shows that people are more willing to retry a new task following a shame scenario (De Hooge et al., 2010). Shame may trigger constructive behaviors as a strategy to enhance people's self-image as capable and helpful person (Daniels & Robinson, 2019; Grant & Mayer, 2009), especially when individuals perceive the failure as more reparable (De Hooge et al., 2011). Even if the failure is seen as less reparable, people may engage in other constructive approaches to avoid negative evaluations and protect their self-image, such as impression management behaviors (Bonner et al., 2017). On the other hand, individuals who experience shame are likely to engage in withdrawal behaviors because such emotion-focused coping helps them to reappraise the situation as no longer threatening (Lazarus, 1993; Perrewé & Zellars, 1999). Indeed, individuals reported that they wanted to avoid

thinking about the situation in which they felt ashamed (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), and those who experienced expected failure reported a higher likelihood to utilize escape or avoidance coping strategies (Wong & Weiner, 1981). In that regard, I hypothesize that there is a positive relationship between shame and helping intentions. In addition, there is also a positive relationship between shame and CWB intentions.

To sum up, the negative indirect effect from interpersonal justice on intentions to help will be stronger for higher levels of distributive justice, and the negative indirect effect from interpersonal justice on CWB intentions will also be stronger under higher levels of distributive justice.

Hypothesis 6a: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice with helping intentions through shame, such that the negative indirect effect is stronger for higher (vs. lower) distributive justice.

Hypothesis 6b: Help recipients' perception of distributive justice will moderate the indirect relationship of perception of interpersonal justice CWB intentions through shame, such that the positive indirect effect is stronger for higher (vs. lower) distributive justice.

Taken together, I expect that help recipients will feel gratitude when they are involved in a civil helping interaction, especially when the help also proves helpful. Furthermore, they will feel angry when they are involved in an uncivil helping interaction, especially when the help is low in utility. However, they will have mixed emotions of gratitude, shame, and anger when they perceive interpersonal injustice during an interaction with a coworker, despite high utility help.

Justice Perceptions for Third Parties

As mentioned above, the interaction between helper and help recipient can have an effect on third parties observing. The implications for third parties are of great importance, because for

every dyad in an interaction, a number of coworkers could observe, or hear (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004; Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010) about the possible unfair experiences it signified, all of which may influence their reactions. Indeed, a growing amount of research has shown that the harmful effects of workplace incivility can extend to third-party observers beyond the dyad (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

The first reason that third parties may care about coworker mistreatment is self-interest (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Consistent with social learning theory (Bandura & McClelland, 1977), observers are likely to develop outcome expectancies by observing the consequences of other's behavior (Manz & Sims, 1981). In an unhelpful helping interaction, the helper may either reject assistance or provide lower-utility help that fails to serve the intended goal. Third parties might be disturbed by such helping interaction because it arouses self-concerns. That is, third parties may start to worry they may receive similar treatment from the helper in the future when they seek help—they could be rejected for assistance or receive ineffective help when they need help if they perceive the similarity of the help recipient to themselves. Thus, I expect that third parties may perceive distributive injustice when witnessing a lower-utility help between a dyad.

As a complement to the self-interest perspective, the deontic model of justice (Folger, 2001) explains third parties' reactions from a moral perspective. Although all types of injustice can trigger third parties' deontic reactions (Folger, 2001; Folger et al., 2005), O'Reilly et al. (2016) argued that interpersonal justice is more likely to trigger deontic responses than distributive or procedural justice, because interpersonal justice violations are often less ambiguous. While observers may need extra contextual information to make attributions and judgments on distributive and procedural justice, it is often easier to identify interpersonal injustice by attributing who is to blame (Folger, 2001). For instance, when employee A is rude to employee B in public, observers can easily tell who is responsible for the norm violation; whereas when employee A refuses to help employee B, it is less clear for observers to evaluate whether

this is unfair or not; this refusal of help might have happened because employee A realized that employee B is just lazy about doing the task, or because employee A is not personally accountable for the request and is already overwhelmed with his/her own workload, or because employee A is not a team player and simply is uncooperative.

In that regard, I expect that receiving uncivil help is likely to trigger observers' perceptions of interpersonal injustice, because rudeness is a clear violation of norms.

Hypothesis 7: During a helping episode, the utility of help is positively associated with third-party observers' perceptions of distributive justice at work.

Hypothesis 8: During a helping episode, the incivility of help is negatively associated with observers' perceptions of interpersonal justice at work.

Affective Responses for Third Parties

Whereas a low utility or uncivil helping interaction between coworkers may represent a weaker situation than an abusive supervision interaction between supervisors and subordinates, this mistreatment may happen more frequently than abusive supervision, as coworker interactions are typically ongoing (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015), and thus may be reciprocated with more negative behaviors (Schilpzand et al., 2016).

As discussed above, because interpersonal violations require less contextual information (O'Reilly et al., 2016), observers who witness rudeness and mistreatment are likely to develop an intuition that it is wrong even without conscious awareness (Reich & Hershcovis, 2015) and likely to experience "empathic anger" (feelings of anger at someone else's suffering; Vitaglione & Barnett, 2003). This vicarious emotional response for third parties is particularly relevant in response to perceived unfairness (Bringle et al., 2018), and is different from personal anger, an emotion when one's own moral standard or justice is violated (Batson et al., 2007). Instead,

observers feel anger, not because of themselves but because others' interests have been thwarted (Batson et al., 2007). In fact, empathic anger could be more intense than the anger individuals feel on their own behalf (Batson et al., 1992). Thus, in uncivil helping interactions in which helpers communicate in a rude and disrespectful way to recipients, observers may feel empathic anger on behalf of help recipients toward helpers for their mistreatment.

However, this will not happen for everyone—a fundamental assumption in the response above is that observers believe the victimized help recipient should be well-treated. Emergent research suggests that observers may experience contentment instead. This nonmatching vicarious emotional experience can be explained by an appraisal theory of empathy (Wondra & Ellsworth, 2015), which suggests that the observers can have a nonmatching emotion when they do not identify with the target and thus appraise the situation differently. In that vein, extending the research by Weiner (1980a, 1980b, 1985, 1986), Feather (2006) uses appraisal theories to link emotions with justice and propose that judgments of deservingness activate different emotions, which accompany the feelings of justice has been served. In particular, they propose that contentment emerges when the judgment on the other person's negative outcome is believed to be deserved. Furthermore, individuals tend to have a bias in favor of others' positive outcomes as more deserved when others are liked and belong to an ingroup, compared with when others are disliked and belong to an outgroup (Feather, 2006). That is, contentment will be elicited more strongly toward people in an outgroup or that are disliked (Greenier, 2015; Hareli & Weiner, 2002), or whose negative outcome are perceived to be deserved (Feather & Sherman, 2002; Lange & Boecker, 2019).

Empirical research on abusive supervision has explored this emotion for third party observers (e.g., Chen et al., 2020; Harris et al., 2013; Mitchell et al., 2015; Priesemuth, 2013), and found that whereas some observers became angry and tried to help the victimized coworker, not all third parties were bothered by the mistreatment; on the contrary, some considered that the

targeted coworker was deserving of abusive supervision and felt contented. In particular, Mitchell et al. (2015) posited that the different reactions of third parties to abusive supervision depend on their exclusion beliefs, or whether they perceive the targeted coworker as deserving of the mistreatment. They found that witnessing abusive supervision elicited anger when exclusion beliefs are lower, but contentment when exclusion beliefs are higher.

I draw from this line of research and predict that observers are likely to experience empathic anger or contentment, depending on their exclusion beliefs toward the help recipient. In sum, I predict that observers are likely to experience higher empathic anger and lower contentment when they perceive the targeted coworker is deserving of the interpersonal injustice. In contrast, observers are likely to experience lower empathic anger and higher contentment when perceiving the mistreatment is undeserving.

Hypothesis 9: Observers' exclusion beliefs about the help recipient will moderate the relationship of perception of interpersonal justice and observers' empathic anger and contentment, such that observers will experience higher a) empathic anger and lower b) contentment when exclusion beliefs about the help recipient are lower (vs. higher).

Behavioral Responses for Third Parties

Empathic anger behavior can motivate prosocial behaviors (Tangney et al., 1996; Vitaglione & Barnett, 2003) as well as punishment (O'Reilly et al., 2016). Whereas the action tendency for personal anger is to promote one's own interests, the action tendency for empathic anger is to promote the interests of the victims (Batson et al., 2007). That is, third parties may choose to help the victim as a constructive way in response to feelings of anger. In addition, third parties may also engage in counterproductive work behaviors toward helpers to discourage the same behaviors in the future, or they may engage in more covert forms of punishing behaviors toward helpers, such as withholding information or spreading rumors (Meier et al., 2013).

In contrast, feelings of contentment that arise from a justification of the perpetrator's behavior provide license and may initiate further collective mistreatment from observers (Li et al., 2017). Importantly, such mistreatments may occur in either active or passive ways—the former of which involve overt undermining and hostility, and the latter includes withholding information and assistance from the targeted coworker (Li et al., 2017; Neuman & Baron, 2005). Whereas passive mistreatment may seem relatively innocuous, less harmful, or even acceptable organizationally, it can have greater negative influence on employee well-being and attitudes than active mistreatment such as aggression (O'Reilly et al., 2014; Robinson et al., 2012).

Following this reasoning, in judging other person's outcome, observers may think that help recipients "deserved" the unfavorable outcome or the uncivil treatment (Feather, 1999; Feather, 2006). For example, for a help recipient who is known to be rude and condescending to others or constantly slacking off, other colleagues as observers may think that he/she deserve the mistreatment from the helper, and as a result they are less likely to engage in deviant behaviors toward the helper for the mistreatment. Whereas observers are more likely to engage in deviant behavior toward the helper when the help recipient is known to be friendly and hard working.

In sum, I expect that observers who feel contentment may withhold helping from help recipients, and they are less likely to engage in deviant behaviors directed toward helpers.

Hypothesis 10: Observers' empathic anger will be positively related to a) helping intentions (recipient-directed) and b) CWB intentions (helper-directed).

Hypothesis 11: Observers' contentment will be negatively related to a) helping intentions (recipient-directed) and b) CWB intentions (helper-directed).

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

I conducted a laboratory experiment to test my hypotheses. In this experiment, types of helping were manipulated via a confederate, who was instructed to manifest high(low) utility helping coupled with high(low) incivility. Participants were randomly assigned to a help recipient or observer condition. Help recipients and observers responded to survey questions about their justice perceptions, affective states, and behavioral intentions; coupled with the assigned conditions, this allowed for my hypotheses to be tested.

Sample

Data were collected from a sample of 62 help recipients and 62 observers enrolled in undergraduate business courses at a large public institution. In a between-subjects design, one participant was randomly assigned to be a help recipient in one of four helping conditions: 1) high utility and civil, 2) high utility and uncivil, 3) low utility and civil, and 4) low utility and uncivil. Another participant was assigned to an observer role. Three observations from help recipients and one from observers were excluded because of missing values in the dependent or independent variables. The final sample size was thus composed of 59 help recipients and 61 observers. 47% of participants identified as male, and their average age was 21 (SD = 2.4).

Procedure

Simulated office task. Participants were recruited with the requirement for basic familiarity with Microsoft Excel. The task used in this study is similar to previous research that adopted simulated typical office work (e.g., Hockey & Earle, 2006), including proofreading, basic data entry and analysis using Excel functions. Participants arrived at the laboratory and were assigned to a group that consisted of three or four people: the helper (confederate; participant A), the help recipient (participant B) and an observer (participant C; and for some groups, another observer participant D, who was not included in the final sample¹). In each room, participants had access to consent forms, photo/video publication release forms, pens, blank paper, computers or laptops, and their nametag labels.

Participants were asked to read through and sign the consent form and photo/video publication release form. They started by completing a sign-up survey, which included demographic questions and other control variable measures. Participants were then asked about their familiarity with Microsoft Excel. To signal help availability, the confederate then indicated that he/she just finished a class and has learned a lot (e.g., “I’m glad that I’m assigned to do this, because I’ve taken a class so I’m fairly familiar with it”, “very familiar; I use it on a daily basis”); this should elicit more opportunities of help seeking from participant B (the help recipient) in this task. Participants were then randomly assigned to either the simulated Microsoft Excel task (help recipient), requiring them to provide summary statistics for a hypothetical company using their employee database, or to be a judge of their team members’ communication skills (observers). The confederate was always assigned to the Microsoft Excel task.

¹ The design of the study required at least 3 people in the group (helper, help recipient, and the observer). Due the possibility of no-shows for lab experiment, I opened this additional slot. However, participants were always randomly assigned to observer C first, and one would be randomly assigned to observer D if there were 4 people. Therefore, in the data analysis, I only used the observer data from observer C.

Each group was given 30 minutes for the entire task. In order to encourage them to engage with the task more closely, participants were told that the better their team performed, the higher the credit they would receive.

Manipulations. Confederates received training on how to provide help with differing levels of utility and civility. For the higher utility of help (i.e., helpful) condition, confederates were trained on the concepts and Excel functions to assist with the task, and they were told to show participants what to do in a step-by-step fashion until the problem was solved. For the lower utility of help (i.e., unhelpful) condition, they were trained to explain unrelated concepts. Paired with the utility of help, confederates were instructed on friendly comments to give (for the civil helping condition) and likewise on how to give rude or unpleasant comments (for the uncivil helping conditions). Civil and uncivil statements were adapted from Giumetti et al. (2013). Sample uncivil comment were “Seriously, these tasks aren’t that difficult” and “It’s not exactly rock and science”. Civil comments included “I really appreciate your efforts on these tasks” and “Working with you has made this much easier”.

Post-experiment measures. Participants were instructed to complete a second survey after their tasks. Participant B (help-recipient) provided assessments of their cognitive and affective response, and behavioral intentions. Participant C/D (observers) were given a separate survey on their affective responses and behavioral intentions. Participants were then fully debriefed and dismissed.

Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, all measures were self-reported and all items were collected on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). All measures are listed in the Appendix.

Manipulation check. To check the helping manipulation, help recipients were asked to rate the extent to which they feel the confederate was helpful/effective in getting their problems solved (help utility), and to rate the extent to which they feel it was an unpleasant/negative interaction (help civility).

Distributive justice. Perceptions of distributive justice for help recipients were measured using four items from Colquitt (2001). The adaptations of the scales refer to receiving help in a general context. An example item is “Was the help you received appropriate for the work you have completed?”

For observers, distributive justice was measured by four items adapted from Dunford et al. (2015) so that they refer to the help that help recipient received. Example items are “Does he/she get the help needed?” and “Is the help adequate given his/her needs?” The coefficient alphas for this measure were .96 and .94 for help recipients and observers, respectively.

Interpersonal justice. Interpersonal justice was measured using four items by Colquitt (2001). Example items include “Has he/she treated you in a polite manner?” and “Has he/she treated you with dignity?”

I adapted the same set of items for observers. Example items include “To what extent does the helper treated help recipient in a polite manner?” and “To what extent does the helper treated the help recipient with dignity?” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .95 and .94 for help recipients and observers, respectively.

Exclusion beliefs. Observers’ exclusion beliefs were measured using two items by Mitchell et al. (2015). The items include “It is OK to treat this coworker unfairly” and “This coworker deserves to be treated poorly.” The coefficient alpha for this measure was unable to be computed and did not apply due to lack of variance (see below).

Social exchange relationship. To capture social exchange relationship, participants were asked to complete the four-item scale by Colquitt et al. (2014). The items include “Mutual obligation,” “Mutual trust,” “Mutual commitment,” and “Mutual significance.” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .93.

Gratitude. Gratitude was measured using three items by Tsang (2007). The items include “Grateful,” “Thankful,” and “Appreciative.” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .97.

Shame. Shame was measured using items by Woodyatt and Wenzel (2014). Participants were asked “When I think about what I have done...” The scale consists of four items “...I feel ashamed,” “...want to hide,” “...feel small,” “...feel I can’t face myself in the mirror.” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .89.

Anger. Anger was assessed using 9 items by Spencer and Rupp (2009). Example items include “Pissed” and “Irritated”. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .92.

Emphatic Anger. Emphatic anger was measured using 7 items by Vitaglione and Barnett (2003). An example items is “If I see that someone is feeling mad because he or she was mistreated, I feel mad too.” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .90.

Contentment. Contentment was measured using three items from Fredrickson et al. (2003). These items are “content”, “serene”, and “peaceful”. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .82.

Helping intentions. Helping intentions were measured using 8 OCBI items adapted from Lee and Allen (2002). The adaptation referred to the intentions to help the helper in the future. Example items include “Willingly give my time to help him/her who have work-related problems,” and “Assist him/her with his/her duties.”

For observers, I measured their intentions to help toward help recipients using the same set of items. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .97 and .96 for help recipients and observers, respectively.

CWB intentions. CWB intentions were measured using 4 items adapted from Dalal et al. (2009) and Ferris et al. (2015). The adaptation referred to the intentions to engage in counterproductive work behaviors. Example items include “Speak poorly about them to others,” and “Criticize their opinion or suggestion.”

The same set of items were adapted for observers to assess their CWB intentions toward helpers. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .85 and .65 for help recipients and observers, respectively.

Supplemental Analysis. Due to the empirical overlap between shame and guilt, I tested a model wherein shame was substituted for guilt, which was assessed using 3 items from Spencer and Rupp (2009). The items include emotional adjectives “Guilty,” “Sorry,” “Regretful,” The coefficient alpha for this measure was .78.

In order provide an alternative estimate for the behavioral outcomes, help recipients were given a choice to “adjust” the SONA credit for both the helper and the observer, while they were not able to adjust the actual SONA credit (explained in the debrief). Specifically, from a 1-5 scale, they can adjust the credit in either direction up to (50%). That is, 50% lower, 25% lower, default, 25% higher, and 50% higher. I added it as an additional outcome variable in the model.

Lastly, to explore whether help recipients’ attributions can influence the effect of helping on justice perceptions, help recipients rated their attribution for the helpers’ behavior in terms of performance promotion motives and injury initiation motives, adapted from Liu et al. (2012). Each motive was measured with 3-items. An example item for performance promotion motives is

“Desire to help me”, and an example item for injury initiation motives is “Desire to make me feel bad about myself”. The coefficient alpha for this measure was .91 for both attributions.

Analytical Approach

All analyses were tested with path model analysis using R version 4.0.3. Due the relatively large number of parameters in this path model to estimate and the relatively small sample size of the data for each role (i.e., 59 help recipients, and 61 observers in the final sample), hypotheses were tested separately for help recipients and observers. However, I also tested all hypotheses in one path model, and results remained the same.

To test Hypotheses 1-2, utility of help and incivility of help were regressed on distributive justice perceptions and interpersonal justice perceptions. To test Hypotheses 3a-3b, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and their interaction, as well as the direct effects from utility of help and incivility of help were regressed on social exchange quality, which then is regressed on help intentions and CWB intentions. Positive and significant coefficients for the main effects of justice and justice interaction would support this moderation effect, coupled with a) a positive coefficient of social exchange quality on helping intentions and b) a negative coefficient of social exchange quality on CWB intentions would support these two hypotheses.

Similarly, Hypotheses 4a-6b were tested by regressing interpersonal justice, distributive justice, and their interaction, as well as the direct effects from utility of help and incivility of help on three discrete emotions (i.e., gratitude, anger, and shame), which then were regressed on helping intentions and CWB intentions. Again, the coefficients for the main effects of justice and justice interactions were hypothesized to be positive and significant; in addition, the coefficient for gratitude was hypothesized to be positive on helping intentions, and negative on CWB intentions (H4a-4b). For anger (H5a-5b), the main effect of interpersonal justice was hypothesized to be negative, and the coefficient for justice interaction on anger was hypothesized

to be positive; the coefficient of anger was hypothesized to be negative and significant on helping intentions, whereas positive and significant on CWB intentions. Lastly, the main effect of interpersonal justice on shame and the coefficient of justice interaction on shame were both hypothesized to be negative and significant, and the coefficients of shame on helping intentions and CWB intentions were both hypothesized to be positive and significant (H6a-6b).

Hypotheses 7-8 were tested by regressing utility of help and incivility of help on observers' distributive justice perceptions and interpersonal justice perceptions. Hypothesis 9 was tested by adding exclusion belief and the interaction between exclusion belief and interpersonal justice on empathic anger and contentment. The coefficient for the main effect of interpersonal justice was hypothesized to be negative, and the interaction to be positive on empathic anger (Hypothesis 9a); the main effect of interpersonal justice was hypothesized to be positive, and the interaction effect to be negative on contentment (Hypothesis 9b). Finally, the effect of empathic anger was hypothesized to be positive and significant on recipient-directed helping intentions and helper-directed CWB intentions (Hypothesis 10). The effect of contentment was hypothesized to be negative and significant on recipient-directed helping intentions and helper-directed CWB intentions.

I used full information maximum likelihood estimation to handle missing data. To calculate the simple slopes and plot the interaction effects, I selected the typical conditional values at 1 SD away from the mean for moderators (Aiken & West, 1991), and graphed the full range of data for independent variables and dependent variables. To test the conditional indirect effects, I used bootstrapping with 20,000 resamples to create 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals ($CI_{95\%}$) around the indirect effect point estimate (Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Manipulation checks showed that the high utility help condition ($M = 4.21$) was rated as more helpful than the low utility help condition ($M = 2.61$, $F = 24.42$, $p < .01$), and that the uncivil help condition ($M = 1.34$) was rated as more uncivil than the civil help condition ($M = 2.48$, $F = 16.89$, $p < .01$).

Shown in Table 1 are correlations, means, and standard deviations for all study variables. Table 2-7 report the ANOVA summary tables. There were 16, 16, 16, and 13 participants in condition 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. As can be seen in Table 2 and Table 6, the main effect of the utility of help on distributive justice was statistically significant, $F(1,55) = 9.30$, $p = .00$. Participants in the low utility of help condition reported .89 units lower distributive justice perceptions than participants in the high utility of help condition. The main effect of the incivility of help on distributive justice showed that participants in the high incivility condition expressed .73 units lower distributive justice perceptions than those in the low incivility condition, and main effect was also statistically significant, $F(1,55) = 5.93$, $p = .02$. The interaction between utility and incivility of help was not statistically significant $F(1,55) = .18$, $p = .68$. Similarly, the main effect of the utility of help on interpersonal justice was statistically significant, $F(1,55) = 7.71$, $p = .02$, the main effect of the incivility of help on the incivility of help on interpersonal justice was also statistically significant, $F(1,55) = 19.51$, $p = .00$, but the

interaction effect of utility and incivility on interpersonal justice was not statistically significant, $F(1,55) = .55, p = .46$.

Table 8 summarizes the path model results for help recipients. Hypothesis 1 predicted that the utility of help would be positively associated with distributive justice, and Hypothesis 2 argued that the incivility of help would be negatively associated with interpersonal justice. These two hypotheses were supported ($\gamma = .88, p < .01$ for H1; $\gamma = -.74, p < .05$ for H2).

Hypothesis 3a proposed that interpersonal justice would moderate the indirect relationship of distributive justice on helping intentions through social exchange quality, such that the positive indirect effects would be weaker for lower interpersonal justice. While distributive justice and interpersonal justice were both positively associated with social exchange quality ($\gamma = .30, p < .01$ for distributive justice; $\gamma = .38, p < .01$ for interpersonal justice), their interaction was not statistically significant ($\gamma = .00, p = .97$). Similarly, Hypothesis 3b proposed that interpersonal justice would moderate the indirect relationship of distributive justice on CWB intentions through social exchange quality, such that the negative indirect effects would be stronger for higher interpersonal justice. Because the interaction between distributive justice and interpersonal justice was not statistically significant, Hypothesis 3a and 3b were not supported.

Hypothesis 4a through 6b examined the interaction between justice perceptions on helping intentions and CWB intentions through three emotions. Hypotheses 4a and 4b examined the moderation effect of distributive justice on the relationship between interpersonal justice with a) helping intentions through gratitude, such that the positive indirect effect would be weaker for lower distributive justice, and b) CWB intentions, such that the negative indirect effect would be weaker for lower distributive justice. Hypotheses 4a and 4b were also not supported, as there was no significant interaction between distributive justice and interpersonal justice effects when

predicting gratitude ($\gamma = -.12, p = .09$). However, gratitude was positively associated with helping intentions toward the helper ($\gamma = .47, p < .01$).

Hypothesis 5a argued that distributive justice would moderate the indirect effect of interpersonal justice on helping intentions through anger, such that the negative indirect effect would be stronger for lower distributive justice. As reported in Table 8, interpersonal justice was negatively associated with anger ($\gamma = -.35, p < .01$), and this negative relationship was weaker for higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = .12, p < .05$). This interaction effect is shown in Figure 2. A simple slope analysis confirmed with this effect—the simple slope of interpersonal justice on anger was negative and significant at lower levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.48, p < .01$), but non-significant at higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.21, p = .09$). However, anger was not associated with helping intentions ($\gamma = -.15, p = .35$). Hypothesis 5a was partially supported.

Hypothesis 5b argued that distributive justice would moderate the indirect effect of interpersonal justice on CWB intentions through anger, such that the negative indirect effect would be stronger for lower distributive justice. As shown in Figure 2, the negative effect between interpersonal justice and anger was indeed stronger for higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = .12, p < .05$), and anger was associated with higher levels of CWB intentions ($\gamma = .38, p < .01$). The indirect effect was $-.184$ (CI95% $[-.305, -.063]$) for lower distributive justice, and $-.08$ (CI95% $[-.181, .022]$) for higher levels of distributive justice. Hypothesis 5b was thus supported.

Hypotheses 6a and 6b argued that distributive justice would moderate the indirect effect of interpersonal justice on a) helping intentions via shame, such that the negative indirect effect would be stronger for higher distributive justice, and b) CWB intentions, such that the positive indirect effect would be stronger for higher distributive justice. Hypotheses 6a and 6b were mostly supported, as interpersonal justice was negatively associated with shame ($\gamma = -.23, p <$

.01), and this negative relationship was stronger for higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.14$, $p < .01$). This interaction is depicted in Figure 3. A simple slope analysis showed that the slope of interpersonal justice on shame was negative and stronger for higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.39$, $p < .01$), and was non-significant at lower levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.07$, $p = .44$). However, shame was neither associated with helping intentions nor CWB intentions ($\gamma = -.14$, $p = .40$ for helping intentions; $\gamma = -.09$, $p = .43$ for CWB intentions).

Hypotheses 7 through 11 examined the observers' perspective. Hypothesis 7 argued that the utility of help would be positively associated with distributive justice, and Hypothesis 8 argued that the incivility of help would be negatively associated with interpersonal justice. These two hypotheses were both supported ($\gamma = 1.21$, $p < .01$ for H7; $\gamma = -1.52$, $p < .02$ for H8).

Hypothesis 9 posited that observers' exclusion beliefs would moderate the relationship between interpersonal justice and empathic anger and contentment, such that observers would experience higher a) empathic anger and lower b) contentment when exclusion belief were lower. This hypothesis was not supported, as there was no interaction between exclusion belief and interpersonal justice on either empathic anger or contentment ($\gamma = -.00$, $p = .97$ for H9a; $\gamma = .30$, $p < .14$ for H9b). Notably, in this student sample, almost all students (98%) reported low levels of exclusion belief (mean = 1.10, SD = .51, skew = 4.3, and kurtosis = 17.22), and this hypothesis was unsupported likely due to the effects of range restriction.

Hypothesis 10 proposed that observers' empathic anger would be positively associated with helping intentions toward the help recipient and CWB intentions toward the helper. As shown in Table 9, empathic anger was not associated with helping intentions toward the help recipient ($\gamma = .41$, $p = .16$). However, empathic anger was positively associated with CWB intentions toward the helper ($\gamma = .60$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 10 was thus partially supported.

Hypothesis 11 argued that observers' contentment would be negatively associated with helping intentions toward the help recipient and CWB intentions toward the helper. As shown in Table 9, contentment was neither associated with helping intentions ($\gamma = .15, p = .23$) nor CWB intentions ($\gamma = -.02, p = .60$). Hypothesis 11 was not supported.

Supplemental Analysis

I ran several supplemental analyses to further explore the relationships in my model. First, although my hypothesis focused on shame as a response to justice perceptions for help recipients, guilt is a similar self-conscious emotion with shame. Indeed, even though theorists have argued that shame and guilt are two distinct emotions—guilt is associated with approach responses, but shame is more strongly associated with avoidance responses (e.g., Tangney et al., 1996; Wicker et al., 1983), research has not always supported this empirically (Schmader & Lickel, 2006). Therefore, I included both shame and guilt in the model and reported the results in the Supplemental Analysis tables. As Table C1 showed, justice perceptions had a similar effect on guilt with that on shame, there was also a negative relationship between interpersonal justice and guilt ($\gamma = -.23, p < .05$), and this negative relationship became stronger at higher levels of distributive justice ($\gamma = -.17, p < .05$). Indeed, simple slope analysis revealed that the slope of interpersonal justice on shame was $-.41 (p < .01)$ when distributive justice was higher, and the slope was not statistically significant ($\gamma = -.04, p = .68$) when distributive justice was lower. This resulted the same pattern for justice perceptions on shame (interpersonal justice on shame was negative and stronger for higher levels of distributive justice and was non-significant at lower levels of distributive justice). In addition, similar with the effects of shame, guilt was also not associated with helping intentions and CWB intentions. This finding was not surprising as the correlation between guilt and shame was $.82 (t = 10.91, p < .01)$. This high correlation suggested that these items did not adequately capture two distinct constructs.

Second, because this experiment study only focused on behavioral intentions instead of behavioral outcomes, I collected another question that has greater meaning for help recipients. Specifically, help recipients were instructed that they have an opportunity to recommend adjusting other participant's amount of SONA credit by assigning to the other people from 50% lower to 50% higher than default. This decision-making outcome was correlated with helping intentions at $.56$ ($t = 5.09, p < .01$), and with CWB intentions at $-.37$ ($t = -3.08, p < .01$). However, none of the cognitive or affective response had a statistically significant effect on this outcome.

Finally, help recipients were instructed to answer their attributions for other people's behavior, adapted from Liu et al. (2012). As shown in Table C3, while distributive justice was not impacted by the joint effect of attribution and utility/incivility of help, there was a positive interaction between incivility of help and performance promotion motive ($\gamma = .54, p < .05$). Specifically, simple slope analysis revealed that the slope of interpersonal justice on incivility was negative and significant at lower levels (that is, 1SD below the mean) of performance promotion motive ($\gamma = -.80, p < .05$), but was non-significant at higher levels of performance promotion motive ($\gamma = .58, p = .12$). A Johnson-Neyman procedure of calculating the region of significance indicated that the slope of incivility on interpersonal justice only became negative and significant when performance promotion motive was below 2 (from a 1 to 5 scale; mean for this scale was 2.98; $SD = 2.98$). This means that people's attribution did play a role in interpreting other's behaviors, such that at low levels of performance promotion motive attribution, incivility of help was negatively and more strongly associated with interpersonal justice.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

Helping coworkers is a common phenomenon in workplace. Help recipients are often assumed to generally feel grateful (and experience other positive effects) when receiving help at work. However, help recipients may receive a variety of types of help, to which they will respond differently. Therefore, in this dissertation, I examined the experiences of help recipients and observers during a helping interaction. Integrating two frameworks of justice (i.e., exchange-based justice and affect-based justice), I tested the theoretical model for both help recipients and observers in an experiment study using 59 help recipients and 61 observers. Below I discuss the main findings in the study, and theoretical and practical implications of these results. In addition, I discuss the limitations of this study and potential future directions.

Overview of Results

In summary, my dissertation proposed a path model to examine how different types of helping impact help recipients' justice perceptions, cognitive and affective responses, and behavioral intentions. I also examined justice perceptions, affective responses and behavioral intentions from the observers' perspective. As I discussed above in the Results section, some of my hypotheses were supported—people perceived lower levels of distributive justice when they receive help that was lower in utility and higher in incivility, and they perceived lower levels of interpersonal justice when the help was higher in incivility. As hypothesized, there was a negative relationship between interpersonal justice and anger, but this negative relationship was weakened

when the help was helpful (higher in utility). In other words, when receiving uncivil help, people seemed to be less angry when the help was helpful. In addition, people felt the strongest shame when they perceived lower levels with interpersonal justice combined with higher distributive justice, that is, when the help was provided in a rude manner but was helpful. However, data did not support for the justice perception interactions on social exchange quality and on gratitude. In terms of their behavioral intentions, people were more likely to reciprocate the help when they felt gratitude, and more likely to engage in CWB behaviors when they felt angry.

In the observers' model, observers indeed perceived lower levels of distributive justice for help in lower utility, and lower levels of interpersonal justice for help that was higher in incivility. In other words, observers had similar justice perceptions as help recipients do when they observed the helping interactions. However, in this student sample for observers, data did not provide support for the moderation effect between interpersonal justice and exclusion belief on empathic anger and contentment. In terms of their behavioral responses, observers' empathic anger was associated with higher levels of CWB intentions toward the helpers but was not associated with helping intentions toward the help recipients.

Theoretical and Practical Implication

There are several theoretical and practical implications for the findings for this dissertation, and I discuss them below.

Helping and Justice Perceptions

This study contributes to OCB literature by proposing and testing how receiving different types of help are associated with justice perceptions, which then trigger cognitive and affective responses, with implications for behavioral intentions. Most of the OCB literature has either focused on helpers or assumed that receiving help is always a positive experience for help recipients. However, help recipients do not always feel gratitude when they receive help; instead,

they might even feel anger and engage in CWB behaviors toward the helper because of the perception of unfairness when the help is provided under certain conditions (low utility and/or civility). This is an important finding for the OCB literature, because help recipients may not benefit from helping if this helping is somehow dysfunctional.

The hypotheses pertaining to this relationship proposed that the utility of help would be positively associated with perceptions of distributive justice, and the incivility of help would be negatively associated with perceptions of interpersonal justice. I found that the utility of help was indeed positively associated with perceptions of distributive justice, and the incivility of help was negatively associated with both distributive justice and interpersonal justice. It seems that the incivility of help is especially relevant to people's justice perceptions. If the help was provided in a rude manner, however, people perceived it to be unfair for across both types of justice perceptions. However, as mentioned above in the Supplemental Analysis, I found that for interpersonal justice, help recipients perceived that it was fair when they attributed the intentions of helpers as trying to help them to improve their performance. Managers need to realize that building a supportive environment in the teams not only means employees should be willing to help each other, but also how the help should be delivered.

Exchange-based Justice and Affective-base Justice

Second, I also provide a more comprehensive framework by integrating exchange-based justice and affective-based justice. Though social exchange theory has been the dominant lens in justice literature, research on affect has been less clear. I predicted that people's justice interactions would be associated with both social exchange quality, and three discrete emotions (i.e., gratitude, anger, and shame).

However, my hypotheses pertaining to the interaction between interpersonal justice and distributive justice on social exchange quality were not supported. However, both direct effects of

distributive justice and interpersonal justice are positive and significant on social exchange quality. This means help recipients perceive that they have higher social exchange quality as either distributive justice or interpersonal justice increase, but these operate individually rather than interactively. Therefore, the results confirm with the literature that people indeed have higher levels of social exchange quality when they perceive it is fair for the help that they receive. On a more nuanced note, however, this seems to be driven by an additive model—in social exchange processes, individuals “tally the score”, summing for positive and negative contributions, but they do not, in fact, seem to be discounting one based on the other.

I hypothesized and found support for two of the three justice interactions on discrete emotions—anger and shame. Specifically, on average, people felt anger when interpersonal justice was low. However, this relationship was weakened when the help was helpful—at higher levels (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) of distributive justice, the simple slope of anger on interpersonal justice was flat. This confirms that though people indeed felt anger if the helper was rude and uncivil, their anger was low if the help was helpful. In other words, the utility of help undoes the negative effect of incivility on interpersonal justice.

The anger, in turn, was associated with CWB intentions toward the helper. Similarly, on average, people felt shame when interpersonal justice decreased, and they felt the strongest shame when the help was helpful, and they perceived higher levels of distributive justice. It appears that shame arise from people’s incompetence being pointed out in an uncivil manner. At lower levels of distributive justice, the simple slope of shame on interpersonal justice was not different from zero. Put simply, people suppressed their feelings of anger and felt shame if the help was helpful but was provided in a rude manner. However, as reported in the Supplemental Analysis, guilt and shame had considerable empirical overlap.

In terms of the third emotion, interpersonal justice and distributive justice were both positively associated with gratitude, but the positive relationship between interpersonal justice and gratitude was positive for higher or lower levels of distributive justice. In other words, people felt gratitude as long as the helper was nice to them, regardless of the utility of helping. The feelings of gratitude were then associated with helping intentions toward the helper in the future.

This finding theoretically contributes to the affective-based justice by demonstrating that people did not only cognitively perceive justice, but they also felt justice—and the way they felt justice was more nuanced than the additive way they evaluated social exchange. Therefore, this dissertation has implications for examining the mediating role of affect between justice perceptions and behavioral outcomes. This dissertation suggests that it would be beneficial to consider employees' emotions in helping experiences, because while there were only main effects for cognitive response (i.e., social exchange quality), the interaction of justice perceptions influenced people's emotions in a nuanced way. This suggests that managers should pay attention to situations when employees provide mixed valence of helping, as it may elicit negative affect from help recipients.

Observers' Justice Perceptions and Emotional Responses

Third, I extend the research on third-party justice perceptions in the helping context. Just as in other interpersonal interactions, observers may develop different cognitive and affective responses from those who involved in the interaction (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004; Skarlicki & Rupp, 2010). Therefore, I proposed and found support that, similar to help recipients, observers perceived lower levels of distributive justice as utility of help decreased, and lower levels of interpersonal justice as the incivility of help increased. I also hypothesized that observers' exclusion beliefs moderated the relationship between interpersonal justice and empathic anger and contentment. However, the results showed that exclusion beliefs did not moderate this

relationship. One possible reason was that exclusion beliefs had no variance to allow for this hypothesis to be properly tested. That is, because most of them have never met before the experiment, these students typically did not hold any negative opinions about either the help recipient or the helper. It is possible that this measure would have greater variance among the employees in organizations because observers are more likely to work in the same team with help recipient or at least know their colleague (help recipient) prior to the helping interaction.

Although exclusion beliefs did not moderate the relationship between justice perceptions and observers' emotions, at average levels of exclusion beliefs, observers' interpersonal justice was negatively associated with observers' empathic anger, which in turn, was positively associated with their CWB intentions toward the helper. As such, this has theoretical implications for the deontic model of justice for third-party observers as it showed that helping interactions can have a far-reaching effect beyond the helping dyad. This finding is also consistent with the deontic perspective in justice literature, especially in interpersonal justice violations (O'Reilly et al., 2016). Therefore, managers need to be especially cautious about the types of helping employees may engage in. Even though helping behavior is typically encouraged and rewarded in organizations, dysfunctional helping may have negative effects above and beyond the helping dyad.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has a number of limitations. First, the data was collected using an experimental study with undergraduate students. The nature of the sample tends to recruit participants with similar characteristics (e.g., age, work experiences), which may not represent well of the workplace population (Henrich et al., 2010). However, as helping are essentially interpersonal interactions, I believe that as these students, employees at work should have similar responses in terms of their justice perceptions, cognitive and affective response, and behavioral

intentions. Another limitation with this sample is that these student groups typically do not have prior information about their teammates, but it is quite likely that in organization settings, people who observe their team members' helping interaction have some familiarity with their colleagues. However, this experimental study is the most appropriate to establish the causal relationship between types of helping and justice perceptions. Future research should investigate if the findings hold for organizational samples in the field.

Second, all the variables were assessed using self-reported measures at one time point, which gives rise to common method variance concerns (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, self-report is the most appropriate source for justice perceptions, emotions and behavioral intentions, because these justice perceptions, emotions and behavioral intentions are not available to other people. Future research may benefit from assessing behavioral outcomes from other-rated measures (e.g., helper rated reciprocated helping behavior).

Third, because interpersonal interactions are complex, it is entirely possible that utility and incivility do not adequately capture all types of helping experiences. For example, Dalal and Sheng (2019) identified dimensions of help taxonomy, including proactive vs. reactive, serious vs. minor, giving, indirect vs. doing, direct, personal vs. anonymous; they also summarized the types of help taxonomy that include psychosocial support, information or recommendations, evaluative feedback, and instrumental support. This dissertation focused on instrumental helping for the sake of simplicity. The reason I chose to focus on this type of helping is that I believe that instrumental support is the most relevant type of helping that occurs among employees at workplace, whereas emotional support tends to happen more among friends and family. However, it is possible that people have other types of emotions and behavioral intentions in response to helping besides instrumental support.

Finally, in this experimental study, all students only interacted with each other once, while working together on a single task; this could be a different context than typical helping interactions at organizations, where employees interact and engage in helping behaviors on a regular and ongoing basis. The repeated nature of personal interactions may influence how people ultimately react and respond to receiving or observing help. For example, even though my dissertation showed that people suppress their anger when the helper was rude but helpful, it is possible that under repeated interactions, employees eventually feel anger even when the help has of high utility. On the other hand, if employees got stuck working with their colleagues who were always unhelpful but only nice, they may eventually feel frustrated and anger because the work cannot be done properly. However, the results for the dissertation should hold at least for an initial interaction between the helping dyad, and such interactions were also common at work.

This dissertation points several avenues for future research. First, future research can investigate the perspectives of helpers, help recipients, and observers simultaneously. This dissertation focused on the experiences of help recipients and observers, but there could be different reasons when helpers provide such help. For example, the helper may feel frustrated and loss of self-control if help recipients have lower levels of competence, or they feel entitled and take the assistance for granted. These factors were controlled in this dissertation, as the helpers were confederates, but this does not imply that it is always the case for helping interactions at workplace. The beliefs of helpers may play an important role in determining why different types of help are provided, and future research should examine the relationship between helpers, help recipients, and observers.

Another avenue for future research is attribution processes. The results in the Supplemental Analysis section suggest that people did generate different levels of emotions if they attributed the helper's behavior to performance promotion motive rather than injury initiation motive. In addition, attribution processes are important not only for help recipients, but

also for helpers. Theories of attribution have indicated that beliefs of causality influence people's emotion and motivation (Weiner, 2014). Using the same example above, helpers' thoughts and emotions are determined by appraisals and attributions. For example, if helpers believe that help recipients come to seek help is due to the lack of effort (under personal control), they may feel anger and think that it is justified to provide uncivil help. Additionally, observers may respond differently with their attributions to the specific helping interaction. Therefore, future research should examine the attribution process for all parties involved in helping interactions, and these congruence or incongruence among attributions and beliefs from the three roles (helpers, help recipients, and observers) may also generate interesting results.

Finally, this dissertation was focused on the outcomes of receiving help. As mentioned above, another possible future research is to examine the factors that influence why helpers provide dysfunctional helping. It would be enlightening to explore if organization rewarding policies impacts the helping interactions as such findings would be informative to managers and employee motivation.

Conclusion

In summary, I developed and tested a theoretical model that examined the cognitive and affective process of justice perceptions based on different types of helping that they received, and how social exchange quality and these emotions were further associated with helping intentions and CWB intentions. Data was collected in a laboratory with providing different types of help being provided by a confederate. The hypotheses on the cognitive processes behind justice perceptions were not supported. However, the hypotheses on the affective processes behind justice perceptions were supported for two of the three discrete emotions (i.e., anger and shame). In addition, anger was further associated with CWB intentions. Supplemental analysis reveals that people's attributions also play a role in justice perceptions, beyond just the types of helping that

they receive. Overall, this study found support for the importance of justice perceptions and affect between helping and behavioral intention outcomes.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). Academic Press.
- Anderson, S. E., & Williams, L. J. (1996). Interpersonal, job, and individual factors related to helping processes at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(3), 282-296.
- Andersson, L. M., & Pearson, C. M. (1999). Tit for Tat? The Spiraling Effect of Incivility in the Workplace. *Academy of management review, 24*(3), 452-471.
- Bamberger, P. (2009). Employee help-seeking: Antecedents, consequences and new insights for future research. In J. J. Martocchio & H. Liao (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 28, pp. 49-98). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Bandura, A., & McClelland, D. C. (1977). *Social learning theory* (Vol. 1). Englewood cliffs Prentice Hall.
- Barclay, L. J., Skarlicki, D. P., & Pugh, S. D. (2005). Exploring the role of emotions in injustice perceptions and retaliation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 629-643.
- Batson, C. D., Early, S., & Salvarani, G. (1997). Perspective taking: Imagining how another feels versus imagining how you would feel. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 23*(7), 751-758.
- Batson, C. D., Kennedy, C. L., Nord, L.-A., Stocks, E. L., Fleming, D. Y. A., Marzette, C. M., Lishner, D. A., Hayes, R. E., Kolchinsky, L. M., & Zerger, T. (2007). Anger at unfairness: is it moral outrage? *European Journal of Social Psychology, 37*(6), 1272-1285.
- Batson, C. D., Shaw, L. L., & Oleson, K. C. (1992). Differentiating affect, mood, and emotion: Toward functionally based conceptual distinctions. In *Emotion*. (pp. 294-326). Sage Publications, Inc.

- Beehr, T. A., Bowling, N. A., & Bennett, M. M. (2010). Occupational stress and failures of social support: When helping hurts. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15*(1), 45-59.
- Bergeron, D. M. (2007). The potential paradox of organizational citizenship behavior: Good citizens at what cost? *Academy of Management Review, 32*(4), 1078-1095.
- Berkowitz, L. (1989). Frustration-aggression hypothesis: examination and reformulation. *Psychological Bulletin, 106*(1), 59-73.
- Bies, R. J. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. *Research on negotiation in organizations, 1*, 43-55.
- Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in) justice: The sacred and the profane. *Advances in organizational justice, 89-118*.
- Bies, R. J., Tripp, T. M., Kramer, R., & Tyler, T. (1996). Beyond distrust. In *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research*. Sage Publications.
- Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. (2016). The bright side of being prosocial at work, and the dark side, too: A review and agenda for research on other-oriented motives, behavior, and impact in organizations. *Academy of Management Annals, 10*(1), 599-670.
- Bolino, M. C., Hsiung, H.-H., Harvey, J., & LePine, J. A. (2015). "Well, I'm tired of tryin'!" Organizational citizenship behavior and citizenship fatigue. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*(1), 56-74.
- Bolino, M. C., Klotz, A. C., Turnley, W. H., & Harvey, J. (2013). Exploring the dark side of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 34*(4), 542-559.
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: The relationship between individual initiative and role overload, job stress, and work-family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 740-748.
- Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Bloodgood, J. M. (2002). Citizenship behavior and the creation of social capital in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 27*(4), 505-522.
- Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., & Niehoff, B. P. (2004). The other side of the story: Reexamining prevailing assumptions about organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 14*(2), 229-246.
- Bonner, J. M., Greenbaum, R. L., & Quade, M. J. (2017). Employee unethical behavior to shame as an indicator of self-image threat and exemplification as a form of self-

image protection: The exacerbating role of supervisor bottom-line mentality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(8), 1203-1221.

- Borman, W. C., & Motowidlo, S. (1993). Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance. In N. Schmitt & W. C. Borman (Eds.), *Personnel Selection in Organizations* (pp. 71-98).
- Bos, v. d. K., Lind, E. A., & Wilke, H. A. (2001). The psychology of procedural and distributive justice viewed from the perspective of fairness heuristic theory. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: From theory to practice* (pp. 49-66). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bowler, W. M., & Brass, D. J. (2006). Relational correlates of interpersonal citizenship behavior: A social network perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1), 70-82.
- Bowling, N. A., Beehr, T. A., & Swader, W. M. (2005). Giving and receiving social support at work: The roles of personality and reciprocity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67(3), 476-489.
- Bradbury, T. N., Fincham, F. D., & Beach, S. R. H. (2000). Research on the Nature and Determinants of Marital Satisfaction: A Decade in Review. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 62(4), 964-980.
- Brangle, R., Hedgepath, A., & Wall, E. (2018). "I Am So Angry I Could... Help!" The nature of Empathic Anger. *International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement*, 6(1), 1-17.
- Brockner, J. (1990). Scope of justice in the workplace: How survivors react to co-worker layoffs. *Journal of Social Issues*, 46(1), 95-106.
- Brockner, J., Greenberg, J., Brockner, A., Bortz, J., Davy, J., & Carter, C. (1986). Layoffs, equity theory, and work performance: Further evidence of the impact of survivor guilt. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(2), 373-384.
- Brockner, J., Grover, S., Reed, T., DeWitt, R., & O'Malley, M. (1987). Survivors' reactions to layoffs: We get by with a little help for our friends. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 32(4), 526-541.
- Brockner, J., Wiesenfeld, B. M., & Martin, C. L. (1995). Decision frame, procedural justice, and survivors' reactions to job layoffs. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 63(1), 59-68.
- Callister, R. R., Geddes, D., & Gibson, D. F. (2017). When is anger helpful or hurtful? Status and role impact on anger expression and outcomes. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 10(2), 69-87.

- Cardona, P., Lawrence, B. S., & Bentler, P. M. (2004). The Influence of Social and Work Exchange Relationships on Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Group & Organization Management, 29*(2), 219-247.
- Chebat, J.-C., & Slusarczyk, W. (2005). How emotions mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations: an empirical study. *Journal of Business Research, 58*(5), 664-673.
- Chen, C., Qin, X., Yam, K. C., & Wang, H. (2021). Empathy or schadenfreude? Exploring observers' differential responses to abusive supervision. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 36*, 1077-1094.
- Chiaburu, D. S., & Harrison, D. A. (2008). Do peers make the place? Conceptual synthesis and meta-analysis of coworker effects on perceptions, attitudes, OCBs, and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(5), 1082-1103.
- Chou, S. Y., & Stauffer, J. M. (2016). A theoretical classification of helping behavior and helping motives. *Personnel Review, 45*(5), 871-888.
- Clayton, S. D. (1992). The experience of injustice: Some characteristics and correlates. *Social Justice Research, 5*(1), 71-91.
- Cobb, A. T., Vest, M., & Hills, F. (1997). Who delivers justice? Source perceptions of procedural fairness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 27*(12), 1021-1040.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Byrne, Z. S. (2008). Affect and justice: Current knowledge and future directions. In N. M. Ashkanasy & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research companion to emotion in organizations* (pp. 360-391). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Cohen-Charash, Y., & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 86*(2), 278-321.
- Collins, N. L., Ford, M. B., Guichard, A. C., Kane, H. S., & Feeney, B. C. (2010). Responding to need in intimate relationships: Social support and caregiving processes in couples. In M. Mikulincer & P. R. Shaver (Eds.), *Prosocial motives, emotions, and behavior: The better angels of our nature*. (pp. 367-389). American Psychological Association.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: a construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386-400.
- Colquitt, J. A., Baer, M. D., Long, D. M., & Halvorsen-Ganepola, M. D. (2014). Scale indicators of social exchange relationships: A comparison of relative content validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*(4), 599-618.

- Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: a meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 425-445.
- Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice? A historical overview. In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice*. (pp. 3-56). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., Piccolo, R. F., Zapata, C. P., & Rich, B. L. (2012). Explaining the justice–performance relationship: Trust as exchange deepener or trust as uncertainty reducer? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(1), 1-15.
- Colquitt, J. A., Scott, B. A., Rodell, J. B., Long, D. M., Zapata, C. P., Conlon, D. E., & Wesson, M. J. (2013). Justice at the millennium, a decade later: A meta-analytic test of social exchange and affect-based perspectives. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(2), 199-236.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Shaw, J. C. (2005). How should organizational justice be measured. In J. Greenberg & J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational justice* (Vol. 1, pp. 113-152). Erlbaum.
- Colquitt, J. A., & Zipay, K. P. (2015). Justice, fairness, and employee reactions. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 2*(1), 75-99.
- Cropanzano, R., Anthony, E. L., Daniels, S. R., & Hall, A. V. (2016). Social exchange theory: A critical review with theoretical remedies. *Academy of Management Annals, 11*(1), 479-516.
- Cropanzano, R., Barry, G., & Folger, R. (2003). Deontic justice: The role of moral principles in workplace fairness. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24*(8), 1019-1024.
- Cropanzano, R., & Folger, R. (1989). Referent cognitions and task decision autonomy: Beyond equity theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(2), 293-299.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874-900.
- Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group & Organization Management, 27*(3), 324-351.
- 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. In S. W. Gilliland, D. P. Skarlicki, & D. D. Steiner

(Eds.), *Research in social issues in management: Justice, morality, and social responsibility* (Vol. 63-99, pp. 99). Information Age Publishing.

Cropanzano, R., Stein, J. H., & Nadisic, T. (2011). *Social justice and the experience of emotion*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Cutrona, C. E. (1996). *Social support in couples: Marriage as a resource in times of stress*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage

Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and overall job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(5), 1051-1066.

Dalal, R. S., & Sheng, Z. (2019). When is helping behavior unhelpful? A conceptual analysis and research agenda. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 110, 272-285.

Daniels, M. A., & Robinson, S. L. (2019). The shame of it all: A review of shame in organizational life. *Journal of Management*, 45(6), 2448-2473.

Darley, J. M., & Pittman, T. S. (2003). The psychology of compensatory and retributive justice. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 7(4), 324-336.

De Cremer, D. (2007). *Advances in the psychology of justice and affect*. Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

De Hooge, I. E., Zeelenberg, M., & Breugelmans, S. M. (2010). Restore and protect motivations following shame. *Cognition and Emotion*, 24(1), 111-127.

De Hooge, I. E., Zeelenberg, M., & Breugelmans, S. M. (2011). A functionalist account of shame-induced behaviour. *Cognition & Emotion*, 25(5), 939-946.

Deelstra, J. T., Peeters, M. C. W., Schaufeli, W. B., Stroebe, W., Zijlstra, F. R. H., & van Doornen, L. P. (2003). Receiving instrumental support at work: When help is not welcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 324-331.

Deutsch, M. (1975). Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis of distributive justice?. *Journal of Social Issues*, 31(3), 137-149.

Dimotakis, N., Scott, B. A., & Koopman, J. (2011). An experience sampling investigation of workplace interactions, affective states, and employee well-being. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(4), 572-588.

Dovidio, J. F. (1984). Helping behavior and altruism: An empirical and conceptual overview. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 17, 361-427.

- Duck, S. (1994). Stratagems, spoils, and a serpent's tooth: On the delights and dilemmas of personal relationships. In W. R. Cupach & B. H. Spitzberg (Eds.), *The dark side of interpersonal communication* (pp. 3-24). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dunford, B. B., Jackson, C. L., Boss, A. D., Tay, L., & Boss, R. W. (2015). Be fair, your employees are watching: A relational response model of external third-party justice. *Personnel Psychology, 68*(2), 319-352.
- Eby, L. T., McManus, S. E., Simon, S. A., & Russell, J. E. A. (2000). The Protege's Perspective Regarding Negative Mentoring Experiences: The Development of a Taxonomy. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57*(1), 1-21.
- Eisenberger, R., Cotterell, N., & Marvel, J. (1987). Reciprocation ideology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53*(4), 743-750.
- 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.
- Ellard, J., & Skarlicki, D. (2002). A third-party observer's reactions to employee mistreatment: Motivational and cognitive processes in deservingness assessments. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Emerging perspectives on managing organizational justice* (pp. 133-158). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.
- Ellsworth, P. C., & Scherer, K. R. (2003). Appraisal processes in emotion. In *Handbook of affective sciences*. (pp. 572-595). Oxford University Press.
- Emmons, R. A. (2008). Gratitude, subjective well-being, and the brain. *The science of subjective well-being*, 469-489.
- Emmons, R. A., & Shelton, C. M. (2002). Gratitude and the science of positive psychology. *Handbook of positive psychology, 18*, 459-471.
- Epstein, S. (1994). Integration of the cognitive and the psychodynamic unconscious. *American Psychologist, 49*(8), 709-724.
- Fairlie, R. W. (2004, December). Self-employed business ownership rates in the United States: 1979–2003. *Small Business Administration [Research Summary 243]*.
- Feather, N. T. (1999). Judgments of deservingness: Studies in the psychology of justice and achievement. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 3*(2), 86-107.

- Feather, N. T. (2006). Deservingness and emotions: Applying the structural model of deservingness to the analysis of affective reactions to outcomes. *European Review of Social Psychology, 17*(1), 38-73.
- Feather, N. T., & Sherman, R. (2002). Envy, resentment, schadenfreude, and sympathy: Reactions to deserved and undeserved achievement and subsequent failure. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28*(7), 953-961.
- Fedewa, B. A., Burns, L. R., & Gomez, A. A. (2005). Positive and negative perfectionism and the shame/guilt distinction: Adaptive and maladaptive characteristics. *Personality and Individual Differences, 38*(7), 1609-1619.
- Fehr, E., & Fischbacher, U. (2004). Third-party punishment and social norms. *Evolution and Human Behavior, 25*(2), 63-87.
- Ferris, D. L., Yan, M., Lim, V. K. G., Chen, Y., & Fatimah, S. (2015). An approach-avoidance framework of workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal, 59*(5), 1777-1800.
- Folger, R. (1993). Reactions to mistreatment at work. In *Social psychology in organizations: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 161-183). Prentice Hall.
- Folger, R. (2001). Fairness as deonance. In S. W. Gilliland, D. D. Steiner, & D. P. Skarlicki (Eds.), *Research in social issues in management* (Vol. 1, pp. 3-33). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Folger, R., Cropanzano, R., & Goldman, B. (2005). What is the relationship between justice and morality. In J. Greenberg & J. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice*, (pp. 215-245). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1984). *Stress, appraisal, and coping*. New York: Springer.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (1998). What good are positive emotions? *Review of general psychology, 2*(3), 300-319.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist, 56*(3), 218-226.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2004). Gratitude, like other positive emotions, broadens and builds. In R.A. Emmons & M.E. McCullough (Eds.), *The psychology of gratitude* (pp. 145-166). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fredrickson, B. L., Tugade, M. M., Waugh, C. E., & Larkin, G. R. (2003). What good are positive emotions in crisis? A prospective study of resilience and emotions

- following the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11th, 2001. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(2), 365-376.
- Frijda, N. H. (1993). Moods, emotion episodes, and emotions. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions* (pp. 381-403). The Guilford Press.
- Gabriel, A. S., Koopman, J., Rosen, C. C., & Johnson, R. E. (2018). Helping others or helping oneself? An episodic examination of the behavioral consequences of helping at work. *Personnel Psychology*, 71(1), 85-107.
- Gausel, N., Leach, C. W., Vignoles, V. L., & Brown, R. (2012). Defend or repair? Explaining responses to in-group moral failure by disentangling feelings of shame, rejection, and inferiority. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 102(5), 941-960.
- Geddes, D., & Callister, R. R. (2007). Crossing the line (s): A dual threshold model of anger in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(3), 721-746.
- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698-709.
- Giumetti, G. W., Hatfield, A. L., Scisco, J. L., Schroeder, A. N., Muth, E. R., & Kowalski, R. M. (2013). What a rude e-mail! Examining the differential effects of incivility versus support on mood, energy, engagement, and performance in an online context. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(3), 297-309.
- Glass, D. C., & Singer, J. E. (1972). *Urban stress*. Academic Press.
- Gleason, M. E. J., Iida, M., Bolger, N., & Shrout, P. E. (2003). Daily supportive equity in close relationships. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(8), 1036-1045.
- Glomb, T. M. (2002). Workplace anger and aggression: Informing conceptual models with data from specific encounters. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 7(1), 20-36.
- Goldman, B. M. (2003). The application of referent cognitions theory to legal-claiming by terminated workers: The role of organizational justice and anger. *Journal of Management*, 29(5), 705-728.
- Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 161-178.

- Grant, A. M., & Mayer, D. M. (2009). Good soldiers and good actors: Prosocial and impression management motives as interactive predictors of affiliative citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(4), 900-912.
- Gray, C. E., Spector, P. E., Lacey, K. N., Young, B. G., Jacobsen, S. T., & Taylor, M. R. (2020). Helping may be Harming: unintended negative consequences of providing social support. *Work & Stress, 34*(4), 359-385.
- Greco, L. M., Whitson, J. A., O'Boyle, E. H., Wang, C. S., & Kim, J. (2019). An eye for an eye? A meta-analysis of negative reciprocity in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 104*(9), 1117-1143.
- Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management*. (pp. 79-103). Erlbaum.
- Greenberg, J., & Folger, R. (1983). Procedural justice, participation, and the fair process effect in groups and organizations. In P. P.B. (Ed.), *Basic group processes* (pp. 235–256). Springer.
- Greenier, K. D. (2015). Seeing you fall vs taking you down: The roles of agency and liking in schadenfreude. *Psychological Reports, 116*(3), 941-953.
- Haidt, J. (2001). The emotional dog and its rational tail: A social intuitionist approach to moral judgment. *Psychological Review, 108*(4), 814-834.
- Haidt, J. (2003). The moral emotions. In *Handbook of affective sciences*. (pp. 852-870). Oxford University Press.
- Hareli, S., & Weiner, B. (2002). Dislike and envy as antecedents of pleasure at another's misfortune. *Motivation and Emotion, 26*(4), 257-277.
- Harris, K. J., Harvey, P., Harris, R. B., & Cast, M. (2013). An investigation of abusive supervision, vicarious abusive supervision, and their joint impacts. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 153*(1), 38-50.
- Heilman, M. E., & Alcott, V. B. (2001). What I think you think of me: Women's reactions to being viewed as beneficiaries of preferential selection. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(4), 574-582.
- Helm, B., Bonoma, T. V., & Tedeschi, J. T. (1972). Reciprocity for harm done. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 87*(1), 89-98.
- Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). The weirdest people in the world? *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 33*(2-3), 61-83.

- Hillebrandt, A., & Barclay, L. J. (2020). How cheating undermines the perceived value of justice in the workplace: The mediating effect of shame. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 105*(10), 1164-1180.
- Hockey, G. R. J., & Earle, F. (2006). Control over the scheduling of simulated office work reduces the impact of workload on mental fatigue and task performance. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 12*(1), 50-65.
- Kaplan, S., M., & Whitman, R., M. (1965). The negative ego-ideal. *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis, 46*, 183-187.
- Katz, D. (1964). The motivational basis of organizational behavior. *Behavioral Science, 9*(2), 131-146.
- Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. (1994). Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(3), 656-669.
- Koopman, J., Lanaj, K., & Scott, B. A. (2016). Integrating the bright and dark sides of OCB: A daily investigation of the benefits and costs of helping others. *Academy of Management Journal, 59*(2), 414-435.
- Krehbiel, P. J., & Cropanzano, R. (2000). Procedural justice, outcome favorability and emotion. *Social Justice Research, 13*(4), 339-360.
- Kulik, J. A., & Brown, R. (1979). Frustration, attribution of blame, and aggression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 15*(2), 183-194.
- Lanaj, K., Johnson, R. E., & Wang, M. (2016). When lending a hand depletes the will: The daily costs and benefits of helping. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(8), 1097-1110.
- Lange, J., & Boecker, L. (2019). Schadenfreude as social-functional dominance regulator. *Emotion, 19*(3), 489-502.
- Lavelle, J. J., Rupp, D. E., & Brockner, J. (2007). Taking a multifoci approach to the study of justice, social exchange, and citizenship behavior: The target similarity model. *Journal of Management, 33*(6), 841-866.
- Lawler, E. J., & Thye, S. R. (1999). Bringing emotions into social exchange theory. *Annual review of sociology, 25*(1), 217-244.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*. Oxford University Press.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1993). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology, 44*(1), 1-22.

- Le Roy, J., Bastounis, M., & Poussard, J. M. (2012). Interactional justice and counterproductive work behaviors: The mediating role of negative emotions. *Social Behavior and Personality: An international journal*, 40(8), 1341-1355.
- Leach, C. W., & Cidam, A. (2015). When is shame linked to constructive approach orientation? A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 109(6), 983-1002.
- Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(1), 131-142.
- Leventhal, G. S. (1976). The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations. In L. Berkowitz & E. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 91-131). Academic Press.
- Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What Should Be Done with Equity Theory?. In K.J. Gergen, M.S. Greenberg, R.H. Willis (Eds.) *Social Exchange* (pp. 27-55). Springer, Boston, MA.
- Lewis, H., Block. (1971). Shame and guilt in neurosis. *Psychoanalytic Review*, 58(3), 419-438.
- Li, X., McAllister, D. J., Ilies, R., & Gloor, J. L. (2017). Schadenfreude: A counternormative observer response to workplace mistreatment. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(2), 360–376.
- Lim, S., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Personal and workgroup incivility: Impact on work and health outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(1), 95-107.
- Lind, E. A. (2001). Fairness heuristic theory: Justice judgments as pivotal cognitions in organizational relations. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 56-88). Stanford University Press.
- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(5), 1187-1212.
- Liu, J., Kwong Kwan, H., Wu, L.-z., & Wu, W. (2010). Abusive supervision and subordinate supervisor-directed deviance: The moderating role of traditional values and the mediating role of revenge cognitions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83(4), 835-856.

- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Fetter, R. (1991). Organizational citizenship behavior and objective productivity as determinants of managerial evaluations of salespersons' performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50(1), 123-150.
- Manz, C. C., & Sims, H. P. (1981). Vicarious learning: The influence of modeling on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 6(1), 105-113.
- Marcus-Newhall, A., Pedersen, W. C., Carlson, M., & Miller, N. (2000). Displaced aggression is alive and well: a meta-analytic review. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 78(4), 670-690.
- 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.
- Mathieu, M., Eschleman, K. J., & Cheng, D. (2019). Meta-analytic and multiwave comparison of emotional support and instrumental support in the workplace. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 24(3), 387-409.
- Matta, F. K., Erol-Korkmaz, H. T., Johnson, R. E., & Biçaksiz, P. (2014). Significant work events and counterproductive work behavior: The role of fairness, emotions, and emotion regulation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 35(7), 920-944.
- Matta, F. K., Sabey, T. B., Scott, B. A., Lin, S.-H. J., & Koopman, J. (2020). Not all fairness is created equal: A study of employee attributions of supervisor justice motives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 105(3), 274-293.
- McCullough, M. E., Kilpatrick, S. D., Emmons, R. A., & Larson, D. B. (2001). Is gratitude a moral affect? *Psychological Bulletin*, 127(2), 249-266.
- Meier, L. L., Gross, S., Spector, P. E., & Semmer, N. K. (2013). Relationship and task conflict at work: Interactive short-term effects on angry mood and somatic complaints. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 18(2), 144-156.
- Mikula, G. (1986). The experience of injustice: Toward a better understanding of its phenomenology. In H. W. Bierhoff, R. L. Cohen, & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Justice in interpersonal relations* (pp. 103-123). New York: Plenum Press.
- Miner, K. N., & Cortina, L. M. (2016). Observed workplace incivility toward women, perceptions of interpersonal injustice, and observer occupational well-being: Differential effects for gender of the observer. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 7:482.
- Mitchell, M. S., Vogel, R. M., & Folger, R. (2015). Third parties' reactions to the abusive supervision of coworkers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(4), 1040-1055.

- Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(6), 845-855.
- Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998). Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior? *Academy of Management Journal, 41*(3), 351-357.
- Nadler, A. (1991). Help-seeking behavior: Psychological costs and instrumental benefits. In M. S. Clark (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 290-312). Sage.
- Nadler, A., Ellis, S., & Bar, I. (2003). To seek or not to seek: The relationship between help seeking and job performance evaluations as moderated by task-relevant expertise. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 33*(1), 91-109.
- Neuman, J. H., & Baron, R. A. (2005). Aggression in the Workplace: A Social-Psychological Perspective. In *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets*. (pp. 13-40). American Psychological Association.
- O'Reilly, J., & Aquino, K. (2011). A model of third parties' morally motivated responses to mistreatment in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 36*(3), 526-543.
- O'Reilly, J., Aquino, K., & Skarlicki, D. (2016). The lives of others: Third parties' responses to others' injustice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(2), 171-189.
- O'Reilly, J., Robinson, S. L., Berdahl, J. L., & Banki, S. (2014). Is negative attention better than no attention? The comparative effects of ostracism and harassment at work. *Organization Science, 26*(3), 774-793.
- Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome*. Lexington Books/D. C. Heath and Com.
- Organ, D. W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 12, pp. 43-72). JAI.
- Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 74*(1), 157-164.
- Organ, D. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (2005). *Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature, antecedents, and consequences*. Sage Publications.

- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology, 48*(4), 775-802.
- Pearson, C. M., Andersson, L. M., & Porath, C. L. (2005). Workplace incivility. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 177-200). American Psychological Association.
- Penner, L. A., Midili, A. R., & Kegelmeyer, J. (1997). Beyond job attitudes: A personality and social psychology perspective on the causes of organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Performance, 10*(2), 111-131.
- Perrewé, P. L., & Zellars, K. L. (1999). An examination of attributions and emotions in the transactional approach to the organizational stress process. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20*(5), 739-752.
- Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual- and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(1), 122-141.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Ahearne, M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior and the quantity and quality of work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(2), 262-270.
- Podsakoff, P. M., & MacKenzie, S. B. (1994). Organizational citizenship behaviors and sales unit effectiveness. *Journal of Marketing Research, 31*(3), 351-363.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Hui, C. (1993). Organizational citizenship behaviors and managerial evaluations of employee performance: A review and suggestions for future research. In G. R. Ferris & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 11, pp. 1-40). JAI Press.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 879-903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: a critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management, 26*(3), 513-563.
- Porath, C., & Pearson, C. (2013). The price of incivility. *Harvard business review, 91*(1-2), 115-121.

- Porath, C. L., & Erez, A. (2007). Does rudeness really matter? The effects of rudeness on task performance and helpfulness. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(5), 1181-1197.
- Priesemuth, M. (2013). Stand up and speak up: Employees' prosocial reactions to observed abusive supervision. *Business & society*, 52(4), 649-665.
- Priesemuth, M., & Schminke, M. (2019). Helping thy neighbor? Prosocial reactions to observed abusive supervision in the workplace. *Journal of Management*, 45(3), 1225-1251.
- Rawls, J. (2009). *A theory of justice*. Harvard university press.
- Reich, T. C., & Hershcovis, M. S. (2015). Observing workplace incivility. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(1), 203-215.
- 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.
- Robinson, S. L., O'Reilly, J., & Wang, W. (2012). Invisible at work: An integrated model of workplace ostracism. *Journal of Management*, 39(1), 203-231.
- Rupp, D. E., & Spencer, S. (2006). When customers lash out: The effects of customer interactional injustice on emotional labor and the mediating role of discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4), 971-978.
- Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 224-253.
- Scandura, T. A. (1998). Dysfunctional mentoring relationships and outcomes. *Journal of Management*, 24(3), 449-467.
- Scherer, K. R., & Wallbott, H. G. (1994). Evidence for universality and cultural variation of differential emotion response patterning. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(2), 310-328.
- Schilpzand, P., De Pater, I. E., & Erez, A. (2016). Workplace incivility: A review of the literature and agenda for future research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(S1), S57-S88.
- Schmader, T., & Lickel, B. (2006). The approach and avoidance function of guilt and shame emotions: Comparing reactions to self-caused and other-caused wrongdoing. *Motivation and Emotion*, 30(1), 42-55.

- Settoon, R. P., & Mossholder, K. W. (2002). Relationship quality and relationship context as antecedents of person- and task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(2), 255-267.
- Shockley, K. M., Ispas, D., Rossi, M. E., & Levine, E. L. (2012). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between state affect, discrete emotions, and job performance. *Human Performance, 25*(5), 377-411.
- Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods, 7*(4), 422-445.
- Simon, S. A., & Eby, L. T. (2003). A typology of negative mentoring experiences: A multidimensional scaling study. *Human Relations, 56*(9), 1083-1106.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Folger, R. (1997). Retaliation in the workplace: The roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(3), 434-443.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Kulik, C. T. (2004). Third party reactions to employee (mis)treatment: A justice perspective. In B. M. Staw & R. M. Kramer (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 26, pp. 183-229). JAI Press.
- Skarlicki, D. P., & Rupp, D. E. (2010). Dual processing and organizational justice: The role of rational versus experiential processing in third-party reactions to workplace mistreatment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 95*(5), 944-952.
- Skitka, L. J., & Tetlock, P. E. (1992). Allocating scarce resources: A contingency model of distributive justice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 28*(6), 491-522.
- Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. (1985). Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48*(4), 813-838.
- Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 68*(4), 653-663.
- Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource Management Review, 12*(2), 269-292.
- Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2005). The Stressor-Emotion Model of Counterproductive Work Behavior. In S. Fox & P. E. Spector (Eds.), *Counterproductive work behavior: Investigations of actors and targets* (pp. 151-174). American Psychological Association.

- Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: Injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*(2), 429-444.
- Stoverink, A. C., Umphress, E. E., Gardner, R. G., & Miner, K. N. (2014). Misery loves company: Team dissonance and the influence of supervisor-focused interpersonal justice climate on team cohesiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 99*(6), 1059-1073.
- Tangney, J. P., Miller, R. S., Flicker, L., & Barlow, D. H. (1996). Are shame, guilt, and embarrassment distinct emotions? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(6), 1256-1269.
- Tepper, B. J., Carr, J. C., Breaux, D. M., Geider, S., Hu, C., & Hua, W. (2009). Abusive supervision, intentions to quit, and employees' workplace deviance: A power/dependence analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 109*(2), 156-167.
- Thibaut, J. W., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis*. Erlbaum.
- Totterdell, P., Hershcovis, M. S., Niven, K., Reich, T. C., & Stride, C. (2012). Can employees be emotionally drained by witnessing unpleasant interactions between coworkers? A diary study of induced emotion regulation. *Work & Stress, 26*(2), 112-129.
- Tsang, J.-A. (2007). Gratitude for small and large favors: A behavioral test. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 2*(3), 157-167.
- Turillo, C. J., Folger, R., Lavelle, J. J., Umphress, E. E., & Gee, J. O. (2002). Is virtue its own reward? Self-sacrificial decisions for the sake of fairness. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 89*(1), 839-865.
- Tyler, T. R., & Bies, R. J. (1990). Beyond formal procedures: The interpersonal context of procedural justice. In J. S. Carroll (Ed.), *Applied social psychology and organizational settings* (Vol. 77-98, pp. 98). Erlbaum.
- Tyre, M. J., & Hauptman, O. (1992). Effectiveness of organizational responses to technological change in the production process. *Organization Science, 3*(3), 301-320.
- Uhl-Bien, M., & Maslyn, J. M. (2003). Reciprocity in manager-subordinate relationships: Components, configurations, and outcomes. *Journal of Management, 29*(4), 511-532.

- Umberson, D. (1995). Marriage as Support or Strain? Marital Quality Following the Death of a Parent. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 57(3), 709-723.
- van der Rijt, J., Van den Bossche, P., van de Wiel, M. W., De Maeyer, S., Gijssels, W. H., & Segers, M. S. (2013). Asking for help: A relational perspective on help seeking in the workplace. *Vocations and Learning*, 6(2), 259-279.
- Vandyne, L., Cummings, L. L., & Parks, J. M. (1995). Extra-role behaviors-in pursuit of construct and definitional clarity (a bridge over muddied waters). In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (Vol. 17, pp. 215-285). JAI Press.
- Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H., & Caplan, R. D. (1996). Hard times and hurtful partners: How financial strain affects depression and relationship satisfaction of unemployed persons and their spouses. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 166-179.
- Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D. S. (2002). Examining the construct of organizational justice: A meta-analytic evaluation of relations with work attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 38(3), 193-203.
- Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. (1999). The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(2), 314-334.
- Vitagliano, G. D., & Barnett, M. A. (2003). Assessing a new dimension of empathy: Empathic anger as a predictor of helping and punishing desires. *Motivation and Emotion*, 27(4), 301-325.
- Wegge, J., Dick, R. v., Fisher, G. K., West, M. A., & Dawson, J. F. (2006). A test of basic assumptions of Affective Events Theory (AET) in call centre work. *British Journal of Management*, 17(3), 237-254.
- Weiner, B. (1980a). A cognitive (attribution)-emotion-action model of motivated behavior: An analysis of judgments of help-giving. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 39(2), 186-200.
- Weiner, B. (1980b). May I borrow your class notes? An attributional analysis of judgments of help giving in an achievement-related context. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 72(5), 676-681.
- Weiner, B. (1985). An attributional theory of achievement motivation and emotion. *Psychological Review*, 92(4), 548-573.
- Weiner, B. (1986). Attribution, emotion, and action. In *Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior*. (pp. 281-312). Guilford Press.

- Weiner, B. (2014). The attribution approach to emotion and motivation: History, hypotheses, home runs, headaches/heartaches. *Emotion Review*, 6(4), 353-361.
- Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews*, Vol. 18. (pp. 1-74). Elsevier Science/JAI Press.
- Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 786-794.
- Wicker, F. W., Payne, G. C., & Morgan, R. D. (1983). Participant descriptions of guilt and shame. *Motivation and Emotion*, 7(1), 25-39.
- Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17(3), 601-617.
- Wondra, J. D., & Ellsworth, P. C. (2015). An appraisal theory of empathy and other vicarious emotional experiences. *Psychological Review*, 122(3), 411-428.
- Wong, P. T., & Weiner, B. (1981). When people ask "why" questions, and the heuristics of attributional search. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40(4), 650-663.
- Woodyatt, L., & Wenzel, M. (2014). A needs-based perspective on self-forgiveness: Addressing threat to moral identity as a means of encouraging interpersonal and intrapersonal restoration. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 50, 125-135.
- Yam, K. C., Klotz, A. C., He, W., & Reynolds, S. J. (2016). From good soldiers to psychologically entitled: Examining when and why citizenship behavior leads to deviance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 60(1), 373-396.
- Yang, J., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). The relations of daily counterproductive workplace behavior with emotions, situational antecedents, and personality moderators: A diary study in Hong Kong. *Personnel Psychology*, 62(2), 259-295.
- Zhou, Z. E., Eatough, E. M., & Wald, D. R. (2018). Feeling insulted? Examining end-of-work anger as a mediator in the relationship between daily illegitimate tasks and next-day CWB. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(8), 911-921.

APPENDICES
APPENDIX A: Tables

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables*

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Utility of help	0.48	0.50										
2. Incivility of help	0.48	0.50	-.20									
3. Distributive justice	3.10	1.30	.44	-.20								
4. Interpersonal justice	3.60	1.40	.36	-.36	.72							
5. Social Exchange Quality	3.22	1.29	.44	-.36	.60	.76						
6. Gratitude	3.35	1.49	.66	-.26	.61	.65	.78					
7. Shame	1.45	0.69	.39	-.01	-.05	-.24	.12	.32				
8. Anger	1.45	0.86	-.41	.26	-.64	-.68	-.62	-.66	-.18			
9. Help intentions	3.52	1.13	.42	-.45	.51	.56	.64	.65	.13	-.28		
10. CWB intentions	1.30	0.67	-.41	.41	-.42	-.63	-.67	-.64	-.18	.35	-.66	
11. Decision making	3.77	1.16	.60	-.28	.43	.63	.62	.72	.14	-.42	.66	-.65
12. Distributive justice (C)	3.39	1.38	.65	-.33	.50	.53	.81	.69	.23	-.54	.57	-.49
13. Interpersonal justice (C)	3.67	1.25	.55	-.64	.60	.51	.65	.55	.24	-.28	.71	-.64
14. Exclusion beliefs (C)	1.13	0.59	.17	.24	.02	-.05	-.18	.03	-.14	.05	-.24	-.08
15. Empathic Anger (C)	1.33	0.56	-.16	.34	-.38	-.36	-.58	-.28	-.06	.55	-.19	.08
16. Contentment (C)	3.11	0.95	.35	-.07	-.17	.11	.26	.03	.08	-.01	.23	-.11
17. Help intentions (C)	4.16	0.86	.59	-.02	.23	.18	.32	.51	.37	-.26	.25	-.15
18. CWB intentions (C)	1.18	0.41	-.02	.08	-.06	.08	-.12	-.05	-.20	-.02	-.21	-.11

Table 1. *Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Study Variables (Cont.)*

Variable	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Utility of help							
2. Incivility of help							
3. Distributive justice							
4. Interpersonal justice							
5. Social Exchange Quality							
6. Gratitude							
7. Shame							
8. Anger							
9. Help intentions							
10. CWB intentions							
11. Decision making							
12. Distributive justice (C)	.60						
13. Interpersonal justice (C)	.53	.69					
14. Exclusion beliefs (C)	-.16	-.10	-.17				
15. Empathic Anger (C)	-.20	-.68	-.43	.34			
16. Contentment (C)	.32	.36	.18	-.41	-.13		
17. Help intentions (C)	.37	.50	.22	-.02	-.06	.33	
18. CWB intentions (C)	-.23	-.25	-.19	.79	.36	-.22	-.19

Note. $N = 59$ help recipients and 61 observers. Variable 1-11 are response from help recipients, and 12-18 are responses from observers. Correlations that are greater than .25 are statistically significant at $p < .05$. Exclusion beliefs, Distributive justice and interpersonal justice perceptions are grand mean centered. Variables marked with C refer to observer measures.

* $p < .05$

Table 2. *Mean Distributive Justice Perceptions for Help Recipients in Each Condition*

<i>Distributive Justice</i>		<i>Utility</i>		<i>Marginal means</i>
		Low	High	
Incivility	Low	3.11	3.88	3.50
	High	2.25	3.27	2.76
Marginal Means		2.68	3.58	

Note. Utility and incivility were dummy coded as 0 for low and 1 for high.

Table 3. *Mean Interpersonal Justice Perceptions for Help Recipients in Each Condition*

<i>Interpersonal Justice</i>		<i>Utility</i>		<i>Marginal means</i>
		Low	High	
Incivility	Low	4.03	4.47	4.25
	High	2.43	3.33	2.88
Marginal Means		3.23	3.90	

Note. Utility and incivility were dummy coded as 0 for low and 1 for high.

Table 4. *Mean Distributive Justice Perceptions for Observers in Each Condition*

<i>Distributive Justice</i>		<i>Utility</i>		<i>Marginal means</i>
		Low	High	
Incivility	Low	3.20	4.33	3.77
	High	2.48	3.85	3.17
Marginal Means		2.84	4.09	

Note. Utility and incivility were dummy coded as 0 for low and 1 for high.

Table 5. *Mean Interpersonal Justice Perceptions for Observers in Each Condition*

<i>Interpersonal Justice</i>		<i>Utility</i>		<i>Marginal means</i>
		Low	High	
Incivility	Low	4.27	4.61	4.44
	High	2.48	3.23	2.86
Marginal Means		3.38	3.92	

Note. Utility and incivility were dummy coded as 0 for low and 1 for high.

Table 6. ANOVA Summary Table for Help Recipients

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Distributive Justice</i>					
Utility of help	1	12.52	12.52	9.30	.00**
Incivility of help	1	7.98	7.98	5.93	.02*
Utility x Incivility of help	1	.24	.24	.18	.68
Residuals	55	74.05	1.35		
<i>Interpersonal Justice</i>					
Utility of help	1	7.71	7.71	5.41	.02*
Incivility of help	1	27.83	27.83	19.51	.00**
Utility x Incivility of help	1	.78	.78	.55	.46
Residuals	55	78.44	1.43		

Note. *SS* = Sum of Squares. *MS* = Mean Squares.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 7. ANOVA Summary Table for Observers

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Distributive Justice</i>					
Utility of help	1	23.84	23.84	16.82	.00**
Incivility of help	1	5.59	5.59	3.94	.05
Utility x Incivility of help	1	.20	.20	.14	.71
Residuals	56	79.36	1.42		
<i>Interpersonal Justice</i>					
Utility of help	1	5.78	5.78	6.62	.01*
Incivility of help	1	38.40	38.40	43.96	.00**
Utility x Incivility of help	1	.61	.61	.70	.41
Residuals	57	49.80	.87		

Note. *SS* = Sum of Squares. *MS* = Mean Squares.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 8. Full Path Model Results for Help Recipients

	Distributive justice			Interpersonal justice			Social Exchange Quality			Gratitude		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	-.04	-.04	-.18	.33	.24	1.30	3.16	2.52	19.70	3.05	2.10	15.68
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	.88**	.35	3.01	.65*	.23	2.14	.55*	.22	2.92	.97*	.33	4.25
Incivility of help	-.74*	-.29	-2.52	-1.38**	-.49	-4.55	-.37*	-.15	-1.81	-.08	-.03	-.32
<i>Mediators</i>												
Distributive justice							.30**	.30	3.34	.33**	.31	2.94
Interpersonal justice							.41**	.45	4.44	.44**	.39	4.10
Justice interaction							-.00	-.00	-.02	-.10	-.11	-1.35
Social Exchange Quality												
Gratitude												
Anger												
Shame												
<i>R</i> ²	.22			.31			.72			.69		

Note. N = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 8. Full Path Model Results for Help Recipients(cont.)

	Anger			Shame			Helping intentions			CWB intentions		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	1.24	1.50	8.41	1.38	1.93	9.50	2.35	2.12	4.31	.98	1.49	2.74
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	.21	.12	1.18	.41*	.29	2.42	-.32	-.14	-1.30	.19	.14	1.17
Incivility of help	.01	.01	.06	.06	.04	.31	-.18	-.08	-.78	.17	.13	1.12
<i>Mediators</i>												
Distributive justice	-.08	-.13	-1.01	.08	.13	.93	-.01	-.01	-.05	.10	.19	1.40
Interpersonal justice	-.33**	-.56	-3.92	-.22*	-.44	-2.69	.06	.07	.39	-.10	-.22	-1.10
Justice interaction	.11*	.21	1.96	-.14*	-.32	-2.56						
Social Exchange Quality							.07	.07	.37	-.03	-.06	-.26
Gratitude							.47*	.62	3.14	-.05	-.11	-.52
Anger							-.12	-.09	-.73	.36*	.46	3.38
Shame							-.15	-.09	-.86	-.07	-.07	-.60
<i>R</i> ²	.45			.28			.56			.47		

Note. N = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 9. Full Path Model Results for Observers

	Distributive justice			Interpersonal justice			Empathic Anger			Contentment		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	-.23	-.17	-.89	.48	.39	2.45	1.35	2.65	13.83	2.92	3.00	14.36
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	1.24**	.46	4.18	.45	.18	1.88	-.01	-.01	-.05	.21	.11	.85
Incivility of help	-.61*	-.23	-2.06	-1.59*	-.64	-6.86	-.07	-.06	-.47	.22	.12	.80
Distributive justice							-.01	-.02	-.14	.18	.25	1.76
Interpersonal justice							-.32**	-.70	-4.75	.20	.26	1.55
Social Exclusion Beliefs							.01	.01	.05	-.55*	-.33	-2.89
Interpersonal justice x Social Exclusion Beliefs							-.01	-.01	-.08	.23	.14	1.15
Empathic Anger												
Contentment												
R^2	.26			.47			.41			.30		

Note. $N = 61$ observers.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 9. Full Path Model Results for Observers (Cont.)

<i>Coefficients</i>	Helping intentions			CWB Intentions		
	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	3.12	3.56	5.79	.46	1.30	3.38
<i>Helping Variables</i>						
Utility of help	.22	.13	.95	-.00	-.01	-.06
Incivility of help	.11	.06	.41	-.09	-.11	-1.22
Distributive justice	.08	.13	.84	.07*	.22	2.30
Interpersonal justice	.18	.25	1.21	-.04	-.12	-.97
Social Exclusion Beliefs	.12	.08	.69	.15*	.21	2.80
Interpersonal justice x Social Exclusion Beliefs						
Empathic Anger	.30	.20	1.25	.61*	.82	8.74
Contentment	.19	.22	1.59	-.03	-.06	-.76
R^2	.21			.68		

Note. $N = 61$ observers.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

APPENDIX B: Supplemental Analysis Tables

Table B1. *Guilt as an Additional Emotion*

	Distributive justice			Interpersonal justice			Social Exchange Quality			Gratitude		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	-.04	-.04	-.18	.33	.24	1.30	3.16	2.52	19.70	3.05	2.10	15.68
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	.88**	.35	3.01	.65*	.23	2.14	.55*	.22	2.92	.97*	.33	4.25
Incivility of help	-.74*	-.29	-2.52	-1.38**	-.49	-4.55	-.37*	-.15	-1.81	-.08	-.03	-.32
<i>Mediators</i>												
Distributive justice							.30**	.30	3.34	.33**	.31	2.94
Interpersonal justice							.41**	.45	4.44	.44**	.39	4.10
Justice interaction							-.00	-.00	-.02	-.10	-.11	-1.35
Social Exchange Quality												
Gratitude												
Anger												
Shame												
<i>R</i> ²	.22			.31			.72			.69		

Note. *N* = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table B1. *Guilt as an Additional Emotion (cont.)*

	Anger			Shame			Guilt		
	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
<i>Coefficients</i>									
Intercept	1.24	1.50	8.41	1.38	1.93	9.50	1.39	1.65	7.93
<i>Helping Variables</i>									
Utility of help	.21	.12	1.18	.41*	.29	2.42	.48*	.28	2.34
Incivility of help	.01	.01	.06	.06	.04	.31	.09	.05	.39
<i>Mediators</i>									
Distributive justice	-.08	-.13	-1.01	.08	.13	.93	.04	.06	.37
Interpersonal justice	-.33**	-.56	-3.92	-.22*	-.44	-2.69	-.23*	-.37	-2.26
Justice interaction	.11*	.21	1.96	-.14*	-.32	-2.56	-.17*	-.32	-2.52
Social Exchange Quality									
Gratitude									
Anger									
Shame									
R^2	.45			.28			.26		

Note. $N = 59$ help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table B1. *Guilt as an Additional Emotion (cont.)*

<i>Coefficients</i>	Helping intentions			CWB intentions		
	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	2.35	2.13	4.26	.92	1.41	2.59
<i>Helping Variables</i>						
Utility of help	-.32	-.14	-1.30	.18	.13	1.11
Incivility of help	-.18	-.08	-.78	.17	.13	1.15
<i>Mediators</i>						
Distributive justice	-.01	-.01	-.05	.08	.16	1.11
Interpersonal justice	.06	.07	.39	-.11	-.24	-1.22
Justice interaction						
Social Exchange Quality	.07	.07	.37	-.04	-.08	-.36
Gratitude	.47*	.62	2.91	-.01	-.03	-.13
Anger	-.12	-.09	-.73	.37*	.46	3.43
Shame	-.15	-.10	-.59	.05	.05	.30
Guilt	.00	.00	.02	-.14	-.18	-.97
<i>R</i> ²	.56			.48		

Note. *N* = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table B2. *Decision Making as an Outcome for Help Recipients*

	Distributive justice			Interpersonal justice			Social Exchange Quality			Gratitude		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	-.04	-.04	-.18	.33	.24	1.30	3.16	2.52	19.70	3.05	2.10	15.68
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	.88**	.35	3.01	.65*	.23	2.14	.55*	.22	2.92	.97*	.33	4.25
Incivility of help	-.74*	-.29	-2.52	-1.38**	-.49	-4.55	-.37*	-.15	-1.81	-.08	-.03	-.32
<i>Mediators</i>												
Distributive justice							.30**	.30	3.34	.33**	.31	2.94
Interpersonal justice							.41**	.45	4.44	.44**	.39	4.08
Justice interaction							-.00	-.00	-.02	-.10	-.11	-1.35
Social Exchange Quality												
Gratitude												
Anger												
Shame												
<i>R</i> ²	.22			.31			.72			.69		

Note. *N* = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table B2. *Decision Making as an Outcome for Help Recipients (cont.)*

<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Anger</i>			<i>Shame</i>			<i>Helping intentions</i>			<i>CWB intentions</i>		
	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	1.24	1.50	8.41	1.38	1.93	9.50	2.35	2.12	4.31	.98	1.49	2.74
<i>Helping Variables</i>												
Utility of help	.21	.12	1.18	.41*	.29	2.42	-.32	-.14	-1.30	.19	.14	1.17
Incivility of help	.01	.01	.06	.06	.04	.31	-.18	-.08	-.78	.17	.13	1.12
<i>Mediators</i>												
Distributive justice	-.08	-.13	-1.01	.08	.13	.93	-.01	-.01	-.05	.10	.19	1.40
Interpersonal justice	-.33**	-.56	-3.92	-.22*	-.44	-2.69	.06	.07	.39	-.10	-.22	-1.10
Justice interaction	.11*	.21	1.96	-.14*	-.32	-2.56						
Social Exchange Quality							.07	.07	.37	-.03	-.06	-.26
Gratitude							.47*	.62	3.14	-.05	-.11	-.52
Anger							-.12	-.09	-.72	.36*	.46	3.38
Shame							-.15	-.09	-.86	-.07	-.07	-.60
<i>R</i> ²	.45			.28			.56			.47		

Note. *N* = 59 help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* *p* < .05

** *p* < .01

Table B2. *Decision Making as an Outcome for Help Recipients (cont.)*

	Decision Making		
<i>Coefficients</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	3.26	2.84	5.15
<i>Helping Variables</i>			
Utility of help	.51	.22	1.80
Incivility of help	.16	.07	.58
<i>Mediators</i>			
Distributive justice	-.19	-.20	-1.46
Interpersonal justice	.21	.26	1.29
Justice interaction			
Social Exchange Quality	.04	.04	.18
Gratitude	.26	.33	1.47
Anger	-.28	-.20	-1.46
Shame	-.25	-.16	-1.29
R^2	.45		

Note. $N = 59$ help recipients. Justice interaction = distributive justice x interpersonal justice.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table B3. *Predicting Help Recipient Justice Perceptions from Different Attributions*

<i>Coefficients</i>	Distributive justice			Interpersonal justice		
	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>	γ	γ'	<i>t-value</i>
Intercept	-.04	-.04	-.18	.33	.24	1.30
<i>Helping Variables</i>						
Utility of help	.50*	.18	1.98	.17	.07	.87
Incivility of help	.15	.05	.47	-.13	-.06	-.54
Performance Promotion Motives	.74*	.68	3.80	.46*	.50	3.07
Injury Initiation Motives	-.21	-.16	-.65	-.27	-.25	-1.12
Utility of help x Performance Promotion Motives	-.27	-.17	-1.26	-.13	-.10	-.77
Incivility of help x Performance Promotion Motives	-.28	-.17	-1.19	.54*	.40	2.98
Utility of help x Injury Initiation Motives	-.02	-.01	-.08	-.38	-.24	-1.92
Incivility of help x Injury Initiation Motives	-.14	-.10	-.39	.12	.10	.43
<i>R</i> ²	.22			.31		

Note. $N = 59$ help recipients. Performance promotion motives and injury initiation motives centered at their corresponding grand means.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

APPENDIX C: Figures

Figure 1. Conceptual Model of Antecedents and Outcomes of Helping Experiences

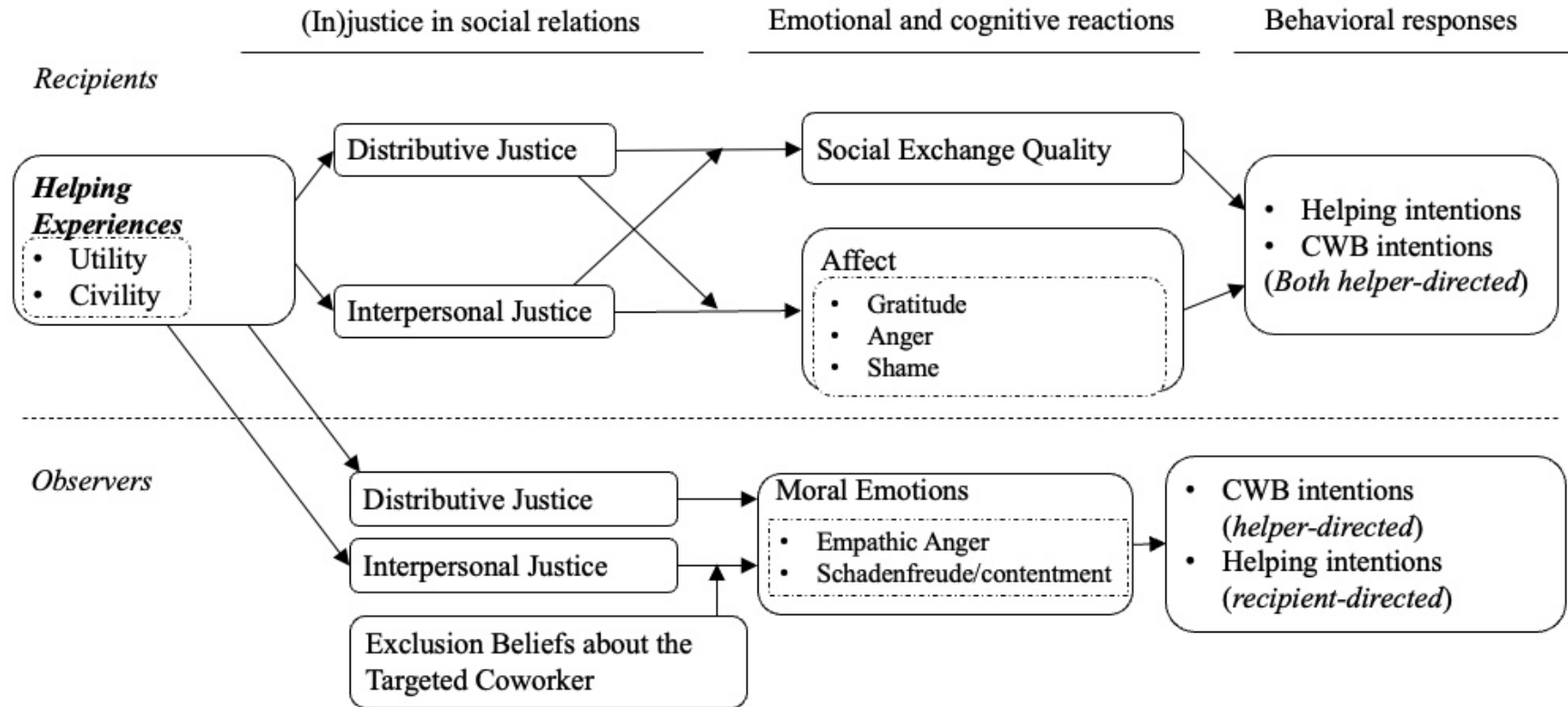
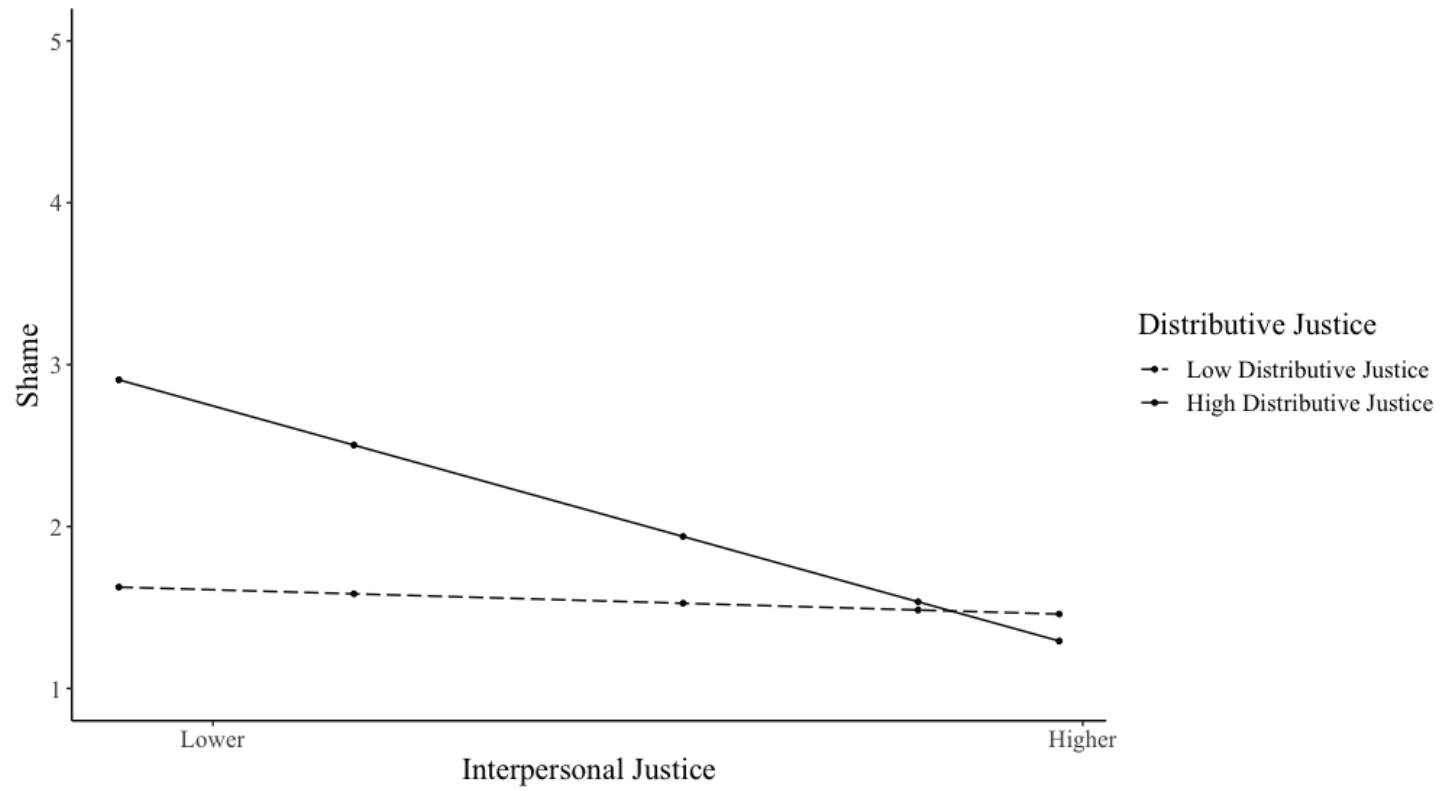


Figure 2. Interaction between Interpersonal Justice and Distributive Justice on Anger



Figure 3. Interaction between Interpersonal Justice and Distributive Justice on Shame



APPENDIX D: Measures

For Helpers:

Manipulation Check (utility of help; civility of help)

(1= Not at all; 5= very much)

1. In this incident that you experienced, please rate the extent to which you feel the other person was helpful/effective in getting your problems solved
2. In this incident that you experienced, please rate the extent to which you feel it's an unpleasant/negative interaction

Distributive Justice (4 items)

(Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: a construct validation of a measure. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 386)

Instructions: The questions below refer to the helping that you just received. To what extent:

(1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. Did the help you received reflect the effort you have put into your work?
2. Was the help you received appropriate for the work you have completed?
3. Did the help you received reflect what you have contributed to the task to the organization?
4. Was the help you received justified, given your performance?

Interpersonal Justice

(Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: a construct validation of a measure. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 386)

Instructions: The following items refer to the people who helped you. To what extent

(1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. Did he/she treat you in a polite manner?
2. Did he/she treat you with dignity?
3. Did he/she treat you with respect?
4. Did he/she refrain from improper remarks or comments?

Guilt

(Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: Injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of applied psychology*, 94(2), 429)

1. Guilty
2. Sorry
3. Regretful

Shame (PANAS-X; Watson & Clark, 1994; 6 items)

(Heaven, P. C., Ciarrochi, J., & Leeson, P. (2009). The longitudinal links between shame and increasing hostility during adolescence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47(8), 841-844.)

1. Ashamed
2. Blameworthy
3. Disgusted with self
4. Angry at self
5. Dissatisfied with self

Social Exchange Relationship (SER)

(Colquitt, J. A., Baer, M. D., Long, D. M., & Halvorsen-Ganepola, M. D. (2014). Scale indicators of social exchange relationships: A comparison of relative content validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(4), 599.)

Instructions: The following items refer to the people who helped you. To what extent is your relationship with Participant A (the person helping me) is characterized by (1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. Mutual obligation
2. Mutual trust
3. Mutual commitment
4. Mutual significance

Emotions toward Participant A

Instructions: We would like to know how you are feeling. Please rate the extent to which you are experiencing the following toward each person in your group.

For participant A...(duplicate section)

Gratitude Tsang, J. A. (2007). Gratitude for small and large favors: A behavioral test. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 2(3), 157-167.

(1 = "not at all;" 2 = "slightly;" 3 = "moderately;" 4 = "quite a bit;" 5 = "very much")

1. Grateful
2. Thankful
3. Appreciative

Anger (Spencer, S., & Rupp, D. E. (2009). Angry, guilty, and conflicted: Injustice toward coworkers heightens emotional labor through cognitive and emotional mechanisms. *Journal of applied psychology*, 94(2), 429)

Anger Regarding Customer Treatment Toward Self. (9 items; Adapted from Mattern, Bedwell, & Rupp, 2004)

Instructions: We would like to know how you are feeling. Please rate the extent to which you are experiencing the following

(1 = "not at all;" 2 = "slightly;" 3 = "moderately;" 4 = "quite a bit;" 5 = "very much")

1. Irritated
2. Angry
3. Furious
4. Annoyed
5. Hostile

Behavioral Intentions toward Participant A

Helping intentions (Adapted to intentions)

(Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(1), 131.)

On a scale from (1 = "not at all;" 2 = "slightly;" 3 = "moderately;" 4 = "quite a bit;" 5 = "very much"), to what extent would you, if given the opportunity in the future, be willing to ...

1. Help them.
2. Willingly give your time to help them.
3. Go out of the way to make them feel welcome.
4. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward them.
5. Give up time to help them.

6. Assist them with their work.

Counterproductive Work Behavior Intentions (Adapted to intentions)

(CWB adapted; original 6 items) Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and overall job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(5), 1051-1066.)

(Avoidance items from Ferris, D. L., Yan, M., Lim, V. K., Chen, Y., & Fatimah, S. (2016). An approach-avoidance framework of workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(5), 1777-1800.)

On a scale from (1 = “not at all;” 2 = “slightly;” 3 = “moderately;” 4 = “quite a bit;” 5 = “very much”), to what extent would you, if given the opportunity in the future, be willing to ...

CWBI (Active)

1. Behave in an unpleasant manner toward them
2. Criticize their opinion or suggestion.
3. Exclude them from a conversation.
4. Speak poorly about them to others.

Attribution for Participant A’s behavior

(Adapted from Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R., 2012. The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of management journal*).

Instruction: For each of the following statements, please indicate your agreement or disagreement with each item. Participant A’s behavior was...

(1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree)

1. Performance Promotion Motives
2. Desire to help me
3. Desire to stimulate me to meet my performance goals
4. Desire to push me to work harder
5. Injury Initiation Motives
6. Desire to cause injury on me.
7. Desire to hurt my feelings.
8. Desire to make me feel bad about myself.

Decision making toward Participant A

Instructions: Thank you for all the work today! We understand that not all sessions run as smoothly as we want them to. We have implemented giving the opportunity to participants to recommend adjusting other participants’ credit to account for this. As a result, you now have the opportunity to adjust the amount of SONA credits for Participant A in either direction by 2 (default is 2.5). Depending on your interactions with him/her, or on other criteria, choose the recommended credits to be assigned to him/her

1.25 (50% lower), 1.875 (25% lower), 2.5 (default), 3.125 (25% higher), 3.75 (50% higher)

For Observers:

Distributive Justice (Adapted; original is on patient care)

(Dunford, B. B., Jackson, C. L., Boss, A. D., Tay, L., & Boss, R. W. (2015). Be fair, your employees are watching: A relational response model of external third-party justice. *Personnel Psychology*, 68(2), 319-352)

Instructions: (Adaptation) - You might have noticed one of your team-mates receiving help during this session. Please use the items below to indicate your agreement to the following statements that describe the help given, if any. To what extent:

(1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. Was the help Participant B (help recipient) received appropriate?
2. Did Participant B (help recipient) get the help needed?
3. Was the help adequate given his/her needs?
4. Did Participant B (help recipient) get the help deserved?

Interpersonal Justice

(Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: a construct validation of a measure. *Journal of applied psychology*, 86(3), 386)

Instructions: You might have noticed one of your team-mates receiving help during this session. Please use the items above to indicate your agreement to the following statements that describe the help given, if any. To what extent does Participant A (the person who provided the help)...

(1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. treated Participant B (help recipient) in a polite manner?
2. treated Participant B (help recipient) with dignity?
3. treated Participant B (help recipient) with respect?
4. refrained from improper remarks or comments to Participant B (help recipient)?

Exclusion beliefs about the targeted help-recipients

(Mitchell, M. S., Vogel, R. M., & Folger, R. (2015). Third parties' reactions to the abusive supervision of coworkers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(4), 1040.)

Instructions: Please rate the extent to which you are experiencing the following toward Participant B right now.

(1 = to a small extent; 2 = to some extent; 3 = to a moderate extent; 4 = to a great extent; 5 = to a very great extent)

1. It is OK to treat Participant B (help recipient) unfairly
2. Participant B (help recipient) deserves to be treated poorly

Contentment

(3 items; Frederickson, Tugade, Waugh, and Larkin, 2003)

1. Content
2. Serene
3. Peaceful

Empathic anger (8 items)

1. Mad
2. Angry
3. Furious
4. Resentful
5. Irritated
6. Enraged
7. Aggravated
8. Outraged

Counterproductive Work Behavior (Adapted to intentions) toward Participant A

(CWB adapted; original 6 items) Dalal, R. S., Lam, H., Weiss, H. M., Welch, E. R., & Hulin, C. L. (2009). A within-person approach to work behavior and performance: Concurrent and lagged citizenship-counterproductivity associations, and dynamic relationships with affect and overall job performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(5), 1051-1066.)

(Avoidance items from Ferris, D. L., Yan, M., Lim, V. K., Chen, Y., & Fatimah, S. (2016). An approach-avoidance framework of workplace aggression. *Academy of Management Journal*, 59(5), 1777-1800.)

Rate the extent to which you are willing to engage in behaviors in the future toward each person in your group.

For participant A, to what extent would you, if given the opportunity in the future, be willing to

...

(1 = "not at all;" 2 = "slightly;" 3 = "moderately;" 4 = "quite a bit;" 5 = "very much")

CWBI (Active)

1. Behave in an unpleasant manner toward them
2. Criticize their opinion or suggestion.
3. Exclude them from a conversation.
4. Speak poorly about them to others.

Behavioral Intentions toward Participant B

Helping intentions (Adapted to intentions)

(Lee, K., & Allen, N. J. (2002). Organizational citizenship behavior and workplace deviance: The role of affect and cognitions. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(1), 131.)

Rate the extent to which you are willing to engage in behaviors in the future toward each person in your group.

For participant B, to what extent would you, if given the opportunity in the future, be willing to

... (1 = not at all to 5 = very much)

1. Help them.
2. Willingly give my time to help them.
3. Go out of the way to make them feel welcome.
4. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward them.
5. Give up time to help them.
6. Assist them with their work.

APPENDIX E. IRB Approval



Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board

Date: 09/03/2021
Application Number: IRB-21-340
Proposal Title: The effects of receiving and observing help

Principal Investigator: Sherry Fu
Co-Investigator(s):
Faculty Adviser: Nikos Dimotakis, PhD
Project Coordinator:
Research Assistant(s):

Processed as: Expedited
Expedited Category:

Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Approval Date: 09/03/2021

The IRB application referenced above has been approved. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

This study meets criteria in the Revised Common Rule, as well as, one or more of the circumstances for which continuing review is not required. As Principal Investigator of this research, you will be required to submit a status report to the IRB triennially.

The final versions of any recruitment, consent, and assent documents bearing the IRB approval stamp are available for download from IRBManager. These are the versions that must be used during the study.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be approved by the IRB. Protocol modifications requiring approval may include changes to the title, PI, adviser, other research personnel, funding status or sponsor, subject population composition or size, recruitment, inclusion/exclusion criteria, research site, research procedures and consent/assent process or forms.
2. Submit a status report to the IRB when requested
3. Promptly report to the IRB any harm experienced by a participant that is both unanticipated and related per IRB policy.
4. Maintain accurate and complete study records for evaluation by the OSU IRB and, if applicable, inspection by regulatory agencies and/or the study sponsor.
5. Notify the IRB office when your research project is complete or when you are no longer affiliated with Oklahoma State University.

If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact the IRB Office at 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Sincerely,
Oklahoma State University IRB

VITA

Sherry (Qiang) Fu

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Dissertation: THE EFFECTS OF RECEIVING AND OBSERVING
DYSFUNCTIONAL HELP AT WORK

Major Field: Business Administration

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in May, 2022.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Organizational Management at City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China in 2014.

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science in Business Administration at Tianjin University of Finance and Economics, Tianjin, China in 2013.

Professional Memberships:

Academy of Management